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VOLUME LXXV

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20, 40, 60, 80, 100, 120, 140, 160, 177, 196, 214, 233, 253, 274, 293, 313, 334, 352, 370, 390, 409, 430, 450, 470, 489, 510.

### *ERRATA.*

Page 7, col. iii., line 28 from bottom. For "half a million cards" read "fifty thousand titles."

Page 71, col. iii., line 13. For "Thorpe" read "Forsyth."

Page 106, col. ii., line 21 from bottom. Substitute the following for the entire line: may be taught more or less well." His reason is.

Page 107, col. i., line 38. For "drawing and modelling" read "drawing or modelling."

Page 136, col. ii., line 45. For "Homer" read "Horace."

Page 148, col. ii., lines 22, 23 from bottom. For "Lauzun died at Montrouge on the 1st of January, 1794," read "Lauzun was guillotined in Paris December 1, 1793."

Page 272, cols. ii., iii. In the notice of 'Supplements to Burnet's History,' passim. For "Mr. Foxcroft" read "Miss."

Page 287, col. ii., line 20; and line 6 from bottom. For "Doclen" read "Doelen."

Page 365, col. i., line 21 from bottom. For "Decorations" read "Decoration."

Page 398, col. ii., line 24 from bottom. For "Louis XIII." read "Louis IX."

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 3, 1902.

## The Week.

If the late session did not produce another "billion-dollar Congress," it fell short only two hundred millions, surpassing the last session's appropriations by seventy millions. Little was said in protest, except by gray old watch-dogs of the Treasury like Congressman Cannon. It is part of the large lavishness which goes so well with the *nouveau-riche* assumptions of our latter-day Imperialists. Other phenomena mark the transition from our ancient spirit of jealous economy. President Cleveland was violently denounced for occasionally making use of a Government dispatch-boat. To-day the President not only uses that as a family convenience, but has also a "Presidential yacht" ready to be commissioned. Shall the King have his *Victoria and Albert*, and the Kaiser his *Hohenzollern*, and the American President not have his *Mayflower?* Uncle Sam proudly slaps his plethoric pocket and says he guesses not. We must leave the Administration a free hand, we are told; but a Government with a free hand, when that hand is full of the people's money, is one of the most alarming things known to prudent statesmen.

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Solving a deadlock by deciding to do nothing was the method chosen to compose the difference between the two houses on the subject of providing a currency and banking system for the Philippines. The Senate, led by that unyielding champion of the gold standard, Senator Lodge, stood firmly for the silver standard in our Philippine possessions. The House was as stout for the gold standard. Both sides declared action to be of the most pressing importance. The reports of the War Department, of Gov. Taft, of the special commissioner sent to the islands, Mr. Conant, together with communications from Manila business houses, agreed that something must be done, and that quickly, to relieve the existing chaos. To all this, House and Senate alike assented. Each argued powerfully for the need of instant legislation. Each came forward with its own remedy for a confessedly acute situation. But agreement was found to be impossible—except the agreement to pass no law at all. So, with a great flourish of harmony, reports were made in either house recommending that the urgent relief which Manila is crying out for be coolly denied in any form whatever.

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An official statement of the Administration's conception of what is the present political status of the Filipinos was filed by the Attorney-General in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia on June 24, in the case of a Filipino desirous of becoming an American citizen by the usual process of naturalization. Since Congress has not yet fixed the political standing of the Filipinos or their civil rights, Mr. Knox holds that, like the Chinese, the applicant cannot take out naturalization papers, but must retain the "nationality of the Philippines." Exactly what that is, the Filipinos themselves have been trying to find out, by force of arms and in other ways. Even Buencamino, now so loyal to the American interests, could not restrain himself when before the Philippine Committee the other day. What are we? he asked—American citizens or not? The answer is that, in the eyes of the Administration, the courts, and the Attorney-General, the Filipinos are merely subjects of the republic, inhabitants of a conquered territory held by force of arms. Even Buencamino, for all his new-donned loyalty, cannot attain the rights accorded to the humblest Turk, or Czech, or Russian, or African. How pleasant all this will read in Tagalog or Ilocano! And how it must make the Filipinos love us to know that we consider their lands good enough to exploit, but themselves not fit for citizenship even when they come and live among us.

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For a long time past, the War Department has amused itself by insisting that there is a state of war in the Philippines, while at the same moment assuring the country that civil governments and peace are reigning in nearly every province. Thus, Gen. Chaffee has been given certain rights and powers which appertain to a general commanding an army in the field only when a state of war exists. A still more striking example of this clever way of having peace and a state of war at the same time appears when one considers the judicial system of the islands. In many provinces—in fact, all through those under civil authority—military commissions are trying hundreds of Filipinos for causes which are plainly within the competence of the courts established by Gov. Taft's Commission. In each case the charges against the prisoner read: "in the Province of ————, then as now in a state of insurrection," although the province in question may have been repeatedly declared pacified. One such trial, brought to our attention, involves an alleged crime committed by three natives during the time when hostilities were at their height. In this case, however, the military commission of three members declined to try the prisoners, in view of the fact that a competent civil court was at work in the same town; counsel for the defence pleading the law and the readiness of the civil court as a bar to further proceedings. In Manila it was reported that this commission would be severely reprimanded for its action, despite the fact that the law is on its side. But this is an isolated case, for everywhere else the military courts are proceeding to condemn Filipinos without proper authorization of law.

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Admiral Dewey's testimony last week before the Senate Committee on the Philippines establishes beyond dispute the spurious character of the so-called battle of Manila. His guns commanded the city absolutely, but the Spanish Governor-General wanted a little firing to salve his imperilled "honor," and so, to oblige his opponent, Admiral Dewey very politely and jauntily "killed a few people," as he puts it. Apparently no hunter could destroy a dozen squirrels with less compunction. Moreover, he expressed no regrets for the American soldiers needlessly killed in the land attack. Perhaps with him, as with the responsible generals, the high rewards bestowed upon the leaders of this sham battle quite overshadowed the casualty list. Yet this is one of the achievements of which we were so proud in 1898. Admiral Dewey made it plain that he in no way officially recognized the Philippine republic, and that he never saluted the Filipino flag. But he did not hesitate to tell of the arms which he handed over to Aguinaldo or of the cordial encouragement he gave to that leader. "He and I were always on the most friendly terms. We never had any differences. He considered me as his liberator and his friend," the Admiral declared. What wonder that when Aguinaldo found that, instead of a liberator, he was dealing with the Admiral of a people which wished to conquer and buy instead of to free, he should have used Dewey's rifles in defence of his countrymen? Perhaps the most striking part of the Admiral's testimony was his reiteration of his belief that the Filipinos are better fitted for self-government than the Cubans. Nor was the moral effect of this impaired by the voluntarily added opinion that neither people was qualified to govern itself. For Cuban capacity the American nation stands sponsor.

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That our broken pledges to Cuba are to be a leading issue in the Congressional elections, the action of the House Democrats in caucus on Friday night makes plain. It will come as a rude awakening to Republican newspapers which have been hiding their heads in the sand, and flattering themselves that,

if they only kept still enough and lay low enough, the country would speedily forget the whole thing. As Senator Platt of Connecticut said on Friday, three-quarters of the people feel humiliated at the betrayal of Cuba by the Republicans. This recreancy of the party in power is what the House Democrats justly arraign. Senator Teller's argument will be heard in every Congressional district this fall—namely, that the Republicans are so tied hand and foot that they dare not touch any tariff duty which aids a Trust. This was also the main contention of the House Democrats. They made their resolutions apply strictly to the actual situation. Here was the pressing and continuing obligation resting upon Congress—to go to the aid of Cuba, and to strike off every protective tax on which monopoly grows fat. Why should Congress adjourn before doing its duty? That is the awkward question which the House Democrats put. Their caucus manifesto did not pretend to cover the whole field of party policy. As the Democrats in both houses had already voted solidly for Philippine independence, there was no need of a fresh deliverance on that subject. It was good strategy to remind the Republicans sharply of their sins of omission before they adjourned Congress, and ran away from what their own President has called the dictate of honor.

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The United States Treasury begins its new fiscal year under pleasing auspices. The revenue for the twelvemonth just completed has passed all expectations. When last year's revenue reduction bill went into force in July, 1901, it was commonly estimated that its remission of taxes would cut off $40,000,000 from the nation's annual income. The internal revenue has, in fact, fallen short some $35,000,000 from the preceding fiscal year; but, in the meantime, a quite unlooked-for expansion of the customs revenue has produced on that account $16,000,000 more than in 1901. In other words, taxes producing forty millions annually have been abolished, and still the country's wealth and consuming power have increased so rapidly that the revenue yield has turned out only twenty-four millions short of the year preceding. This is a state of things to which a British Finance Minister could refer, in laying his budget before Parliament, as conclusive witness to strength in the Treasury and prosperity in the country.

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It is interesting to remark, in the same connection, that the surplus cash in the hands of the Government, by Monday's returns, was the largest in the country's history. This surplus, including gold reserved against the legal tenders, reached in April, 1888, the sum of $341,400,000, which then surpassed all records. From that sum it declined, first through lavish disbursement for bond redemptions, then through an actual shortage in the revenue, until it reached at length the low level of $84,082,000 at the close of 1893. Not until near the close of last May did this Treasury surplus again reach the high mark of 1888. It stands to-day at $356,185,000. The surplus revenue of the fiscal year just closed was, in round numbers, $92,000,000; hence the seventy-million cut proposed by the measure which went into force on July 1 leaves at all events some margin. Not least among the gratifying elements in the Treasury's position is the proportion of gold which goes to make up the Treasury's cash reserve. Since last year the Treasury has had in its vaults much the largest sum of gold held by any single institution in the world. It closed the fiscal year 1901 with its gold holdings, like its total cash balance, at the high mark of its history.

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Secretary Shaw has embodied in a Treasury order the principle frequently enunciated by the Board of Appraisers, viz., that American artists resident abroad are entitled to free entry of their own works. The Dingley bill accorded this not excessive favor to "artists residing temporarily abroad," and it was the word temporarily that made the trouble. The tendency at the Custom-house was not to assume that an artist's sojourn abroad was temporary, but, on the contrary, to maintain that after four or five years it must be regarded as permanent. Accordingly, many American artists resident in Europe have had private advice that they can bring home their own works only upon the condition of paying the regular duty on works of art; and we believe that in some instances the duty has actually been paid. Secretary Shaw's enlightened order practically declares that the privilege of free entry for an American artist goes with his American citizenship. If he has shown no intention of changing his allegiance, it is to be assumed that he means to return, and that his foreign residence is "temporary" in the sense of the law. If we are bound indefinitely to the absurdity of a tariff on works of art, it is at least a relief not to find ourselves in the position of punishing our artists for the foreign study and residence which are so valuable to them. In demonstrating that the application of a protective tariff is compatible with some measure of common sense, Secretary Shaw is serving party and public well.

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In nominating Robert E. Pattison for Governor last week, the Pennsylvania Democrats put their best foot forward. Quay, it is evident, did not succeed in carrying out his expressed intention to "see to it" that the Democrats nominated some one who would be easy to beat. Having served two most successful terms as Governor of Pennsylvania, Mr. Pattison is well qualified, both by experience and by known ability, to fill the office for which he has been nominated. He showed exceptional courage last year in striking a blow at the "Quay" Democrats in Philadelphia, and forcing a reorganization of the party machinery in that city. He is easily the leading Democrat of the State, and there is much in his candidacy which will prove attractive to independent voters, though doubtless many of them will refuse to forget and forgive his submission to the Populistic tendencies which took possession of the Democratic National Convention in 1896.

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By confining its platform solely to State issues, the Pennsylvania Convention adopted a wise and judicious course. The situation in that ring-ridden State fully justifies such a proceeding, if there were not other obvious reasons for it. Doubtless the platform will attract some independent Republican support which, finding little to prefer as between two such excellent candidates as Judge Pennypacker and ex-Gov. Pattison, would otherwise vote the Republican ticket. The promise of ballot reform, the most pressing political need in Pennsylvania, is made by both parties; but the Republicans have been so often faithless to such promises that it is difficult to find a reason for accepting this year's protestations. Quay is nominating the same old tools for seats in the Legislature, and Quay has in the past gained and held his power largely by election frauds. On the other hand, every argument, both of morality and expediency, urges the Democrats to bring about ballot reform. Their platform calls for a personal-registration law and a secret ballot, and ex-Gov. Pattison is pledged to carry this reform through if elected.

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The hearts of the Michigan Republicans are true to President Roosevelt, but much truer to their own blood-bought beet. Their platform expresses "sincere admiration" for the "desire for justice" which Mr. Roosevelt has "brought to bear on all public affairs," but is resolutely hostile to "all efforts to destroy or emasculate" the protective tariff, as to any "plan that would interfere with the industries of the United States"—that is, to Roosevelt's Cuban policy. This reduces the Michigan admiration of justice to a fine willingness that others should be just. Do justice though the heavens fall, but not our particular heaven of beet-sugar. The action of the Michigan Republicans is, of course, a demonstration of the hold which Senator Burrows and Congressman Smith have on the party in that State. They are temporarily more fortunate than the

Kansas and Nebraska Senators who defied the President only to be rebuked by their own constituents. Michigan distinctly takes its place in the anti-Roosevelt column. In so doing it emphasizes the divided counsels by which the Republican party is rent. What position on Cuban reciprocity is it going to take in the Congressional elections? The managers would give much to know. They cannot be warmly for it in Massachusetts while furiously against it in Michigan. A dignified silence on the subject would seem to be the wiser course, combined with loud assertions that the great Republican party can be depended upon to solve rightly every question before the nation. Then if the voters have no sense of the ridiculous, all may yet be well.

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In these days of vast benefactions to universities, it seems a little strange that Johns Hopkins University should have had great difficulty in raising the $1,000,000 which secures to it the gift of a beautiful permanent site on the outskirts of Baltimore. However, Johns Hopkins University has from the point of view of money-raising great disadvantages. The shade of the founder still discourages great givers. The alumni, the main resource in such matters, are largly college professors or members of the scantily paid professions. Perhaps, too, the fact that Johns Hopkins has held up very austere academic ideals in a genial Southern community may have had something to do with the too gradual relaxing of the purse-strings of the Baltimoreans. However that may be, it must be said that no university faculty so well deserves prosperity, while few have met with so much unmerited adversity. For this reason the opening of more prosperous days for Johns Hopkins University brings a peculiar pleasure to all friends of higher education in America. They will hope that it marks the beginning of a closer relation between the city of Baltimore and the University which has made Baltimore an honored name wherever men gather for the promotion of sound learning.

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A pathetic interest attaches to the royal honors conferred while King Edward's life hung in the balance. While routine promotions are naturally the rule, many of the awards are of peculiar interest to Americans. That good sportsman, Sir Thomas Lipton, needed no baronetcy, but we are glad he has it. It may take a little time to think of Leslie Stephen and A. Conan Doyle as Sir Leslie and Sir Arthur, and the chance that brackets them with Sir Gilbert Parker and Sir Francis A. Burnand of *Punch* is a curious one. The first awards of the Order of Merit instituted by the King are of special significance. We cannot hold inferior to any order venerable through antiquity one of which the first members include Lord Roberts, Lord Kitchener, Lord Kelvin, Lord Lister, Mr. John Morley, George Watts, Lord Rayleigh, and Mr. Lecky.

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Dispatches from Paris prove that Premier Combes has begun to keep the promises so plentifully made to his Radical majority. It was at the opening of Parliament that he said: "The Associations Law has reached the administrative and judicial stage. The Government will see to it that none of its provisions remain ineffective." The recent activity of the police in searching out unauthorized religious orders has been the prelude to a decree dissolving one hundred and thirty-five of them which have not complied with the requirements of the law. While this policy is in contrast to that of M. Waldeck-Rousseau, which was to rest content with the unenforced rigors of the law against the orders, it is still only a formal fulfilment of Premier Combes's promise. Of something like 16,000 religious establishments in France, rather more than half applied for authorization, a small number fled the country, and a larger number (notably, the influential Jesuit colleges) reorganized as quasi-secular corporations, in the hope of thus evading the law. In the light of these statistics, it becomes clear that the one hundred and thirty-five establishments which are closed by Presidential decree can include rather less than the fortieth part of those that are openly or covertly in contempt. One must suppose that the decree affects only notoriously disloyal orders. This beginning of an aggressively anti-clerical campaign will undoubtedly please the Radical-Socialist wing of M. Combes's majority, but they will feel that it is only the beginning. The real test of the anti-clerical zeal of the Ministry and of the expediency of the Associations Law will come when the Government seriously undertakes to ferret out the seven thousand or so unauthorized establishments.

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Count von Bülow's open rebuke of the Prussian Agrarians for their extravagant tariff demands and for opposition to pending reciprocity treaties marks apparently a complete change of attitude. For months past the Chancellor has acted upon the principle of conciliating the squirearchy, which has accordingly been free to play havoc with Government measures, like the canal bills, and generally to obstruct legislation. The recent change of front was, it is said, ordered by the Emperor himself; and, in fact, it is more in keeping with the Emperor's policy of the mailed fist than with Von Bülow's mild parliamentary strategy. The high-handed policy has been, for the moment at least, justified by the passing of the bill accepting the Brussels sugar schedule, which had long languished in committee. There is a certain amount of risk in disciplining so compact and formidable a body as the Agrarians, but there is greater risk in allowing them unlimited rights of obstruction. As a rebellious element in the Conservative ranks, they are undoubtedly dangerous; yet coercion from the Emperor can hardly force them into secession since they have no natural allies among the Opposition groups. It appears, then, that in treating them frankly as insubordinates, the Chancellor and the Emperor have shown a very sagacious hardihood.

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There never was very much doubt that the Triple Alliance, appointed to expire in May, 1903, would be again renewed in the original terms. Bismarck had made the bond too formal to be lightly repudiated, and the clashing interests of the signatory parties are more than offset by the threat of the Franco-Russian alliance, so recently and dramatically extended to the Far East. But it is fair to say that at no time in the past has the *Triplice* had a more artificial look than it has at the moment of its revival. If its terms have not changed, all the contracting Powers have changed greatly since 1896. In fact, the inclusion of Rumania in that year constitutes now one of the chief reasons for the further existence of the pact, for Rumania is the chief potential obstacle to the ulterior designs of Russia in the Levant. Without that partial renovation, the Bismarckian schedule would now with great difficulty find a *raison d'être* in the internal interests of any of the contracting Powers. Germany, for whose enhancement the alliance was contrived by the master mind of Bismarck, now has measurably outgrown the need of her allies. The two other parties, Austria and Italy, have, indeed, so little reason for standing by Germany in the event of a general war that one must consider their attitude towards the alliance to be Platonic in the extreme. Austria depends for the safeguarding of her interests in the Balkans, not upon the German army or the Italian fleet, but upon an *entente* with the Russian empire, guaranteed by the stalwart presence of Rumania in the road to Constantinople. In Italy, too, things have greatly changed since a master stroke of Bismarckian duplicity made France the enemy of Italy, and Italy Germany's ardent ally. The other day at Rome the Italian Foreign Minister, Signor Prinetti, closed an elaborate eulogium of the Triple Alliance with gratulations upon the complete accord between France and Italy. Within the year French and Italian fleets have exchanged visits, and Italy is invited by the French Foreign Office to make good in Tripoli the almost forgotten chagrin of the loss of Tunis.

### *THE SESSION OF CONGRESS.*

A review of the session of Congress just ending might well begin with the characterization which Junius made of the Duke of Grafton. Like him, it "did not rise to the dignity of being hated." Its sins were despicable rather than desperately wicked and alarming. It is hard to be angry with a body so feebly led as the present House, for example. And the sentiment which the Senate excites in an observant mind is not wrathful so much as it is sorrowful. Uncertainty, timidity, and ineffectiveness are, in truth, the words which one feels like using to describe both the personality and the work of the past session of Congress. To be entirely charitable, we will borrow Disraeli's phrase, and say that its movements have been those of "a man distracted by good intentions and difficult circumstances."

In any estimate of the character of a Congress, or of a man, we have to discriminate between what are called the negative and the positive virtues. The former call for no praise, though their absence merits the severest condemnation. No man, for example, can plume himself on speaking the truth, or being kind to his family, or showing gratitude for a favor. Those are but negative virtues; they carry with them no sense of complacency; every normal and honorable man is expected to exhibit them. So there are negative Congressional virtues which call for no laudation. It is expected of Congress that it will get through its routine work; will vote supplies for the ongoing of the Government; will observe the customary forms of public business. To expatiate with pride upon these regular and ordinary activities of Congress is like praising a man for not being a liar and an ingrate.

The true test comes with an inquiry into the positive virtues. How has Congress discharged the duties, not entirely perfunctory, which have been laid upon it? Badly, we think the fair verdict will be. It has not lived up to its own professions. It has wofully come short of the Presidential and party programme. It has, in one vital matter, thwarted the obvious wish of the country and brought to it deep mortification. This was bluntly, or inadvertently, confessed by Senator Hanna on Monday. He declared, in effect, that Congress had sadly disappointed just expectations, and would "hear from the people." This phrase ordinarily means that the party in power will be turned out; and a legitimate inference from Senator Hanna's language would be that he expects, possibly desires, to see a Democratic House elected next November. That, so far as we know, is the only effective way in which the voters can let the Republican party "hear" that they are dissatisfied with its course in Congress. However that may be, Senator Hanna's frank admission in open Senate is proof enough that Congress is not adjourning with any notion that it will receive an enthusiastic "Well done!" from the country.

Two highly important bills became law, but by a non-partisan vote. We refer to the bills for an Isthmian canal, and for a system of irrigation in the arid States and Territories. The party in power can take to itself no special credit for either. It must, however, have all the credit, or all the odium, for passing the Philippine Tariff Bill. This was made necessary by the decision of the Supreme Court undoing the previous unconstitutional legislation of the Republican party; but was a measure enacted in the teeth of the recommendations of Gov. Taft and Secretary Root, and was obviously forced upon the managers by the same protectionist mortgagees who prevented the mortgaged party from doing anything for Cuba. The bill for a civil government in the Philippines underwent many changes and recastings in conference, but emerges, we believe, with those parts of it which survive, in a promising form. It calls for an elected Philippine Assembly in the near future. It provides for the election of two Philippine Commissioners, who shall have a seat and a voice (but no vote) on the floor of Congress, like the delegates from Territories. This we can but hail as an advance towards that consultation of the wishes of the Philippine people to which we are bound to come, and towards that independence of the Philippine nation which will surely result from consulting its desires and interests, as well as our own. For standing out unyieldingly in behalf of those features of its own bill, the House deserves much credit.

It is, however, an appalling list of derelictions which has to be charged up to this session of Congress, as a whole. It left the party promises as a kind of standing catalogue of its sins of omission. It did nothing to carry out the President's leading recommendations. The Shipping Bill died of neglect or secret strangulation. No law to repress Trusts, or to compel them to publicity, was even reported. Army reform was done to death by spoils-seeking Senators. Even the bills to extinguish anarchy and to protect the President were left to expire. The new Department of Commerce could not be brought to birth. Banking reform was not even given a decent burial. A terrible record of failure, all this is, for the party which boasts that it is the only party which "does things."

But above every other shortcoming and disgrace must be placed the lamentable refusal of Congress to do justice and keep the nation's honor fair in the matter of Cuban reciprocity. It is not necessary to rehearse the long story of hypocrisy and betrayal. Suffice it to say that it is writ large before the eyes of the whole country, and that it will for ever be associated with the present Congress as the thing which gives it an indelibly shameful reputation. About this it is only necessary to use the epithets furnished by the foremost Republican newspapers, and by a Republican President himself, in order to set it forth in fitting terms. Whether it will lead to a Republican defeat this fall, we do not know, but we do know that it ought to. A stinging rebuke by the people is the only punishment for certain political crimes. It may be that Senator Hanna's remarks in the Senate show that he, like Pitt at one time, has "received some of the secret warnings that forebode the cyclone in which Governments go down," and that he foresees the defeat of his party for its sins. As to that, we make no prediction; but we are certain that if ever defeat was richly deserved, it is by a party which has made such a record for weakness, cowardice, and dishonor as the Republican party has made in the first session of the Fifty-seventh Congress.

### *REWARDS OF PUBLIC SERVICE.*

President Roosevelt made his Doctor's discourse at Harvard last week a sort of extemporized treatise "De Amicitia." Friend after friend he embalmed in the amber of his enthusiastic praise. Long, Moody, Hay, Lodge, Taft, Root, Wood—each of them became as if a Rough Rider in the President's affections. It surely is a most engaging trait in Mr. Roosevelt, this loyalty to his friends. It is in fine keeping with the spontaneity of an impulsive and whole-souled nature like his. True, the very objects of his emphatic laudation might sometimes wish the thing said a little differently. If we must pray Heaven to be saved from a candid friend, we should not neglect to include an humble petition to be delivered from a too indiscriminatingly exuberant friend.

Nothing, for example, could have been further from the President's intention than to impute to the public servants whom he glorified a single selfish or grudging thought; yet his words came very near doing it. "Look at the pitiful rewards of these men," he seemed to say; "why, they have actually lost money in the public service! And then see how they have been scrutinized and criticised. Is this the way to encourage devotion to the public good? They do these things better in England. Your Cromers and your Kitcheners come home to peerages and money grants, while Gen. Wood not only is out of pocket, but has been openly accused of having improperly spent Cuban money to aid one faction of the Republican party in its contest with the other. Is not this a shame, O my fellow-doctors?"

Now if the President fairly drives us to inquire what reward Gen. Wood has actually had, we think it can be easily

shown that the republic has not been ungrateful to him. The esteem and fame that have come to him have certainly been such as to crown labors more arduous than his. Public recognition has not erred, in his case, on the side of being too restrained. He has distinctly been one of our heroes. Mr. Roosevelt seems to imagine that Americans are deficient in the capacity for hero-worship. On the contrary, we create our heroes too easily—so easily that we recklessly break their images, knowing that plenty more will be forthcoming. But, strictly on the professional side, Gen. Wood's advancement has been phenomenal, his reward glittering. Four years ago he was an army surgeon; now he has been promoted over the heads of five hundred of his seniors in the regular army to be a brigadier-general, with every prospect of becoming General commanding. And it is this splendid and almost unparalleled rise that the President intimates is meagre, and almost offset by the fact that Gen. Wood has not been able to live on his salary and allowances! What the General himself thought of pecuniary inducements, compared with the great prize he has won, was shown in his deliberate refusal of a civilian position estimated to be worth $35,000 a year.

Nor can we think the President's implied plea for immunity from criticism one which a public man should urge, as if such immunity were a part of his reward. No might nor greatness in mortality ever escaped criticism, or ever will. It is one of the necessary incidents of the profession of public servant, whether he be King, President, or Secretary. To take it good-humoredly is an important part of a statesman's equipment. It brings no dread and provokes no bitterness in the real princes of mankind. They, as it has been said, "gain by that scrutiny which would kill and damn lesser beings." It is no sign of lack of appreciation of its great men that a people should jealously examine their public acts. For a democracy to do that is simply to do its duty. At any rate, it will not be denied. The "many-headed beast" will insist upon knowing all about the work of its rulers; and if they are too thin-skinned or too haughty to endure the constant peering and questioning, their place is not in high office.

What we miss most in President Roosevelt's ingenuous address is a recognition, which we should have expected from him above all others, of the fact that true public service is its own reward, which it reaps as it goes along, and that useful work is in itself the source of the highest human happiness. "There is no fun like work"—that discovery, says Walter Bagehot, has been the making of many a young English lord, who has found that Blue Books are really more fascinating than betting books, and the dust and drudgery of public office more attractive than polo or yachting or elegant dawdling. That is the truth which we must bear down upon in all our appeals to young men to enter upon public service. The work to be done is the thing; and the exhilaration of pegging away at it, the joy of striving and the satisfaction of accomplishment—these are the rewards which come with it automatically. Any one minded to cry out for the "stars and ribbons and the other toys with which we children of a larger growth amuse ourselves," shows thereby that he does not know the true zest of public work. He needs to be set down to read Emerson's essay on "Compensation." The only rewards worth having are those which come all in the day's work; and the public servant can hope for greater rewards than the common man only as his work is more difficult and important, calls out every power more fully, and sustains with a larger pleasure of struggle and achievement.

## *IMPERIALISM IN PEACE.*

Every instructed student of our public affairs during the past four years has known that the sharp test of an encroaching Imperial policy would come in the piping times of peace. Any Government can live while war is on; any party keep itself in power as long as the guns are thundering. The monarchy in bankrupt Spain and a Ministry of discordant and discredited Liberals held their heads high during the shock of battle in 1898. We have seen the English Conservatives wax strong on war. How greatly indebted our own Republican party felt itself to the war spirit we can perceive from the constant effort by the party leaders to inflame it and appeal to it in peace. All that is understood. War is the great preservative of feeble political leaders. They may face carnage with equanimity; but what tries their stuff is the daily task of humdrum statesmanship, the peaceful consolidation and administration in peace of the renowned victories of war. How are our new-fledged Imperialists meeting this crucial test?

Of course, the standing temptation of Imperialism at peace is to run into a vulgar kind of Cæsarism. Extravagance and ostentation are counted upon to do the work of war's alarms in tickling the popular fancy. This natural tendency of what he called "domestic Imperialism" was well defined by the Liberal leader, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, in a speech which he made not long ago. Asking what were its methods and characteristics, he answered:

> "I will recite some of them. It magnifies the executive power; it acts upon the passions of the people; it conciliates them in classes and in localities by lavish expenditure; it occupies men's minds with display and amusement; it inspires a thirst for military glory; it captures the electorate by false assertions and illusory promises; and then, having by these means obtained a plébiscite and using electoral forms in the servile Parliament thus created, it crushes opposition and extinguishes liberty. And the irony of the thing is this—that all this is done in the name of the people themselves, and under the authority of their voice, so that the people, while boasting of being supreme, are enslaved."

Sir Henry did not maintain that this drift of Imperialism had shown more than the beginnings of its mischief in England; but he rightly contended that it was the duty of the English democracy to withstand such evils in their very incipiency. If he needed any feather for his arrow, it was promptly furnished by a taunt of the Conservative Chancellor of the Exchequer, who brutally said at Oldham that the reason the Liberals could not get a majority in the House of Commons was that "they have not got the money." We have heard such boastful Cæsarism—or Crœsusism—from purse-proud Imperialists of our own. And in legislation they have gone a suggestively long way towards justifying Sir Henry's description of the habit of domestic Imperialism. It is not without significance that a swollen River and Harbor Bill slips easily through Congress, and is signed by a half-unwilling President, just as war expenditures begin to diminish. And however carefully the Irrigation Bill may have been drawn, with no matter what purity of intention on the part of many of its advocates, the net result, in the States affected, will be to make the people think that they bid fair to get lavish appropriations from the general Government for interests purely of locality and of class. In other words, the bread and circuses which an Imperial policy has flung to the masses in war time, must be continued, under convenient but transparent disguises, in the days of peace.

This, too, is easy—as easy as lying. But how stands the case with that constructive statesmanship, that execution of announced purpose, that patient work of unexciting administration, upon which our eager Imperialists professed themselves so well prepared to enter after the Spanish war? This is the real labor of government, as it is the searching trial of Imperialism; and its most boastful advocates are not now singing pæans to their success in the actual experiment. If anything seemed simple, natural, and facile, it was that Imperialism should keep its pledge to Cuba. That was the uncomplicated knot which President Roosevelt set himself, with light heart, to unloose, familiar as his garter. But was ever an Imperial world-Power brought so low in so short a time? One feeble vegetable has stayed the majestic march of Empire. The domestic beet has dictated foreign policy. Greed frustrated generosity. And the same sinister influence intervenes, as Senator Hoar pointed out, to muddle the efforts of Imperialism to do something in the

way of peaceful legislation for the Filipinos. He saw very plainly in the Philippine Bill the demand of American wealth for the despoilment of the archipelago. So certain is it that the thirst for money-making through the Government, which war always sets burning, will seek to be quenched in peace by further draughts from the exhaustless fountain of a paternal and Imperialist Treasury.

Another sure sign of Imperialism at work in peace is the magnifying, not merely of the executive power, as Campbell-Bannerman said, but of the whole machinery and personnel of government. We seem to think that we shall be saved by the multiplication of offices; and office-holders themselves would like to be thought of as a sacred class, as much above fault-finding as a Chinese mandarin or an Egyptian priest of the Second Dynasty. This putting of the ruler's trust in the number and fidelity of his place-holders is a familiar symptom of Imperialism, when the drums are silent and the flags are furled. Louis Philippe said confidently to a friend who was warning him of the dangers besetting the French monarchy, "Do not trouble yourself, young man; France is a country which is kept in hand by its public functionaries." That note is suspiciously like the glorifying of patronage and exaltation of the office-holder to which our own Imperialists are so freely treating us.

In view of all these failures and temptations of Imperialism in peace, the question will be more and more impatiently asked by thoughtful citizens, "Why not retrace our steps?" It was a saying of that wise publicist Machiavelli, that it was the duty of every country, once in about ten years, to go back to first principles—to "recover the state" *(ripigliare lo stato)*. His ten years have not yet rolled round since we took our half-unconscious lurch towards Imperialism; but have not its disappointments, its unfulfilled prophecies, its accumulated embarrassments, its mortifications, and its perils, already had loose reign long enough? One thing is certain: either we shall soon see a sharp reaction, with a determined attempt to recover the state as we once knew it, or Imperialism will go on with accelerated momentum to work its harm and shame.

## *HOME RULE FOR CITIES.*

The decision of the Ohio Supreme Court, declaring invalid certain recent enactments relating to Cleveland and Toledo, is likely to result in a new epoch of municipal development in that State. It also has a general significance, because it strikes at the root of a vice from which cities suffer in almost all of the States—the vice of special legislation. That this is a vice, nobody would question. It has been recognized as such in almost every State Constitution drawn or amended during the last fifty years. The trouble has been that Constitutional provisions have been easily evaded, and in most cases the courts have declined to interfere. In the decision just announced, the Ohio court has really struck a blow for home rule in the cities of that State, and has perhaps pointed the way for important reforms elsewhere.

Defiance of the Constitutional provision against special legislation for particular cities has been especially flagrant in Ohio. Since 1850 the Constitution of that State has contained a clause directing that "the General Assembly shall provide for the organization of cities and incorporated villages by general laws"—a phrase clearly prohibiting special enactments. The Legislature of 1852 carried out this direction by dividing the cities of the State into two classes. Then the work of getting around the Constitution began. The two classes were subdivided from time to time into a large number of grades, until almost every city of any consequence in Ohio was awarded a grade by itself. Thus it became easy to legislate for a particular city under apparently Constitutional form, as for "all cities of the first class, third grade," etc., although every schoolboy knew that there was but one city in the State which corresponded to this description.

But even this method of evasion was not enough, and of late the "general laws" which have been enacted in Ohio have been growing more and more grotesque. Thus, the Legislature has directed that a city having a population of 11,004 shall have its police appointed in a particular way, while another city of 11,022, only eighteen more, has its police force appointed in an entirely different way, the needs of the politicians in different localities apparently being different. Another enactment reads: "Any city of the second class containing more than 30,000 inhabitants and located in a county having a Superior Court." This singled out the city of Dayton. In 1890 a bill was passed providing a form of municipal government "for cities having a population not less than 27,690 or more than 27,720." This "general" law, of course, applied to but one city, Youngstown.

It is obvious that a system like this placed all the cities at the mercy of the political influences dominant in the State. The result was inevitable—confusion and misgovernment. Singularly enough, until now the Supreme Court of the State has refused to interfere. The decisions each year, however, have taken on more and more a tone of apology. "It must be conceded that the method of classifying cities for the purpose of legislation has been carried to the very verge of Constitutional authority," said the court a few years ago; and more recently: "It is well, if not widely, known that most of the eminent judges who participated in the decisions upholding such classifications, lived to regret the decisions and to deplore the results which followed them."

To continue to sustain classifications and special enactments like these was too extreme an application of the doctrine of *stare decisis* to last, and it is to the credit of the present court that it has refused longer to be bound by it in this instance. Whether the court has determined to upset the entire classification now existing is not yet certain, but indications point that way. This would probably render necessary an extra session of the Legislature and the adoption of a general code, to apply to the cities of the State. Certainly, in all the States, a standard or norm of city government is much needed.

It is to be hoped that courts in other States where special legislation for particular cities is prohibited by the Constitution will follow the example of the Ohio court. In our own State, so far as we suffer from special legislation, the fault is rather with our Constitution than with our courts. Except as to the granting of certain franchises and other rights, the Legislature is not restrained in this State from passing laws affecting a particular city; the veto power awarded to the Mayors and, in the smaller cities, to the councils having been regarded as a sufficient check. It may be doubted if this veto power has so proved.

It is encouraging to note, however, that the tendency here and elsewhere is generally towards a greater autonomy for our cities. The recent "ripper" legislation in Pennsylvania is a marked exception to this rule, but the first attempt to imitate it in Ohio by taking away from the city of Toledo the right to control its own police force has been promptly checked by the court. The popular revolt which frustrated an effort in this State to impose a "State constabulary" upon this city is yet fresh in memory. In St. Louis, where the police force is still controlled by the State, there is an energetic movement which will doubtless before long result in reform. It has been said that the real governmental problem in this country is the municipal problem. It is certainly one to which we are giving increasing attention; and with more thorough scrutiny it seems to become more clear that, having received from the State its general powers and principles of control, the city, in order to reach its highest possibilities of development, must be left practically alone to work out its own salvation.

## *THE SMALL COLLEGE.*

Bowdoin College, which last week celebrated its centennial, is at present one of the best types of the American

small college. It has shown no tendency to outgrow or quarrel with its college estate, and it has set itself to developing the utmost efficiency along strictly collegiate lines. It has, however, followed modern educational tendencies more unreservedly than most of the other small colleges. By offering the three degrees of A.B., B.S. (Bachelor of Science), and B.L. (Bachelor of Letters), it has avoided the common confusion of designating diverse forms of education by the traditional Bachelor's degree in Arts; while in dividing its undergraduates into nine groups—as their preparation has emphasized ancient languages, modern languages, or natural science—it has frankly gone over to the elective system in its most logical form. Conservatives in the other small colleges of New England cannot fail to watch the effect of this experiment at Bowdoin with the greatest interest. It must serve either as an example or a warning for all the colleges of this class.

Last week at Bowdoin the thoughts of all were less with the future than with the past. Graduates named again proudly Longfellow and Hawthorne as Bowdoin's representatives in letters, and recalled the old studies and the democratic good fellowship which have for a century brought out of the raw undergraduate the scholar, the preacher, the lawyer, the physician, and the man of affairs. We hear much talk to-day about the passing of the small college, and are told that it cannot long compete with the undergraduate department of the university, which offers more and better courses and prepares directly for the various professional schools. We advise any one who trembles for the future of the small colleges simply to make a tour of them, and especially to visit one or several of them on occasions like the Bowdoin centennial. He will find an exuberance of life that hardly comports with a moribund condition.

Now, the strength of the small college, in the face of the manifest academic superiority of the universities, is naturally bewildering to the academically minded. Bowdoin has a score of professors in her undergraduate department, some 250 students, and something more than a hundred catalogued courses. By multiplying all these figures by ten one may get some rough idea of the difference in magnitude between Bowdoin and the undergraduate department of Harvard University. Assuming, what is probably the case, that the actual instruction at Bowdoin is quite as efficient as that at Harvard, it remains true that a Harvard undergraduate may study practically anything which his future career may dictate, while the Bowdoin undergraduate is restricted to fewer subjects and fewer branches within each subject. If a severely academic logic ruled lads who choose a college, or fathers who choose a college for their boys, there is no question that the doom of the small college would be already pronounced.

Fortunately, the heart still has its unreasonable reasons in these matters, and the choice of a college is only exceptionally made on academic lines. President Eliot knows better than to imagine that a quarter of his undergraduates have come to Harvard because of the elective system or any stately array of professors and courses. They have come because they wish to become Harvard men, an honor which many of them attain chiefly through elaborate evasion of the specific educational advantages which Harvard offers. In fact, the multiplication of courses and studies is valuable mainly to the small body of intellectuals which leavens an incoming class. Such an elaborate curriculum is arranged for those who have an intelligent plan of study and a life-work in view. An insignificant proportion of each college class has one or the other requisite for intelligent choice.

The inducement to enter a great university, for the average student, is the morale which that university inculcates. Here the small college competes on precisely even terms with the university. No one could attend the ceremonies at Brunswick without becoming convinced that Bowdoin turned out an uncommonly agreeable, cultured, and efficient kind of man. Many guests must have felt, as they looked upon that body of alumni, that they would be glad to have their boys Bowdoin men. This is the hold of every small college upon the community. And it is coming to be seen that the small colleges have distinct advantages for the development of men. The social life is so varied that it requires some kind of service of practically every student. The numbers are so small that every student must in some manner know and adjust himself to every other. It is a life in which a traditional code opposes itself mercilessly to personal conceit or idiosyncrasy, and in this way it approximates the conditions of life in the world.

The university undoubtedly produces a keener type by a kind of survival-of-the-fittest process, and it is probable that the exceptionally brilliant boy will more and more tend to prefer the university to the small college. But the university also admits the fact of unfitness too readily, and leaves a great number of men relatively isolated and at disadvantage. The small college deals more frankly and hopefully with averages. It foregoes the precocious undergraduate for the healthy and serviceable one. Of course, the small college is in every way bound to academic efficiency; this it fully realizes. But so long as it finds that its alumni prosper greatly in the world, and their service to community and State shows no noticeable inferiority to that rendered by the graduates of the university, so long the small college may accept with perfect complacency its apparent inferiority in all academical apparatus. For its strength lies beyond these things.

## MEETING OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION.

June 30, 1902.

The twenty-fourth annual meeting of the American Library Association, lately held at Magnolia, was remarkably chiefly for its size. The largest previous meeting was attended by less than five hundred; this by over a thousand. The reason is plain. They met in Massachusetts, where every town but two has a library and some have several. The rest of New England is almost as bibliothecal, and New York is catching up. And Magnolia, though on the eastern edge of the continent, is easy of access and famed for its beauty, deservedly, as the visitors unanimously testified. There are disadvantages in such a crowd; if a general meeting is held, many cannot get in; if simultaneous sections are in session, one has to make a difficult choice between two interesting subjects. Yet these discomforts are far outweighed by the gain of sending the A. L. A. spirit into hundreds of new channels.

Perhaps the time has passed for startling novelties; but, as a whole, the papers were never more interesting. The old subjects were considered in a score of new ways. Cataloguing, for instance, in regard to which one would have thought nothing new could be said, got a new life from the Library of Congress. The final decision of cataloguing rules may not appear in itself to be of much importance. About the greater part of them there has come to be, after years of experiment, substantial agreement. Most of the other points have remained undecided simply because there were nearly equal advantages on each side. A small library might very well adopt one course, and, after a time, finding or fancying the other the best, might adopt that; even a large library might do so if it did not wait till it had accumulated too many cards needing change. But it is out of the question that the Library of Congress, adding to its catalogue half a million cards every year, and becoming, as it will soon, the cataloguer for all the libraries in the country, should pursue so vacillating a policy. It must settle disputed points as soon as it can, and, having once chosen, must adhere to its choice. The Library of Congress will legislate in cataloguing matters for the whole country—very appropriately. The other systems—Jewett's, Cutter's, Perkins's, the Library School's—cannot long hold their own against its momentum, for the libraries that take the Library of Congress cards—and no library can afford not to take them—will want to bring what they are obliged to add of their own make into harmony with what will soon form the bulk of their stock. Consequently, the attempt which a committee has been making for two years to formulate a code upon which all can agree, becomes in a way a matter of national concern. It was looked upon with great interest, and their work was generally approved. Something was, indeed, said of a distinction between rules for a written and for a printed

catalogue. It is useless. In fifty years there will be no written catalogue. Cataloguers will no more think of proposing to make them for libraries than a newsdealer would think of offering MSS. for sale at his stand. The Congressional Library will print for all, and the titles which it cannot supply will be typewritten by the libraries in strict accordance with its practice.

It is pleasant to turn from the early conventions in which central cataloguing was first a hopeless wish, and then a baseless hope, to the present, when, with American adaptability to circumstances, it is calmly taken as part of the ordinary course of nature. For this we must thank largely the energy of the Librarian of Congress and the devotion of his assistants. The work has been pressed under great disadvantages; a force has been organized, numberless questions of detail have been decided, the rules are now nearly completed. As a result, the author-catalogue is deserving of the highest praise. The subject-headings, however, are unreliable; they are not followed even by the Library itself, and, until a system can be perfected and followed, the cards would be better without them.

The President's address, like the overture to an opera, gave a résumé of the whole field, and introduced with lighter treatment the themes which were to be more fully elaborated later. One of the most important of these themes was children's reading. The conviction that the public is to be reached through those who will make the public of the future, has taken strong hold on librarians. If they can implant in them a reading habit by sending books to the schools and to homes, and foster a library habit by providing attractive children's rooms, they know that the library will have plenty of clients in the next generation, and their books will not stand unused upon the shelves. They need this assurance when those who use the libraries do not amount to one-fifth of the population in ordinary cities, and, in the largest, hardly reach one-tenth. The "home libraries"—that is, small collections of books placed in poor homes for neighborhood use, under charge of some suitable member of the family (there are some seventy in Boston) — have as yet been managed independently of public libraries by charitable societies. This is best; the libraries have all they can do in attending to the school libraries which they supply and to their own children's rooms. We hear much of child-study. They, too, have been conducting their child study by experiment and observation—not the observation that produces columns of figures, but the sympathetic observation which results in insight, and the experiments which lead to the adoption of better methods.

President Eliot's paper on "The Division of a Library into Books in Use and Books Not in Use" was in subject the same as the one he read before the Massachusetts Library Club last April on "Living Books and Dead." He referred to the rapid increase in the output of books, the gradual filling up of libraries, the slight value of much of their contents, and the cost of the larger buildings continually needed. He did not advocate the cremation of dead books; only their transfer to a book-cemetery on cheap land—and therefore at a distance from the main library—in a building severely unadorned, and therefore as cheap as fireproof construction will allow. There the corpses should repose, declassified so as to allow of close packing, put upon the shelves, in fact, in the order in which they arrive, and, so numbered (findable only by number), crowded in three rows on a shelf, and issued to those who want them enough to give their order a day beforehand, as in a German university library. The picture is not an attractive one, but it may be that it represents an objectionable expedient to which some libraries will be driven by poverty—an expedient, however, which should be distinctly recognized as undesirable, to be adopted only at the last moment and under stress.

For want of time, this paper was not discussed in meeting, but much conversation with librarians showed me that though they fully recognized the difficulties coming from increase of stock and from the mixing of live, moribund, and dead books, and although some of them for years had adopted the policy of separation, *within the building and with retention of the classification*, yet they were not satisfied with the remedy proposed—removal to a distance, especially if accompanied by declassification. They thought that a large part of what was gained by cheapness of land and building would be lost by reason of increased cost of administration, and that the residue would not pay for the inconvenience to readers and investigators—a loss which President Eliot, not being a librarian, did not and could not be expected to appreciate. Yet he himself had said, "What is worth keeping at all is worth keeping accessible." Books three deep on the shelves and in no order are not accessible. The objection to the plan is not so much the delay in getting books, which would seldom exceed twenty-four hours, as the uselessness of an entirely unclassified collection of books. Access to the shelves, which takes the place of a catalogue excellently well, is no substitute for classification when the number of books is large and the subject disorder absolute. In this scheme, access to the shelves is not to be thought of. No one but a carefully trained attendant can be trusted to deal with rows three deep. Only a well-trained reader can do any satisfactory work if embarrassed by the constant presence of an attendant. Besides, to provide a watcher for every worker would be extremely expensive. Free access, then, is out of the question. The student who needs to look over perhaps a hundred books on the chance of finding one that is to his purpose, must make his choice wholly through a catalogue. Whoever has done this knows the waste of time it entails and the great likelihood of missing something important. But only one who has worked with double-rowed books can understand the time and patience required to pick out, two-thirds of the time from the back rows, and to put away again, fifty or a hundred books, which must be sought all over the building, because the books on the same subject and likely to be wanted at the same time are not brought together as they would be in a classified library, but are most effectually scattered.

The saving, it will be noted, is largely in the cost of land. The construction in either case must be solid and fireproof. The storage can be just as close in a storage section of a main library building as in one five miles away. It is not beyond the resources of architecture to introduce such a stack in a part of the main building where all ornament can be dispensed with. The same reason that forbids cremation—that we do not know surely what book will be eternally useless—embarrasses separation. With segregation within the building and class order retained, a mistaken exclusion is of small account. On the proposed plan it is serious. Perhaps donors of libraries will bear this in mind in the amount of their gifts, and, when they cannot, will at least make their architects economize in show rather than impair what is, after all, the main purpose of the building.

## TAINE'S CORRESPONDENCE.

PARIS, June 18, 1902.

It may be said without exaggeration that the two men who exercised the most influence on the thinking generation of France in the last part of the nineteenth century were Renan and Taine. There are many signs that their influence is on the wane, but it is difficult to say by what new influences it is being replaced; in fact, there seems to be no leading mind capable of holding up to the youth of the country a high intellectual ideal. Political agitation has replaced the conflicts of thought. Those of our best writers who avoid this agitation take refuge, by a sort of reaction, in the most distant past, and oppose a sort of neo-Catholicism to the revolutionary ideas which they see everywhere in the ascendent. Having known Taine personally, and fully appreciating the honesty of his purpose, the seriousness of his intellect, and his constant striving after truth, I could not help being much interested in a volume just published under the title 'H. Taine: Sa Vie et sa Correspondance.' It embraces Taine's youthful correspondence, from the year 1847 to the year 1853. The editor tells us that it will be followed by two other volumes.

One of the dominant traits of Taine's character was his horror of publicity and of indiscretions concerning his private life. His life was always most honorable and he had nothing to conceal; but he did not like to appear in person before the public. When the painter Bonnat made his portrait, it was on condition that it should never be exhibited in his lifetime; he never allowed the illustrated papers to publish his portrait. When the *Journal des Débats* celebrated its centenary, it was with great difficulty that he consented to figure in a picture which represented all the writers for the paper. He specified in his will that "the only letters or correspondence among his papers which might be published were those which treated of purely general and speculative matters, such as philosophy, history, æsthetics, art, psychology; and, even in those, all the passages which touched on private lives were to be suppressed."

Taine was born on the 21st of April, 1828, at Vouziers, in the Ardennes. For several generations his ancestors had led at Rethel the quiet and modest life of the provincial bourgeoisie. His great-grandfather, Pierre Taine, a manufacturer, was called by his contemporaries the Philosopher. His maternal grandfather, M. Bezanson, had a scientific turn of mind; he occupied himself with magnetism, and Taine kept carefully treatises of philosophy, of mathematics, of

algebra which Bezanson wrote in the latter part of his life. His maternal aunts were provincial old maids, who lived in a very retired way, and seem to have had the hereditary tastes of the family for abstract ideas. Taine's father was a lawyer, very fond of the country; he often took his boy in his carriage when he had to traverse the beautiful woods of the Ardennes. He died young, and Taine was really brought up by his mother; the profoundest affection always kept mother and son united. One of his uncles, who had spent several years in the United States, taught him the English language, and thus rendered him an immense service, which he recognized by dedicating to him his 'Notes on England.' It is no exaggeration to say that English literature doubled, so to speak, Taine's intellectual horizon, and contributed in a great degree to form his intellect. He always spoke with pleasure of the service which his American uncle, as he called him, had rendered him in making him familiar with the English tongue.

In 1841, at the age of thirteen, Taine was sent to Paris for his classical education. He lived there in a *pension*, and attended lectures at the Collège Bourbon. There began a life of hard study and constant labor. His family wished him to become a notary; fortunately its modest fortune did not permit this object of provincial ambition to be attained, as the office has to be bought. We cannot imagine Taine a notary. He had himself no special vocation; he was fond of study, and his intellectual curiosity was disinterested. In the intervals of the lectures, he took long walks in the beautiful Parc Monceaux, which was then half abandoned; he sometimes was allowed to ramble in the neighborhood of Paris. He framed, as soon as he arrived in Paris, a plan of work which he rigorously executed. At college he formed friendships with the most distinguished pupils, and obtained great scholastic successes. He went through the years devoted to rhetoric and philosophy under the direction of an eminent professor, M. Hatzfeld, who became his friend. He was not content with the usual class duties; he undertook several personal exercises. Some of them have been preserved, such as a "History of the Church in France from the 11th to the 16th century," a chapter on the Reformation, a "History of the Tiers-État and of the Parlement," a "History of the French Party in France, from the Beginning of the Religious Wars to the Death of Richelieu," and some "Notes on French Literature." We see already in these essays the natural bent of his mind.

There is in every young man's student years one which may be compared to the budding of a tree. Speaking of the years 1846 and 1847, Taine wrote, twenty years afterwards:

"If we have grasped some critical and historical ideas, they were suggested to us by the class in rhetoric. We were told that the oration ought to fit the character of the orator, and we were thus led to study this character. We went to the Bibliothèque, to the Museum of the Louvre, to the Cabinet des Estampes; we discovered by degrees in what a modern differs from an ancient, a Christian from a pagan, a Roman from a Greek, a Roman contemporary with Augustus from a Roman contemporary with Scipio. We tried to explain these differences; we began to half understand true history, the history of the soul, the profound alteration which hearts and souls suffer according to the changes of the physical and moral medium in which they are placed."

We see here the substance of Taine's doctrine—the perpetual action of the *milieu*, the medium, on the individual. In studying this action he was led regularly to envelop his literary criticism and historical studies in an elaborate analysis of all the moral and physical forces which keep the human mind in a state of ever-changing equilibrium.

The volume of correspondence begins with a letter of thanks written by him on the 13th of August, 1847, to M. Hatzfeld, just after he had received the Prize of Honor at the *Concours Général:*

"To you," he says, "I owe my success. They bade me at school be clear, methodical, regular; you alone were not satisfied with words—you gave me the means to be so. If I succeed hereafter, it will be thanks to your lessons, for you have taught me to work and to regulate my mind. . . . I have Descartes in hand; I think I can promise you a great taste for philosophy and perhaps a little aptitude. If I am not mistaken, it seems to me that I have always had some facility for understanding abstract things and for discovering generalities."

After his year of philosophy, Taine was admitted to the Normal School in November, 1848. This school prepares its pupils for the professorships in the colleges and in the faculties of letters. Taine was at the head of a list of promotions which contained, among others, Challemel-Lacour, who became a journalist, an Ambassador, a Minister, and who died in 1896, President of the Senate; J. J. Weiss, a very distinguished journalist, who died in the same year; and Perraud, now Cardinal, a member of the French Academy. At the School, besides the work imposed by the rules, Taine continued his personal studies in literature, history, and philosophy. He remained three years at the School, at a time when there was a great fermentation of ideas, after the Revolution of 1848. Taine was not drawn into the political vortex of that period; he never had any taste for every-day politics; he confined himself more to his literary work. His letters to Prévost-Paradol, written at that time, which are extremely numerous, testify to the intense activity of his mind. He worked on himself, so to speak, as on a *tabula rasa;* he had no prejudices, no traditional or fixed opinions; he placed himself somewhat in the mental attitude of Descartes when the great philosopher wrote his 'Discours sur la Méthode.' He had an ardent love of truth; it is interesting to see so young a man write to his young friend in this vein:

"Who tells you that the truth is inaccessible? Is it because you have not found it? What you need is a method; I speak from experience. Things incomprehensible at first have become clear to me only when I applied myself to them in the proper way. I do not speak of the common method dinned into our ears in our first month of philosophy. There is a much higher method, much clearer, much surer—the method of Spinoza. Do not renounce the truth. . . . You will find how the contradictions of the philosophers which throw you in doubt, are essentially weak; how all the really great minds agree. Somebody said that philosophy, like mathematics, has been renewed and developed two or three times, but that it has not been changed; and it is quite true. There is a superior point of view from which the totality of things can be embraced and difficulties solved. Two or three great men have attained it, and to them we must attach ourselves. Therefore, take courage and be skeptical only by way of precaution."

The letters to Prévost-Paradol will probably be found the most interesting of this first volume. There are fourteen of them written in 1849, eleven in 1850. The other correspondents are Mademoiselle Virginie Taine; the mother and sisters of Taine; Prof. Ernest Havet, M. de Suckau. It may be said in truth that all these letters deserve to be read; they show the yeastiness, if I may use the word, of a young man eager for truth, anxious to find it by independent means, gradually, by intense application and systematic effort. In the year 1851 we find Taine professor at Nevers, and afterward at Poitiers; he was later appointed to Besançon, but asked for leave to return to Paris for his thesis as doctor in letters.

# Correspondence.

## MARY DYER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I, as one of Mary Dyer's numerous descendants and devoted admirers, thank Mr. Worthington C. Ford for his sympathetic appreciation of her case in 1659, and for the remarkably enlightening discovery which he has made public of a letter from her husband, my grandfather's great-grandfather's grandfather, William Dyer? I am grateful also to you, sir, for publishing the letter in full.

This letter is an arraignment of the Massachusetts General Court for "merciless crueltie" to the writer's wife. It is not precisely lawyer-like in its mood, but its expressions are those of one who had been trained in the law, and thus gives color to the connection between the writer and Sir James Dier, the pride of Somerset in Elizabethan days. If I am not mistaken, William Dyer was his great-nephew—so it appears from the Somerset visitation of 1623. The same commingling of intense moral indignation and indignant protest against grievous wrong with the meticulous precision of argument characteristic of the law shows in the closing words of William Dyer's letter to the same General Court of May 3, 1660, where he pleads with tears for the life of his "one most dearly beloved":

"I shall forbeare to troble yor Honrs wih words neyther am I in a capacity to expatiat myself att present: I only say this yor selues haue been & are or may bee husbands to wife or wiues so am I, yea to one most dearely beloued: oh do not you depriue me of her, but I pray giue her me once agen & I shall bee so much obleiged for euer, that I shall endeavor continually to utter my thankes & render yor Loue & Honr most renowned: pitty mee, I begg itt wth teares, and rest yors

"most humbly suppliant

"Wm. Dyre."

A point of more general interest, historically, is that the General Court of Massachusetts, having been arraigned for "merciless cruelty" by William Dyer (in the letter discovered by Mr. Ford and first published by you on May 29, 1902), on the 7th of September, 1659, felt called upon to make answer by a proclamation in rejoinder on October 18, 1659, as follows:

A DECLARATION | of the | GENERAL COURT | of the | MASSACHUSETTS | Holden at *Boston*

in *New England*, October 18, 1659. Concerning the Execution of two Quakers.

*Although the justice of our proceedings against* William Robinson, Marmaduke Stephenson *and* Mary Dyer, *Supported by the Authority of this Court, the Lawes of the Country; and the Law of God, may rather persuade us to expect incouragement from all prudent and pious men, then convince us of any necessity to Apologize for the same, yet for as much as men of weaker parts, out of pitty and commiseration (a commendable and Christian virtue yet easily abused and susceptible of sinister and dangerous impressions) for want of full information, may be less satisfied, & men of perverser principles, may take occasion hereby to calumniate us, and render us as bloody persecutors, to satisfie the one and stop the mouths of the other, we thought it requisite to declare.* That about three years since divers persons professing themselves *Quakers* (of whose pernicious Opinions and Practices we had received intelligence from good hands, from *Barbadoes* to *England*,) arrived at *Boston*, whose persons were only secured to be sent away by the first opportunity, without censure or punishment, although their professed tenets, turbulent and contemptuous behaviour to Authority would have justified a severer animadversion, yet the prudence of this Court was exercised onely in making provision to secure peace and order here established against their attempts whose design (we were well assurd of by our own experience, as well as by the example of their predecessors in *Munster*) was to undermine and ruin the same, And accordingly a Law was made and published prohibiting all Masters of Ships to bring any *Quakers* into this jurisdiction and themselves from comming in on penalty of the House of Correction till they could be sent away. Notwithstanding which by a back Door they found entrance, and the penalty inflicted on themselves, proving insufficient to restrain their impudent and insolent obtrusions, was increased by the loss of the ears of those that offended the second time, which also being too weak a defence against their impetuous fanatick fury, necessitated us to endeavour our security, and upon serious consideration after the former experiments, by their incessant assaults, a Law was made that such persons should be banished on pain of Death, according to the example of *England* in their provision against *Jesuites*, which sentence being regularly pronounced at the last Court of Assistants against the parties above named, and they either returning or continuing presumptuously in this jurisdiction, after the time limited, were apprehended, and owning themselves to be the persons banished, were sentenced (by the Court) to death, according to the Law aforesaid which hath been executed upon two of them: *Mary Dyer* upon the petition of her Son and the mercy and clemency of this Court, had liberty to depart within two dayes, which she hath accepted of.

The consideration of our gradual proceeding, will vindicate us from the clamorous accusations of severity; our own just and necessary defence calling upon us (other means fayling) to offer the poynt, which these persons have violently, and wilfully rushed upon, and thereby become *felons de se*, which might it have been prevented and the Soveraign Law *Salus populi* been preserved, our former proceedings, as well as the sparing *Mary Dyer*, upon an inconsiderable intercession, will manifestly evince, we desire their lives absent, rather then their death present.

Printed by their order in
NEW ENGLAND
*Edward Rawson*, Secretary.

Reprinted in *London*, 1659.

This Declaration was discovered by me bound up in a miscellaneous collection of pamphlets entitled "Quakers" and catalogued in the Bodleian Library "Woods 645." I published it with documents, one other among which had never been printed (see in the Public Record Office *Colonial Papers ix. 74*), in a series of notes on "William Dyer, a Somerset Royalist in New England," in the *Somerset & Dorset Notes & Queries* (1899-1900). Mr. Samuel Green of the Massachusetts Historical Society, to whom my discovery was communicated by the late lamented John Fiske, had no record of the printing of such a declaration in New England implied by the note on the Bodleian Broadsheet, "Reprinted in London, 1659." I therefore appended the note: "No traces exist of the original printing in New England here alluded to. Possibly the notion that this document was a reprint arose in England, where its apologetic temper would excite no surprise." Now that Mr. Ford has discovered William Dyer's arraignment of the General Court, delivered "into ye court by his wife M: D:" on September 7, 1659, the apologetic temper of the Declaration is explained, and it seems certain that the Declaration was first printed at Boston and then reprinted in London.

The fact should be borne in mind that we can understand the relentless animus of the colonial authorities of Massachusetts Bay in their persecution of Mary Dyer in 1659, and her execution in 1660, only by going back twenty-odd years and reading one of the darkest pages in the gruesome history of pious superstition—an episode which took place before William Dyer and his wife shook from their feet the dust of Massachusetts and joined in the foundation of Rhode Island. This episode is so revolting that it can hardly figure in history as it is now written, although it is blazoned forth in Governor Winthrop's Diary edited by Mr. Savage. Under Winthrop began the wanton persecution of Mary Dyer in the month of October, 1637, and, viewed in the lurid light of the annals of that year, her barbarous molestation and imprisonment of 1659, followed in 1660 by her execution, takes on all the aspect of an anti-climax.

Yours truly, LOUIS DYER.

OXFORD, June 10, 1902.

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## SHAKSPERE SONNETS IN MS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Dobell, the delightful disorder of whose shop in Charing Cross Road has doubtless furnished rich browsing for many of your book-loving readers, includes in his June catalogue an item of exceptional interest to vary the monotony of "quarto, calf, gilt, fine copy, neat," at so many £ s. d., and puts forth with this catalogue a facsimile leaf of a seventeenth-century miscellany that will be unusually interesting to Shakspere scholars. The miscellany is one of those early collections of MS. poems which in many cases furnish the only textual source for the somewhat fugitive lyric poetry of the late sixteenth and early seventeenth centuries. It embraces, among other copies, excerpts from Shakspere's Sonnets. The facsimile page shows three of these sonnets, two made up by running together lines from various sonnets, and one containing Sonnet CVII complete.

At the top of the page stands a couplet from Ben Jonson's verses prefatory to the Folio of 1623:

"Nature her selfe was proud of his designes
And Joy'd to weare the dressings of his lines."

with "Shakespeare" in the margin opposite. This varies from the couplet as it stands in the Folio in having "dressings" for "dressing"—the word ought to be plural, see the Oxford Dictionary 4 b. The handwriting of the couplet is apparently the same with that of the rest of the page, but the verses are written with a different pen, if one may judge from the facsimile.

Then follow three sonnets, unpunctuated, the first without title:

LX. 5 Natiuity once in ye maine of light
6 Crawles to maturity wherewith being Crownd
7 Crooked Eclipses gainst his glory fight
8 And Time that gaue doth now his gift confound
9 Time doth Transfix ye Flourish set on youth
10 And Delves ye Paralels in Beautys Brow
11 Feeds on ye raritys of Natures truth
12 And nothing stands but for his sith to mow

LXV. 3 O how shall beauty with this rage hold plea
4 Whose action is no stronger then A Flower
5 O how shall summers hungry breath hold out
6 Against ye wrackfull siege of battring days
7 When Rocks Impregnable are not so stout
8 Nor gates of steele so strong but time decays

The first part of this stanza is (as I have indicated at the side) from Sonnet LX; to this are joined vv. 3-8 from Sonnet LXV; the lack of rhyme between "plea" and "flower" marking the break. The first passage is substantially the same as that of the text of 1609, but in the second passage appear two interesting variants from the *textus receptus:*

"O how shall beauty with this rage hold plea"

is certainly smoother than

"How with this rage shall beautie hold a plea";

but "hungry breath" is as clearly a corruption of "hunny breath," a phrase which Shakspere makes use of in "Titus Andronicus" II. 4. 25. This latter variant is interesting, however, in showing the reading of the edition of 1640. The "wreckful" of our texts in v. 6 of Sonnet LXV is a modern impertinence; the Quarto, 1609, reads "wrackful" as does this MS. The modern substitute is just as pedantic as would be "wreck and ruin" for "rack and ruin." But poor Shakspere has had so much to suffer from being twisted into schoolmistress's English that perhaps such a small matter as this is hardly worth noting.

Following the above comes Shakspere's Sonnet CVII, with the title "A Monument," complete and substantially as in the Quarto of 1609, save that

"Whilst he Insults ore dul & sencelesse tribes"

stands in the MS. for

"While he insults ore dull and speachlesse tribes";

and

"When tombs of brasse and tyrants crests are spent"

appears in the MS. instead of

"When tyrants crests and tombs of brasse are spent."

The first of these variants, "sencelesse," is clearly inferior to the "speachlesse" of the *textus receptus*, for Shakspere is thinking of his articulate monument outliving those of dull and speechless tribes. The second, reversing the order of the clauses as they stand in the Quarto of 1609, gives a smoother verse. (It should be noted that, in Elizabethan English, "tyran" was a common form of the word, and its employment in v. 14 avoids the cacophonous *t*'s.)

The third Sonnet of the facsimile page has the title "Cruel," and runs:

I. 5 Thou Contracted to thine owne bright eys
6 Feedst thy light flame with selfe substantial fewell
7 Makeing a famine where aboundance lies
8 Thy selfe thy foe to thy sweet selfe too cruell
9 Thou that art now the worlds fresh ornament
10 And onely herauld to ye Gaudy spring

11 Within thine owne Bud Buriest thy Contend*
12 And tender Churle makes wast in niggarding
13 Pitty ye world or Els this Glutton bee
14 To Eat ye worlds due by ye world & thee
II. 1 When forty winters shall besiege† thy brow
2 And Dig deep tranches in thy beautyes field
3 Thy youths Proud liuery so gazd on now
4 Wil be A totterd‡ weed of small worth held
LIV. 5 The Canker bloomes haue ful as deepe a dy
6 As ye Perfumed tincture of ye roses

The figures in the margin again indicate the sources of the various parts of this imperfect sonnet and its appended couplet. The only substantial variants occur in its first verse, where Shakspere's "But," which connects v. 5 with the preceding quatrain, is omitted; in its second verse, where "light flame" appears for Shakspere's "lights flame"; and in its tenth verse, where "by ye world & thee" stands for Shakspere's "by the graue and thee."

In regard to this collection, the first thing to ascertain is whether it really belongs to the middle of the seventeenth century, as its handwriting would indicate, or is a later imitation of seventeenth-century handwriting. Unfortunately, such things are, and have come over the text of Shakspere as more than a summer cloud. The second is the value of its readings: are they representative of one of those collections of Shakspere's "sugared sonnets for his private friends," and thus an independent source for the text, even if corrupt? Or are they based upon one of the printed editions, 1609 or 1640? The brief selections on Mr. Dobell's page point suspiciously to the edition of 1640: "hungry breath" for the "hunny breath" of 1609 is one of the readings of the 1640 edition. The MS. likewise shows the tendency to give to particular sonnets, or groupings of sonnets, short titles which appear in the 1640 edition. There "A Living Monument" is the short title given to Sonnet LXV. "Love's Cruelty," which introduces Sonnets I, II, and III in edition 1640, is suspiciously like the "Cruel" in this collection.

However these questions may be solved, the MS. Mr. Dobell offers is exceedingly interesting and valuable, and we trust the price he sets on it will not keep it from coming to America. But, wherever it goes, let us hope that it will not share the fate of many such collections, and get into the hands of some rich literary eunuch who will guard it from publication. We want to know all we can about the text of the Sonnets, which were evidently printed by Thorpe in 1609 from an unusually correct MS. copy, yet have not the authority of Shakspere's own recensions. It would be worth the price asked to have the single perplexing printer's error in CXLVI—

"Poore soule, the center of my sinfull earth,
My sinful earth these rebbell powres that thee array,"

illumined by even such a farthing rushlight as a MS. like this might furnish.

M. H. L.

June 21, 1902.

# Notes.

Lists of the chief errata, as to facts and dates, in the 'Dictionary of National Biography' are soon to be published in consummation of that great work. Corrections (on these lines only) are requested to be sent without delay, addressed to the Dictionary at No. 15 Waterloo Place, S. W., London.

Messrs. Dent & Co. of London have in preparation and will publish in the autumn a collection of letters by Mr. H. J. Ross, a friend of Sir A. H. Layard, whom he helped to unearth Nineveh. His recollections will be of interest to American readers, as, among other things, are mentioned the relations of the American missionaries with the Nestorian Christians prior to the great massacre of 1843 by Bedr Khan Bey (the Full Moon [of religion]), chief and lord of Bukhtan, and his relative Nurullah Bey (the Light of God), chieftain of the Hakkary. At the close of the Crimean war, Mr. Ross was asked by the Government to undertake the sale of the large number of animals collected in Asia Minor and Turkish Arabia for the projected British campaign in Georgia, and he marched across the Taurus and the Anti-Taurus, from the Black Sea to the Mediterranean, at the head of a convoy extending for many miles. Pictures of a life now no longer existing in the East abound in these pages, which see the light after more than half a century.

The first volume of Dr. Charles Waldstein's 'The Argive Heræum' is now printing (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), and subscribers may expect their copies at latest early in July. Much of the second volume is in type, and it may see the light before the close of the present year. Subscriptions (at $15 and $30 per volume, according to the binding) should be sent to Prof. J. R. Wheeler, Columbia University.

Autumn announcements of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are T. W. Higginson's Life of Longfellow; a new volume of short stories by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; and a summary history of the Louisiana Purchase, by Dr. James K. Hosmer.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish in a few days 'The Home Aquarium,' by Eugene Smith.

Few men of letters have been held in higher personal esteem than the late Charles Dudley Warner. He was as genial a companion as any of the Bohemians; but his character was so pure and his ideals so high as to give him unusual claims to respect and admiration. The posthumous collection of essays and addresses entitled 'Fashions in Literature' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is to be regarded as a memorial, and the variety of the author's interests is shown by the table of contents. There are literary studies, biographical essays, and addresses on the education of the negro, copyright, the indeterminate sentence, etc. Throughout them is diffused a sense of humor which relieves the strain of seriousness, and wins for the author the good will of his readers. They are even more distinguished by generous and elevated feeling and by good sense. The judgments pronounced are of permanent value; many of them are applicable to the problems of to-day. It would be easy to fill pages with quotations which will not lose their point during this century, at least; but the book should be owned by all who take a serious interest in the welfare of our country. It illustrates true patriotism in a manner which is charming as well as impressive, and softens our regret that the voice of the author is now silent with the reflection that his written words abide with us.

Mr. Edward P. Van Duzee, Librarian of the Grosvenor Library of Buffalo, N. Y., has compiled a Catalogue of Poetry in the English Language contained in that collection. The number of volumes and pamphlets recorded is 3,542 and 296 respectively, American somewhat preponderating over English. The list is classified, and will have its uses, though not the greatest, as there is no index.

Misses Stone and Fickett's 'Trees in Prose and Poetry' (Ginn & Co.) will serve an excellent purpose in the schools by way of supplementary reading. The compilation is not so easy as one might suppose. Lowell has proved a good quarry, and is here represented by his "Rhœcus," his "Birch Tree," and other appropriate selections. Bryant, George S. Burleigh, Whittier, Longfellow, are also on hand; and George P. Morris's "Woodman, spare that tree," might have been retained beside its Campbell parallel. Here is also much from Wordsworth, with Spenser, Tennyson, Hood, and Rossetti; nor is Heine's "Pine and Palm" wanting. There are pretty and instructive photographic views of trees.

We have received from P. S. King & Son, London, the second part of 'Smith's Index to the Leading Articles of the *Times*,' for the five years ending December 31, 1900. The first dealt with Names, the present deals with Places, geographically classified; and Sources and Subjects (logically classified) will furnish material for two concluding parts. This index may be of future service to the historian; a present use will be to enable the *Times's* "esteemed contemporaries" to compare its sentiments from year to year. It would seem as if some members of Parliament had constructed a private Chamberlain index for a like purpose.

The third edition of Paul Deussen's 'Die Elemente der Metaphysik,' just issued by F. A. Brockhaus in Leipzig, has been somewhat enlarged by the addition of an introductory essay "Ueber das Wesen des Idealismus," in which the author endeavors to show that the idealism of Kant, as supplemented by that of Schopenhauer, does not differ essentially from the ideas contained in the Upanishads of the Veda, the Dialogues of Plato, and the New Testament. Dr. Deussen is professor of philosophy in the University of Kiel, and the present volume is, in fact, a compend and conspectus of his academical lectures, intended primarily to serve as a guide to young men in this department of study. The work is encyclopædic in its character and scope, embracing a wide range of topics—physics, metaphysics, æsthetics, and ethics—which are discussed from various points of view, but always with reference to a common central principle underlying all phenomenal existence and constituting the fundamental element in mind, namely, the Will.

The second volume of Dr. Franz von Liszt's and Dr. Georg Crusen's 'Die Strafgesetzgebung der Gegenwart' (Berlin: Otto Liebmann) treats of penal legislation in non-European countries. Especially interesting and instructive is the account given of the penal codes of the South American states, of which that of the Republic of Ecuador presents the most surprising, indeed, scarcely credible, features of Jesuit government.

The Massachusetts Historical Society's

*Altered from or to "content" in same hand and ink. †Altered from or to "besiedg" in same hand and ink. ‡So also in Quarto of 1609; the form is common in Elizabethan English, and corresponds to Modern English "tattered."

fourteenth volume (new series) of Proceedings contains the record of meetings from March, 1901, to February, 1902, as well as several papers of interest and value. Among these are Worthington C. Ford's account of the genesis of the Monroe Doctrine, Charles Francis Adams's communication on John Quincy Adams and martial law, and James F. Rhodes's paper entitled "Who Burned Columbia?" Other contributions are two narratives of Sir William Phips's expedition against Canada in 1690, communicated by Samuel A. Green, and a collection of letters from Joseph Jones of Virginia to President Madison. A selection from the "Story Papers" contains letters of Justice Story, Webster, Everett, the Sumners, and others. There are biographical notices of Edward Griffin Porter, by Morton Dexter; of William Henry Whitmore, by William S. Appleton; of Augustus Lowell, by Thornton K. Lothrop; of Lucius Robinson Paige, by Henry F. Jenks; of Samuel Foster McCleary, by James M. Bugbee; of Robert Noxon Toppan, by Andrew McF. Davis; and of William Crowninshield Endicott, by his son and namesake—each accompanied by a portrait. A memoir of William Wetmore Story, by Charles Eliot Norton, and informal tributes to the memory of the Bishop of Oxford, John Fiske, Herbert B. Adams, Horace E. Scudder, and other deceased members are reported in full. A tardy appreciation of the late John Ward Dean appears in some remarks by William S. Appleton, who recognizes in him "perhaps the foremost antiquarian in these parts since the death of James Savage." He adds, "He ought to have been a member of this Society twenty years ago, and I hope and think that I am not the only one who regrets that his name is not on our roll."

Mr. George Ernest Bowman, Secretary of the Massachusetts Society of *Mayflower* Descendants, makes a remarkable showing for the success of this organization, in every respect, in his sixth report printed in the (retarded) January number of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston, 623 Tremont Building). One of the laborious undertakings is a card catalogue "of all persons, in every generation, whose descent from a *Mayflower* passenger we have verified by original records." This is going to be the great avenue to speedy settlement of every query regarding a suspected descent. All search of the records in any part of the Old Colony can be best conducted through the Society, for a fee which endows its Colonial Research Fund. Besides the card catalogue referred to, another is in progress of names and addresses of all persons now living who claim *Mayflower* descent; and a third takes in Unidentified Wives and Marriageable Women (limited strictly to families of Plymouth, Barnstable, and Bristol Counties). A table of members of the Society on page 45 shows John Alden's descendants in the ascendant (181), followed by Brewster's (172), Warren's (158), and Howland's (133). The frontispiece is a facsimile of Gov. Edward Winslow's will.

The Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole announces the resumption of the publication of the *Biological Bulletin*. It will contain original contributions on zoology, general biology, and physiology, reviews, and reports of work and lectures at the Laboratory, especially preliminary statements of important results. It will be open to contributions from any source, and is expected to fill, in America, the place occupied by the *Biologisches Centralblatt* and the *Anatomischer Anzeiger* in Germany by meeting the demand for the immediate publication of results.

The thirty-third annual report of the Cleveland Public Library Board is remarkable, possibly unique, in relating the construction and occupancy of a substantial and sightly building designed for temporary use pending the erection of a final home for the Library in connection with other civic buildings on an æsthetic scheme. The outlay for this transient receptacle will not exceed that for rented annexes had the old quarters been retained. We notice that in the children's department all books are bought on approval, "and in most cases read through before adding to the Library."

The journey through the Sudan east of the upper Nile to the Uganda Railway, which Major H. H. Austin describes in the *Geographical Journal* for June, was one of great hardship. Vast swamps alternated with desert tracts, where it was well-nigh impossible to get food or water. Near Lake Rudolf, several of the soldiers and porters were killed by the hostile natives. Much of the country passed through was fertile, but practically uninhabited, and big game abounded. "On several occasions we saw herds of magnificent elephants, and on two separate days were compelled to halt the whole caravan in order to allow these majestic brutes to cross our path in front of us." The object of the journey is not stated, but it is not impossible that the country eventually may be opened up by a railway, to whose construction, it is said, there are "no engineering difficulties." Among the remaining contents is a description, by Mr. W. B. Parsons, of the waterways and land routes between the Yang-tse and Canton. The most important of these in ancient times was the central route which crossed the mountains by a paved highway of unknown age. The traffic was so great that for thirty miles it is "lined with inns, shops, and stables almost continuously." Mr. Parsons is one of the very few foreigners who have been permitted to traverse Hu-nan, the most anti-foreign of Chinese provinces. He was even allowed to enter the capital, where he found shops generously supplied with all kinds of goods, native and foreign, including English medicines and American tinned vegetables and fruits.

The interest excited by our recent article on a museum of art photography, which we were prompted to write by Sir Martin Conway's discussion of the subject in his 'Domain of Art,' warrants our referring our readers to Sir Martin's letter regarding an exhibition of photographs at Liverpool in April, 1887 (see the *Nation* of May 5 in that year). His idea is at least as old as that. We learn, from a recent letter, that he has just examined at Berlin the remarkable Schweitzer collection of art reproductions in photography historically arranged—30,000 or more in number. "The fundamental necessities are," he adds, "approximate uniformity of size and relative smallness; also *thin* mounts, and facility for changing the order of the plates."

—Again we must record the death of a long-time contributor and warm friend of the *Nation*, in the very midst of his cheerful service. Mr. Dean Sage of Albany, who died suddenly on Monday, at his summer camp on the Ristigouche River, was a son of the late Henry W. Sage, the great benefactor of Cornell University, and himself in turn a liberal giver to that institution. While he had been prepared for college, he passed directly to the Albany Law School, and was admitted upon graduation to the bar; but this was by way of fitting himself for large business enterprises. He was a man of frank and generous disposition, impulsive and courageous in action, abounding in deeds of human kindness, fond of outdoor life, yet equally fond of books. Of these, in his special line of angling, he amassed a remarkable collection, which he increased some years ago with a sumptuous volume of his own on 'The Ristigouche and its Salmon-fishing,' and quite recently with half of the volume on Salmon and Trout confided to his care by Mr. Caspar Whitney. He had exceptional descriptive powers, and humor was the salt of his life. One of the traits which his invincible modesty concealed from the many was a genuine poetic gift, in consonance with his love of wild nature. He was sixty-one years of age, and will be greatly missed on both sides of the Atlantic.

—The July *Century* discusses two topics of prime interest to our future development, the Volcano Systems of the Western Hemisphere, and the Problem of Irrigation. The former of these topics is treated by Robert T. Hill of the Geological Survey, who was among the first to study on the ground the recent outburst of Mont Pelée. Five distinct regions of present volcanic activity are recognized on the Western hemisphere—the Andean group, of equatorial South America; the chain of cinder cones crossing the southern end of the Mexican plateau; the Central American group, on the Pacific side of Guatemala, San Salvador, and Costa Rica; the Windward Islands group, which has lately given so painful an interest to the whole subject, and the volcanoes of Alaska and the Aleutian Islands. It need hardly be said that Mr. Hill's diagrams and statements fully justify those who have so effectively used the volcanic argument against the Nicaraguan Canal route. Men whose knowledge of geography dates from the day of Humboldt's supremacy will note with interest Mr. Hill's demonstration that the supposed backbone of mountains extending north and south throughout the hemisphere does not exist, since the Andean system terminates in northern Colombia, and the Rocky Mountain system in the plateau south of the City of Mexico. The intervening system, for which the name Antillean is suggested, is different in origin, and lies directly across the trend of the great northern and southern systems. It will be a surprise to most readers to learn from Mr. Baker's paper on Irrigation that more than half the world's crops to-day are raised by means of an artificial water supply. The contrast between the desert as it is and the desert as it may be made where water is accessible, is strikingly shown by a description of the conditions in the famous Salt River valley of Arizona, where a few hundred miles of ditching, at a cost of about $3,000,000, has permitted the development of property valued at $30,000,000, and

sustaining a population of 25,000. Mr. Baker's paper gains interest from its appearance just as Congress has definitively committed the country to a policy of irrigation at the national expense.

—It is interesting to learn from the Editor's Study, in the July *Harper's*, that a magazine must have *organic unity*, both in the individual number and in the succession of numbers. The interest in this comes from the fact that, among American magazines of standing, *Harper's* goes to the extreme in the number and range of subjects crowded within a given number of pages. The title-page entries of the current issue number thirty-one, and the average space allotted to each entry is slightly over five pages, only a little more than half the average length of the fourteen items in the make-up of the current *Scribner's*. Evidently, the editor prefers to attack his problem of organic unity in its most difficult form, and it is doubtful whether many readers will feel that he has secured a complete solution. The lover of literary and linguistic studies will find much to his liking in Edmund Gosse's paper on "Elizabethan Dedications of Books," Professor Woodberry's discussion of the "Beginnings of American Literature," Professor Kittredge's remarks on the "Ways of Words in English Speech," and Mr. Howells's genial talk on "literary revivals," drawn forth by the rumored immanence of a Dickens renaissance. It is pleasing to be assured by Professor Woodberry that our colonial forbears were decidedly not an unliterary people, however scant their literary production; it is good to find Professor Kittredge holding the scales fairly on the level of a healthful and normal linguistic growth, as against purism on the one hand and lawlessness on the other; and, without regard to literary classification, we may unite with Mr. Howells in welcoming a revival of Dickens, if his essentially democratic and sympathetic spirit shall exert its legitimate influence "at a time when our earlier and nobler ideals of nationality seem to be endangered." But will the same type of reader peruse with a feeling of organic connection what Professor Newcomb has to say of the current activities of astronomers, or Mr. Overton W. Price's intensely practical discussion of the economic management and preservation of private forests? We fear that the editor will be able to prove the organic unity of his monthly budget only to a type of mind which the present-day specialism tends to render extinct.

—One could not wish more delightful summer reading than the July *Scribner's* presents in Will H. Low's account of his recent work "In an Old French Garden." If it were every artist's lot to immure himself for nine months of the year within the spacious, tastefully planned, and well-kept gardens of an old French estate, and ply his art surrounded by a few congenial spirits, alike enough in general aims to secure a common interest and yet sufficiently different in methods to lend spice to discussion and avert stagnation, few of us would not thank the Fates if they should put such a lot in our way. The text is accompanied by thirteen illustrations from Mr. Low's own paintings, each one representing some feature of the grounds described. William A. Coffin, in a letter to Mr. Sturgis, gives a general view of "Twenty-five Years of American Art." It is decidedly hopeful in tone. Public exhibitions, from Paris in 1878 to Buffalo in 1901, have shown constant and rapid progress, and American artists are more loyally supported by their own people, in his opinion, than those of any other country. And yet there are disadvantages. The hurry and restlessness of American life, shown in the excessive number of art exhibitions as in so many other ways, is not favorable to the pursuit of the artist's profession; our landscape painting is below the highest attainable standards in dignity and style; the virility produced by firm, strong drawing is lost in the desire for decorative effect; too often the painter has not the patience, perseverance, and grit to carry his work on through the various stages to completeness; there is too little sincere effort to secure in portrait work the nobility and beauty of such painters as Titian, Velasquez, and Rembrandt; and a misplaced kindness in criticism tends too much to encourage the weak to persist in their weakness. The reader whose interest carries him out into the wilds at this season of the year will not want to miss Arthur Heming's description of the run of the Abitibi Fur Brigade, the last remnant of the many extended canoe lines by which the Hudson's Bay Company was wont to gather in its annual harvest.

—'Among the Water Fowl,' by Herbert K. Job (Doubleday, Page & Co.), a pleasant narrative of the writer's experiences in the haunts of the larger water birds, contains much original and valuable material concerning the habits of these little-studied species. No author has been more familiar with their nesting habits. Mr. Job uses the camera instead of the gun and the scalpel, and he illustrates his text by a remarkable collection of excellent photographs. He has been afield in New England, the Dakotas, and Minnesota, and has visited the famous bird rock in the St. Lawrence, where nesting murres, kittewakes, and gannets line the ledges. In a shallow, grassy lake of North Dakota he found a nesting colony of more than 5,000 Franklin's gulls. The chapter describing this and other gull settlements will probably have most interest for the general reader. A chapter on grebes, which, from "their fish relations and habits of submergence," he calls the "Submerged Tenth," is also worth noting. "Here were the slums of a larger Grebe city than I had seen before. . . . As we looked off, we saw, some distance away, hosts of other grebes sitting or standing upon their floating nests. . . . Reaching the place, we found that a lane of water ('Broadway,' I called it) divided the city into an east and west side. On the 'east side,' along the edge of a tract of grass, the nests were crowded, four or five deep, for some distance. . . . Conditions here, as might be expected, were simply scandalous. Eggs lay rotting in the watery streets, in one spot as many as fifteen together; the result, probably, either of a storm or a squabble. Débris of all sorts was strewn around with utter indifference to the public health." The chapter most interesting to the ornithologist is on ducks and geese. Mr. Job writes of finding the nests and eggs of nineteen species of ducks, and the young of another —an experience that few students have surpassed.

—The constantly growing interest in physical geography, and the recognition of its educational value when scientifically presented, have been shown by the appearance of eight or nine new text-books on that subject in the past six years. The most recent of these is an 'Elementary Physical Geography' (Boston: Ginn & Co.), by Prof. William M. Davis of Harvard University, who has long been an admitted leader in the modern scientific development of the subject. It is chiefly, but not entirely, an abridgment of a larger and successful text-book by the same author, published four years ago. The treatment of the atmosphere, however, has been somewhat amplified, and there is a new chapter on "The Distribution of Plants, Animals, and Man"—additions which will certainly commend themselves to teachers. "Rational treatment" is the keynote to this book, as it was to its predecessor. "The ideas of cause and of consequence—one preceding, the other following, the physiographic fact—have been held constantly in mind by the author"; but he has wisely discerned that there are certain facts of great importance, *i. e.*, the rotation of the earth, the tides, etc., whose causes are not susceptible of elementary statement. Such facts must be described and their consequences considered while their causes are but lightly touched upon. In his compromises between complicated explanation and elementary statement, the author has been very successful. Certain subjects commonly given in similar books are omitted, because, as stated by the author, "elementary text-books should not present an encyclopædic richness." The numerous, well-selected illustrations, particularly those of land forms, are many of them original with Mr. Davis, and add greatly to the value of the book. Taken all in all, this seems the most satisfactory elementary text-book in physical geography yet published. Certainly in its treatment of the land it has not been surpassed, unless, perhaps, by the author's larger work, already referred to.

—Two learned societies at Oxford have recently been favored by reports of recent explorations in the Mediterranean basin. The Oxford Philological Society had a most notable account from Mr. Arthur Evans of the bearing of this year's discoveries upon the understanding of the strange Minoan characters found in such abundance in the "House of the Double-Axe" at Knossos. He exhibited facsimiles of three clay tablets found this year, upon each of which were three or four numbers the sum total of which (though the numbers varied) amounted in each case to 100; this plainly showed the inscriptions to have to do with percentages. Thanks to the rare enterprise of the Clarendon Press, Mr. Evans was able to exhibit to the society a large sheet of "Types for Prehistoric Script (Evans)," with a Synopsis of the "One-nick Two-line Pica fount" and of the "One-nick Great Primer fount." In producing these two founts, 203 characters (at first roughly outlined by Mr. Evans) were symmetrically redrawn and reduced by photography at the University Press. A line-block, made for each size, was then electrotyped, type-faces were cut out singly, and mounted on type-bodies,

and, from these, electrotype matrices were produced. Mr. Evans also exhibited to the Society a process-block reproduction in black and white line-drawing of the largest of the clay tablets upon which is the longest inscription yet found at Knossos; it was unearthed this year. At the end of two of the 25-odd lines of this inscription occur the signs for two numbers, 31 and 23, each being preceded by the "man" sign. Before this sign stand in each case the same three characters, the meaning of which must be "total," as there are plainly 31 units marked on the lines preceding the "total 'man' 31," and 23 units plainly recorded on the lines preceding "total 'man' 23." This is one of the ways in which some progress towards decipherment has already been made. Mr. Evans related another case in point. Having noticed in a museum of the Levant three specimens of the clay tablets found at Knossos, which he was confident ought to have been among the treasures handed over by him to the Museum at Candia, he scrutinized them carefully, and, by certain marks upon them (horizontal scores), he identified them as found in a definite magazine of the "House of the Double-Axe" where he had employed a workman, since discharged. These observations resulted in a term of imprisonment for the workman, who was, at the moment he was speaking, still "in durance vile"—thanks to the careful housekeeping of old King Minos, no less carefully interpreted by the modern discoverer of his storage-records.

—Mr. Evans pronounced the scores by which these abstracted tablets had been identified along with their "abstractor," to be hardly distinguishable from those on the component parts of a beautiful bracelet (of gold, lapislazuli, and turquoise) which Professor Flinders Petrie had shown two nights before in a lecture on the beginnings of Egyptian history given before the Oxford Architectural Society. By carefully noting the scores, Professor Petrie had been enabled to group them together as the almost prehistoric goldsmith required, and the beauty and symmetry of the resulting design were surely the method's best justification. The bracelet in question was unearthed in a tomb which had already been dealt with by M. Amélinau. Indeed, Professor Petrie and the Egypt Exploration Fund are certainly to be congratulated on the treasures discovered where recent researches were supposed to have left nothing to be found. Perhaps the most remarkable among Professor Petrie's new revelations was one which exemplifies the scientific perfectibility of archæological research, when its methods are constantly readjusted by one possessing the necessary experience and insight. Having to deal, during his campaign just closed, with a site which contained, in successive layers, the remains, easily distinguished, of successive kings of the First Egyptian Dynasty, and also, below all these, the remains of several continuous, prehistoric periods, Professor Petrie hit upon the leading idea of minutely classifying, by means of a card-catalogue, the whole mass of pottery belonging to all these successive layers. Having spared none of the minutest pains imaginable in his classification of successive forms, our discoverer then tabulated his results, and, by skilful grouping, obtained a sort of chronology by which the development in the manner of fashioning pots can be followed from beginnings far earlier than the Herodotean Menes down through successive prehistoric strata into the continuous line of the kings of the First Dynasty. A moment's reflection will show how invaluable such a careful scheme of "fictile" progression must be, as giving an independent hold upon early Egyptian chronology. In fact, Professor Petrie called attention to the interesting circumstance that he had already derived, from the materials thus classified, a striking confirmation of the too often rashly impugned chronology of early Egyptian history as handed down to us by Manetho. Now, less than ever, can it be maintained that Manetho's dynasties of Egypt were not, as he represents them, continuous and successive.

## BARTON'S SEMITIC ORIGINS.

*A Sketch of Semitic Origins, Social and Religious.* By G. A. Barton, A.M., Ph.D., Associate Professor of Biblical Literature and Semitic Languages in Bryn Mawr College. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xiv, 342.

In the preface to this book, Professor Barton confesses, ingenuously enough, that to many Semitists his undertaking will certainly appear premature, and a satisfactory solution of his problem impossible. But he also records his conviction that his studies have led him "to the discovery of the path trodden by the Semites in the journey from savagery to civilization." This is a large claim, and doubters will be many. The lamented Robertson Smith published, in a single monumental volume, lectures which he regarded as covering less than one-third of the scope of Professor Barton's book, and did not claim in these to have described a key which would open all the locks. He was a consummate scholar and the master of a perfectly balanced mind, and so, though we now know that his sociological authorities had in part misled him, his work remains and need never be done again. How it will be with Professor Barton's it is cheap guessing. To the present reviewer, his results should have appeared in the tentative form of articles in the transactions of some society, and been limited closely to a study of the Ishtar cult.

But the book is here, and some estimate of it must be attempted. It begins with the beginning of things in a chapter of investigation as to the cradle of the Semites. That is placed in North Africa, where the Hamites and Semites formed one people; no attempt is made to define that elusive term Hamite. From Africa the Semites, now separate from the Hamites, passed to Arabia and thence dispersed. The view is thus the ordinary Afro-Arabian one. The treatment of the subject is second-hand to a degree; Dr. Barton, indeed, makes no claim to authority either in ethnology or in Egyptology. The decision, therefore, with which he rejects the opinions of Erman and other Egyptologists of the first rank on Egyptian language and history is remarkable enough. The whole chapter is uncalled for, is premature, and unnecessary to his book. His thesis could begin, and, so far as his first-hand contributions are concerned, should have begun, with the Semites in Arabia.

That thesis may be put shortly as follows: We must presuppose a primitive stage among the Semites when they were formed into totemistic clans; the marriage relationship was vague and uncertain, and lasted, at best, for a very short term—practically beena marriages; descent was reckoned through women, who remained with their own kindred; there was no conception of chastity, rather a reverence for the powers and means of reproduction; women thus had positions of considerable independence and authority. From this developed, in one direction, a Nair type of polyandry of which comparatively slight traces have survived, and, on another, of Thibetan polyandry through the formation of the more daring and enterprising into warlike and trading clans. These went out from the oases, plundered, traded, and captured women, and passed in time from polyandry into polygamy. With the change came male kinship, a declension in the position of women, and the baal conception of marriage which was finally fixed in Islam. Further, Dr. Barton holds that even in the most primitive Arabia the pastoral and semi-agricultural stage had been reached with especial cultivation of the date-palm. This, it will be noticed, is a modification of Robertson Smith's view rendered necessary by the present change of attitude towards McLennan's hard-and-fast sociological law which laid down a regular development from promiscuity through polyandry to polygamy. Against the simple matriarchate, Dr. Barton lays stress on primitive beena marriages, slackened by frequency of divorce and a light attitude towards chastity, or, rather, a putting of unchastity, as an expression of fertility, under religious sanctions. We thus pass from Dr. Barton's sociological to his religious hypothesis.

The absolute beginnings of Semitic religion he does not attempt, but contents himself with the probability "that among them religion did not originate in ancestor-worship." The point round which his interest centres is the goddess Ishtar, for him the most primitive and original figure in the Semitic pantheon, and not an introduction from the non-Semitic world. Her worship is found among all the Semitic peoples, and Dr. Barton regards all Semitic deities which are not introductions from without as transformations or modifications of her. She was a mother-goddess, typifying the earth with its fertility; the patroness of sensuality, of the easily slipped and short-lived marriage tie, and even of absolutely promiscuous sexual intercourse. Originally, she was a water-goddess, the divinity of a never-failing spring, and beside her stood a son, a sacred palm-tree, to which she gave life. The picture is thus of the typical Arabian oasis, a spring in the desert, with a palm dependent upon it. With this connects the myth of Tammuz, who is represented at one time as the son of Ishtar, at another as the first of her series of husbands, and last as the lost husband of her youth. This development in the Semitic myth follows step by step the development in the Semitic family. In the earliest Semitic family, the chief figure would be the mother, and the chief male, her son—the spring and palm-tree. Then Tammuz came to be viewed as a rejected husband "when marriage was still temporary and women quite free, but

when the original family relations between Ishtar and Tammuz had been forgotten." In the third form of the myth is a reflection of the later, more permanent, marriage bond. All this certainly might be a great deal clearer and is far from final, but, as a working hypothesis, there is much to be said for it. The source of all Semitic religions, according to it, is found in one form or other of the sexual principle. The male and female date-palm, fecundated by the wind, struck the sexually minded Semite as an exhibition of divine approval. A spring was to him the veritable water of life. Circumcision was a consecration of the same principle. The miscellaneous sexual intercourse practised under divine sanction at so many shrines, especially the solemn sacrifice of virginity, of which we have record here and there in the Semitic world, is a survival from the old times with their primitive ideas of worship and of the divine. Religious conservatism here perpetuated practices which the feeling of the race had otherwise gradually rejected.

From this goddess Ishtar, then, by development, change, and combination came the other Semitic deities. As the tribes became more warlike and needed warlike leaders, as the system of male kinship developed, Ishtar tended to pass from a goddess into a god. Sometimes she survived independently in the middle of a pantheon that had grown up out of herself. So in Babylon; yet there Ishtar was a goddess of war quite as much as of love. At other times she remained as a consort of a male deity also developed from herself. These transformations Dr. Barton works out with great minuteness, and really produces a very considerable amount of evidence in their support. But into the details it would be out of place to enter here. It may be said in short (1) that he is too much inclined to support his hypotheses with other hypotheses and to go far afield for ethnological parallels. Thus, he finds the Sumerian hypothesis a useful means of explaining gods in Babylonia which he cannot reduce back to Ishtar, and supports his whole thesis on a comparison with the Aztec development, and (2) that he has apparently no idea of the variety of forces that were at work, producing and modifying early religious ideas. A chapter on survivals of the Ishtar cult goes even further in these directions, and reminds vividly of the dexterity and ingenuity of the more strenuous supporters of the sometime solar myth. But a goddess who can turn herself at any time into any of her own husbands or all of them or into her own son, remaining or not herself at the same time, has evidently Protean possibilities far ahead of any that the Sun ever enjoyed even in its most high and palmy state. The thing at times approaches closely to a *reductio ad absurdum*.

But the crowning triumph comes in the seventh chapter, and Jezebel and Elijah, had they but had the advantage of Dr. Barton's researches, might have made peace together, for their Yahwé himself is found to be simply another transformation of Ishtar, and therefore the same, at a few removes, as the Ashtart of Tyre. It is all very simple. The Kenite hypothesis carries Yahwé back to an Arabian tribal god. But that god, *ex hypothesi*, had been transformed from the mother-goddess, therefore, etc. Support is found in many things, circumcision, oath formulæ, the passover, and the characteristic phrase, "the *ashtaroth* of the flock," all the palm trees which have got into the Old Testament, and some trees which are not palms, the name Yahwé itself, Dr. Barton's view of the origin of which is much more original than he seems to think. Finally come a few pages on the later development of the religion of the Hebrews, and a sketchy and uncalled-for chapter in estimate of the influence, social and religious, of the Semites on the non-Semitic world. With the prophets and still more with Jesus any thought of a development is frankly abandoned. Their attitude and teaching are posited as utterly unaccounted for by their environment; practically the Hebrew revelation—and for Dr. Barton it was a revelation—began with them and not with Moses. This is a more thorough cutting of the knot than usual, and it is improbable that it will find favor either with revelationists or evolutionists.

It must be confessed that the impression produced by this book as a whole is not a satisfactory one. Admittedly Dr. Barton is not a specialist in ethnography, sociology, or Egyptian, but he acts very much as though he were, and picks out of books the points which fit his speculations, until the Ishtar cult, on which he may fairly claim to have specialized, runs risk of being obscured by the things meant to support it. Primitive sociology is still in far too uncertain a state to render safe such a course as this. With a little reading in current sociological hand-books, almost any hypothesis might be triumphantly established. Again, Dr. Barton's tone towards those who may not or do not agree with him might often be better. Such remarks as those at the top of page 306, the condescending attitude towards Driver on page 103, the worse than condescending towards Robertson on page 275, the comment at page 38 on those Egyptologists who do not admit totemism in Egypt—all these things are not in place. Again, for a low standard in scholarship we were prepared by the most unhappy Syriac and Arabic texts and translations in Dr. Barton's two papers in *Hebraica*, vols. ix. and x., but it might fairly be pleaded that these *bévues* date from eight years ago. On page 11 of this volume, however, we discover that his German, and on page 246 that his Greek, are equally shaky. Nor is the repeated occurrence of Qa'aba for Ka'ba calculated to restore confidence in his Arabic. His etymologies, too, on the Hebrew and Arabic side, are apt to be unfortunate. Thus, *Yahwé* as a hiphil may mean "he causes to come about, or happen"; it cannot mean "he gives life." The difference between the roots *haya* and *haya* is very marked; as great as between *werden* and *leben*. If Dr. Barton wishes to make a connection between Yahwé and the fundamental conception in the Ishtar myth, his course is plain through Arabic; the Kenites, *ex hypothesi*, spoke some form of Arabic. *Hawiya*, 'he loved passionately, desired,' is excellent Arabic, and as good a derivative for Yahwé as most of those that have been proposed. Again, Dr. Barton's etymology of Ishtar will hardly stand; it would have been better if he had remained by Robertson Smith's cautious statement. The Hebrew *'ashar* and Aramaic *'athar* do not connect with the Arabic *'athara*, but with *ghathara*. Further, the meaning of the Arabic *'athara* cannot be uncertain; it occurs in too various and different phrases. It means 'to trip over, to stumble over, or into'; from it *'āthūr* can be immediately derived as a pit dug for a trap, thence a deep trench either worn by a torrent or dug for irrigation. Whether *'athari* (or *'aththari*) is derived from the name *'Athtar* is a different question. The Arabic lexicographers (*Lisān*, vi., p. 215) assert that the tree is so called because it "stumbles on" the water necessary to it, and does not need to be irrigated. This may seem to us far-fetched, but it is dangerous to dogmatize on the connections of thought in the Arab mind. The subject which Dr. Barton, following Robertson Smith, has opened up is wide and difficult, but if he will read carefully the related passages in the *Lisān* (vi.. 214 ff.; xiii., 59 ff.; xix., 271)—Lane is not sufficient—he will learn a great deal of Arabic and other things besides. He appears to be of the school, too well represented among Orientalists, which lays more stress upon striking and original hypotheses than upon respect for grammar and lexicon. His power in suggestion and fruitful hypothesis is certain; we would entreat him not to cripple and discredit himself by such looseness of scholarship as this volume displays.

## THE HISTORY AND LITERATURE OF EDUCATION.

*Books on Education in the Libraries of Columbia University.* (Library Bulletins No. 2.) New York. 1901. Pp. 435.

*Source Book of the History of Education for the Greek and Roman Period.* By Paul Monroe. The Macmillan Co. 1901. Pp. 515.

*The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction.* Selected Papers by S. S. Laurie, A.M., LL.D., Professor of the Institutes and History of Education, University of Edinburgh. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1901. Pp. 295.

The Columbia catalogue of educational literature contains more than 13,500 titles, classified and indexed. It is, on the whole, a collection of very important literature, and shows the wide field with which the modern student of education must be familiar. Setting aside the conventional rubrics under which the books are classified, an analysis of the contents will be instructive. First is the large collection of literature containing facts—books on the history of education, present systems, the education of defectives, the training of teachers, methods of instruction, and the like. Second, the literature relating to development and physical health—child study, hygiene, and physical training. Third, the literature relating to the wider aspects of education—education and the church, education and the state, education and sociology, etc. Fourth, the works of the classic writers on education, containing the educational doctrines of the past and the ideals of the great schoolmasters—Plato, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Froebel, and Herbart. And, finally, a miscellaneous collection of literature relating to principles of education, the theory and practice of teaching, current problems, and the like.

Of this last class, probably, it may safely be said that 95 per cent. is of no special value except as showing the content of the pedagogue's mind, for whatever of truth it contains has been better expressed by somebody else, and what is untrue in it lacks even the merit of good fiction. For example, the German literature, which is well represented, consists largely of the restatement of old truth and the verbose discussion of dogmas that have become platitudes. A German writer himself quotes the satirist: "Mother Nature has been good to all; to the French she has given wine, to the Swiss milk, and to the Germans ink." No department of literature has shared more generously in this gift than educational literature; and thus it has come to pass that the only salvation for the student of education is the habit of ignoring most of what has been written upon the subject.

Education represents a universal human interest, but the literature of education is read only by the few. Everybody believes in education, yet few have faith in scientific pedagogy. All agree that education is one of the most vitally important things in a civilized country, and yet to the ordinary reader the history of education is most dry and uninteresting. The reason for this is not far to seek. The histories of education, the descriptions of school systems and of educational movements are for the most part mere catalogues of educational facts concerning school administration and organization, school curricula, special institutions, and technical methods. The wider relations are not seen. It is only when an educational system or an educational movement is studied in its genesis and in its social, political, and industrial relations that it becomes significant and interesting; but the ordinary writer upon education has been so close to the details that he has been quite unable to see these wider relations, to miss which is to miss everything really important, while to record them is to make the history of education one of the most vitally interesting of all subjects. In a word, the history of education and present systems of education should be studied as a part of the history of civilization and of culture, of *Culturgeschichte*. But so little scientific work has been done in this part of the field of education that it is practically impossible to write a satisfactory history. The necessary data are not at hand. The sources and authorities for such a history of education must first be made available.

Meantime, those who would give their students something better than the second-hand material of the ordinary history of pedagogy must send them to original sources. Professor Monroe, in his 'Source-Book,' has made these accessible for the classic period. The student of education, weary of the ambitious attempts to compass the whole history of education in one volume of a few hundred pages, will turn with relief to this writer, who attempts the modest but more important task of bringing together in approved translations the most important educational writings of the ancient Greeks and Romans. In his preface, the author states that he takes the term education in its narrower sense, "in the accepted historic meaning of the term, that of a definitely organized institutional attempt to realize in individuals the ideals controlling a given people"; and he limits his collection to works that bear more directly upon education in this narrower sense. The sources collected are of three classes: (1) those of more general character relating especially to the aims and ideals of education; (2) those which deal with education as the work of a specific institution; (3) the philosophical discussions of education as regards its function and means. Among the Greek writers from whom extracts are made are Thucydides, Aristophanes, Isocrates, Plato, Aristotle, Xenophon, and Plutarch. Among the Roman writers represented are Cicero, Nepos, Suetonius, Tacitus, Marcus Aurelius, Horace, Pliny the younger, Juvenal, and Quintilian. There is a good introduction to each chapter, and the whole constitutes a valuable handbook.

It seems a pity that the author should not have taken a somewhat wider view and devoted the whole volume to Greek sources. This would have made it possible to include other important writings relating to education in the broader sense; and illustrations might have been given of the other sources of historic evidence mentioned by the writer, "such as inscriptions, vase and mural paintings, and other works of art." Especially noteworthy is the omission of some of the important literature upon physical education. Since plays, games, and gymnastic exercises were such an important factor in the education of the Greek youth, the most important writings relating to this subject should have a large place. Homer's account of the great games and contests, and among the later Greeks the special monograph on physical education by Philostratus, as well as the dialogue on gymnastics, "Anacharsis and Solon," by Lucian, should be included. It would be desirable also to illustrate the psychology of the ancient Greeks, the science that lies at the foundation of practical pedagogy. For example, Aristotle's famous Essay upon Memory and Recollection might well find a place, a contribution containing substantially everything known about the psychology of association down to the special psychological studies of the last century.

Professor Laurie's book on 'The Training of Teachers and Methods of Instruction' is a reprint of a dozen or more addresses delivered by him on various occasions during the last twenty-five years. They deal with a wide range of subjects, from "The General Function of the Primary School" to "The University of the Future." Most of these have for some time been out of print. Like the literature referred to above, much of this book is a repetition; but it is necessary to repeat the same old truths to teachers, and Professor Laurie repeats very well. He recasts many of the old platitudes, imprints them with his own personality, brings out new aspects of truth, and withal writes with great discretion. The chapter on university education is important, and the description of the university of the future very interesting, although not quite adequate and convincing. The characteristic marks of this ideal are as follows: the university must embrace the whole tradition of philosophy, science, and learning, and each professor should "advance the bounds of his subject" and contribute his results to the world outside as well as teach "all who may come to him whether they intend to graduate or not." Further, the university must train for all the professions; as a guild of investigators and teachers it must be "a literary republic, self-governing and free." It "must train apprentices and specialists so as to secure the apostolic succession of competent representatives," and graduates should always remain members of the guild and "should be encouraged to return from time to time to find there (without payment) the last results of investigation." And, finally, the sum and consummation of all its teaching is the science of man and the conduct of life. "Literature, art, philosophy, religion—these constitute the true life of man, and they in some form or other enter into the culture of every youth who is to go forth as the legitimate son of the university and not as the bastard child of a specialist school"; but instruction in the practical applications of science which have to do with bodily needs, in contrast with intellectual interests, should be outside the universities, in separate technical colleges. "Degrees are mere accidents of a university," and "every professor and every subject should be accessible to the general public without reference to graduation." Universities in democratic countries must rest on the popular will, and exclusiveness in particular lines of study would be fatal. The University Extension system, however much despised by the monopolists of true culture and in spite of its attendant evils—especially examinations and marks—is a good movement and of old and respectable lineage, having been advocated by Bacon in the 'New Atlantis.' Thus, while conservative in his description of the university of the future, Professor Laurie holds to an ideal distinctly democratic, and he maintains "that the danger to which the university of the future is exposed is interference with liberty of thought and government on the part of the democracy."

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*The Kindred of the Wild:* Book of Animal Life. Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1902.

Despite the presage of his ambiguous title and the rather labored introductory chapter, the reader of Prof. Roberts's book, as he proceeds, cannot avoid the conviction that it is a masterpiece of its kind. An earlier volume by the same hand, 'The Heart of the Ancient Wood,' showed a most intimate and appreciative acquaintance with the habits and motives of the animal life of the woods. This one, which describes the life histories of various wild animals, does so with most extraordinary fidelity and breadth of knowledge. The author makes it evident that he knows whereof he writes, and writes from the fulness of his knowledge and interest, and for a public which can detect such errors of fact and flights of egotistic fancy as embellish the popular narratives of a certain favorite author on wild life and natural history.

The book begins with a story—in fact, all its chapters are stories—entitled, "The Moonlight Trails." These were the paths, regular and irregular, of rabits (hares?) in the snow among the firs, where they were wont to have social gatherings in the winter nights.

"From time to time two of these harmonious shapes would halt, sit upon their hind-quarters, erect their long, attentive

ears, glance about warily with their bulging eyes (which, in this position, could see behind as well as in front of their narrow heads), wrinkle those deft nostrils which were cunning to differentiate every scent upon the sharp air, and then browse hastily but with a cheerful relish at the spicy shoots of the young yellow birch. Feeding, however, was plainly not their chief purpose. Always within a few moments they would resume their leaping progress through the white glitter and the hard, black shadows. . . . Long ears, twinkling, round eyes softly shining, they leaped lightly hither and thither, pausing every now and then to touch each other with their sensitive noses, or to pound on the snow with their strong hind legs in mock challenge."

The story goes on to tell in what manner these rabbits were trapped, and gives an idea of the cruelty of that process of securing them.

"The Lord of the Air" is a tale of an eagle which, with his mate, had an eyrie on the top of a high mountain peak, from which watch-tower he made forays on the surrounding country for food for himself and his young family. He is thus described:

"His powerful beak, long and scythe-edged, curved over sharply at the end in a rending hook. His eyes, clear, direct, unacquainted with fear, had a certain hardness in their vitreous brilliancy, perhaps by reason of the sharp contrast between the bright gold iris and the unfathomable pupil; and the straight line of the low, overhanging brow gave them a savage intensity of penetration. His neck and tail were of the same snowy whiteness as his snake-like head, while the rest of his body was a deep shadowy brown close kin to black."

There follow most vivid descriptions of the eagle's manner of pursuit and overtaking of the various weaker creatures among which he sought his prey, and of his final capture by an ingenious trick, conceived and carried out by a half-breed. For a few weeks the bird remained in captivity, chained by the leg in an open shed that looked out on the river, whence, "across the forest hills, further than any human eye could see, a dim summit, as it were a faint blue cloud on the horizon, he could perceive—his own lost realm of Sugar Loaf. Hour after hour he would sit upon his rude perch, unstirring, unwinking, and gaze upon this faint blue cloud of his desire." The eagle finally escaped. "The air, as he bounded upward, whistled under his tremendous wing strokes. Up, up he mounted, leaving the men to gape after him flushed and foolish. Then he headed his flight for that faint blue cloud beyond the hills."

There are chapters on the moose, the wild goose, the cougar, the owl, the lynx, and other denizens of the forest and air, and the uniform and sustained excellence of all these cannot fail to excite the reader's admiration, especially of such as share the author's sympathetic feeling for animate Nature, and can realize from intimate contact with her how true an interpreter he is who writes this charming book.

The illustrations, by Charles Livingston Bull, are of varying degrees of merit, some of them being very good, and others failing entirely to express the ideas conveyed in the text. Perhaps those of the beasts of prey are the best. The rabbits (facing page 36) are very bad about the heads, and the drawings of the moose hardly appear to proceed from familiarity with the animal, especially that facing page 104, which resembles a rhinoceros as much as it does anything.

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*Reminiscences of a Dramatic Critic.* By Henry Austin Clapp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Mr. Clapp needs no introduction to those interested in the affairs of the American stage. For many years he has been recognized as one of the most trustworthy of theatrical critics, by virtue of his honesty, his good taste and judgment, his familiarity with dramatic history and literature, and his agreeable, discriminating, and expressive style as a writer. Naturally, his reminiscences make pleasant reading, and they are also valuable, especially to the younger generation of playgoers, as the deliberate opinions of a qualified observer of the respective merits of some of the greatest actors of the last thirty years. They do not pretend to be exhaustive—such players as Clara Morris, Lawrence Barrett, and Modjeska, not to speak of Bernhardt and other foreigners, not being mentioned at all; but it is nevertheless significant that they relate almost exclusively to the dead. Few living performers leave impressions upon the memory which are at once indelible and delightful.

As might have been expected, Mr. Clapp regards Boston as the centre of the theatrical world, and the Boston Museum of his youth as the perfect example of what a theatre should be. No one will dispute the brilliancy of that theatre's record during its best years, or its eminence as a temple of the higher kinds of drama. But it is permissible to doubt whether in its palmiest years it could offer such brilliant representations of the older comedy as were contemporaneously provided at Wallack's in New York. It may be admitted, however, that its stage exhibited a greater variety of entertainment, the performances of its admirable stock company being supplemented by those of visiting stars; whereas Wallack's, in those days, depended almost entirely upon its own resources. Again, it is not every old playgoer who will agree unreservedly with Mr. Clapp's somewhat over-enthusiastic estimate of William Warren. Beyond question, Mr. Warren was an actor of very rare parts, thoroughly trained, rich both in humor and in pathos, and uncommonly versatile, particularly in broadly contrasting comic characters; but that he was supreme in characters of the type of *Sir Peter Teazle, Old Dornton, Sir Anthony Absolute, Jesse Rural,* and *Sir Harcourt Courtly,* in which he was most highly esteemed in Boston, will scarcely be admitted by those able to compare his work with that of John Gilbert or William Chippendale. To say that a man who never entered the tragic or romantic field was a Théâtre-Français in himself is surely to be a little extravagant. Certainly, too, Mr. Clapp is in error when he says that J. L. Toole occupied upon the London stage a position analogous to that which Warren filled here. Toole was an actor of farce and burlesque, who never appeared in high comedy, except in some such part as *Moses* in "The School for Scandal," which he caricatured abominably. He had a vein of pathos, to be sure, but it was neither broad nor deep.

Nevertheless, Mr. Clapp is entirely right in quoting William Warren as a notable illustration of the finished actor produced under the old stock-company system and now almost extinct; and his explanation of the effects of that training in Warren's case is so clear and practical that it is rather astonishing to find in him an apparently earnest advocate of the establishment of conservatories for the education of actors, although he admits that much of what is taught in such institutions must be untaught or abandoned before success upon the real stage is possible. The point is not one that can be argued now. Conservatories, if the proper teachers could be found for them, and if they could be prevented from perpetuating all kinds of academic and fanciful traditions, might do some good. They might, at least, instruct our histrionic youth in certain elementary proprieties of speech and behavior. But, so far as the English-speaking stage is concerned, every great actor of the last hundred years has found his equipment and his inspiration in a stock company—the one and only real school of acting.

Mr. Clapp pays a fervent and judicious tribute to the genius and fine character of Edwin Booth, and also to Charlotte Cushman, of whom he justly says that all the other women of the American stage were mere children compared with her. He also comments acutely upon the art and work of Joseph Jefferson. Salvini he deems the greatest master of histrionic expression seen here in fifty years. That the superb Italian undoubtedly was. It is doubtful whether there has been any actor since Garrick to equal him. Mr. Clapp is especially enthusiastic over his *Conrad* in "La Morte Civile"—a masterpiece if ever there was one—his *Sampson,* and his *Sullivan,* but dissents from his reading of *Othello,* while acknowledging its overwhelming power. The controversy is an old one. Grant that the interpretation in its barbaric passion was not in full accord with the best Shaksperian tradition, or, what is more to the purpose, the Anglo-Saxon temperament, it was at any rate magnificent, Oriental, tremendous, and consistent, and maintained an illusion such as no other actor has created since the days of Kean and Cooke. To-day an actor changes his trousers and his moustache, and we call him versatile. Here was a man who shone with equal radiance in the Scriptural drama of Alfieri, the loftiest tragedy of Shakspere, the domestic drama of Giacometti, and in light contemporary comedy.

In an amusing chapter Mr. Clapp endeavors to analyze the character of Sothern's *Dundreary.* How Sothern would have chuckled over this! The part was compact of all kinds of shreds and patches and subject to constant alteration. In London it was one thing, in New York another, and in Boston, very likely, it was something else. On this side of the Atlantic it was always rather more exaggerated than on the other, in order to make the humor of it more obvious. At the London Haymarket it was an easily recognizable caricature, not too gross, of an existent type of foolish dandy. The technical execution of it was always exquisite. Of Fechter Mr. Clapp makes the somewhat startling assertion, founded upon a personal conversation with him, that he thought "whet" in "Whet thy almost blunted purpose," was identical with "wet," and meant that the *Ghost* wanted to "dampen" *Hamlet's* ardor. That the Anglo-German-French actor, left to his own resources, might have blundered thus is a

proposition that offers little difficulty; but Fechter was coached in "Hamlet" by J. M. H. Bellew, one of the finest Shaksperian reciters of his own or any other day, and that he should have left him in ignorance on a point so vital is extraordinary. Mr. Clapp says that Fechter did not know the significance of "blunted" either; and this is stranger still.

Some mention should be made of the criticisms on Adelaide Neilson, Janauschek, and Irving, but our notice has already exceeded its limits. Suffice it to say that they are worthy of their subjects. Indeed, the whole book is a capable and welcome addition to the literature of modern drama.

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*Reminiscences of Sixty Years in Public Affairs.* By George S. Boutwell. Two vols. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

The period which Mr. Boutwell's life has covered is in two respects of surpassing interest. Man's command over the forces of nature has been extended so rapidly as to have revolutionized our material civilization. Partly in consequence of this revolution, our system of government has shown signs of changing from a democracy to a plutocracy. With the peaceful transfer of political power from the aristocracy of Massachusetts to the middle classes Mr. Boutwell had much to do. With its forcible transfer in the Southern States he had also much to do. In the process the scope of government was greatly enlarged; the number of those obtaining from it assistance or support enormously increased, and the tendency to utilize it for private gain developed to a startling degree. The Republican party has practically controlled the Government for forty years, and, until war was declared against Spain, all its measures of any consequence had Mr. Boutwell's approval, and many of them were prepared and enacted through his agency. Yet he now finds the Government in the hands of the rich, the politicians largely venal, the colored men in the Southern States deprived of the suffrage, and the leaders of the Republican party sneering at the principles of the Declaration of Independence, and carrying on a bloody war in order to conquer a people struggling for freedom.

How comes it to pass that Mr. Boutwell finds himself now denounced as an apostate and a traitor for maintaining the cause of human rights as he has maintained it from the beginning? He does not directly answer this question; but it is possible to extract the answer from his account of his political career. He was in the first place a Democrat of the Jeffersonian school. Consistently with the principles of that school he was opposed to slavery, and acted with the "Free Soil" Democrats. So soon as the opportunity came, he took part in forming the Republican party, in order to prevent slavery from spreading. Then came secession, and he accepted the issue of war without hesitation. He favored the most radical measures, and held that the Southern States, when the war ended, were simply conquered territory, to be ruled by Congress and made into States at its discretion. He came into violent collision with President Johnson, and labored vigorously for his impeachment. He insisted on disfranchising many of the white men of the South and enfranchising the blacks. He favored the legislation compelling creditors to accept the dishonored promissory notes of the national Government as if they were gold; and he abandoned the principles of free trade and became a devoted protectionist.

The sincerity of Mr. Boutwell's devotion to the Union is unquestionable, and his uprightness not less. He has held office steadily for nearly sixty years, and can say that the offices have sought him and not he them. He was at Washington during a most corrupt period, but the smell of fire did not pass upon him. He has been sincerely devoted to the interests of the negroes and of the common people. He can say of what he has done, "I did it all for the best." That, however, was what Metternich said when he was flying from the ruins of the system that he had constructed. Some day we shall understand that the policy of protection is objectionable not because it is expensive, but because it is corrupting. It is intended to give special governmental favors to certain men and certain interests; the policy being justified by the claim that the prosperity of the favored individuals will conduce to the prosperity of the whole people. Whether this be true or not, it is now evident that the favored classes have become politically powerful, and that they maintain their control by the use of money. This is the natural result of protection, and those who insisted on that policy in the face of experience may now see it culminate in the revival of the colonial systems of former ages. When government is regarded as a dispenser of pecuniary advantage, plutocracy will be the legitimate outgrowth. Much the same may be said of the change in the Constitution attempted by the impeachment of President Johnson and effected by the legal-tender decision. The powers of Congress and of the general Government were greatly enlarged, and the decision of the Supreme Court in the Porto Rico cases was foreshadowed. The present attitude of Mr. Boutwell toward the Imperialist movement is heroic. It must have wrung his soul to turn against the party which he had so devotedly supported; but he had supported it through measures which contained the seeds of the evil crop which now alarms him who heedlessly sowed them.

Probably the most valuable feature of these reminiscences is the terse characterization of the men with whom Mr. Boutwell was brought into contact during his public career. Many of them have been long since forgotten, but the historian will prize these appreciations of a contemporary. Anecdotes are numerous, and Mr. Boutwell is not without humor; but it is often saturnine, and his judgments are affected by his stern partisanship. His panegyric on Gen. Grant will be read with interest; that on Gen. Banks not without amusement. Mr. Boutwell has little sympathy with the civil-service-reform movement, and when he became Governor of Massachusetts he applied the doctrine of rotation in office thoroughly; yet his argument against permanency of tenure deserves consideration. In his management of the Treasury Department he displayed, according to his own statements, which we do not hesita[illegible]tere virtue; but he was not a trained financier, and his confidence in his own wisdom led him to make blunders which a broader education might have helped him to avoid. He was responsible for the coinage of the trade dollar, which proved an expensive failure. He reasoned that, as there was more silver in it than in the Mexican dollar, the peoples of the Orient would at once adopt it in place of the coin to which they had been used. The thought of failure never occurred to him; but "unfortunately," he says, "the stolidity of the Chinese and the force of habit among that people were not considered by us."

This incident shows Mr. Boutwell's limitations as a statesman. He has done much useful work, and has in many ways acquitted himself honorably. But he exhibits the defects of the self-made man. When a boy he had little schooling; when a youth he read much and wisely, studying while others slept. He mingled much with men, and his force of will, his natural intelligence, his sterling integrity, soon made him respected. He lectured in the lyceums of the day assiduously, and partly through this introduction to the people of his State he became a trusted leader. He overthrew most of his opponents easily; they were perhaps no better educated politically than he was. But his mind, though powerful, was narrow, and he dealt with the great problems of the civil war with the equipment which had been forged to meet the needs of the town-meeting. His recollections are told in a rugged style and with some repetition—one volume would have been better than two; but they are interesting and valuable. Even if we cannot regard their author as a wise statesman, we cannot help admiring him as a man who was a successful politician without losing his integrity, and who was a sincere patriot even in his partisanship.

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*Practical Forestry.* By John Gifford, Assistant Professor of Forestry, N. Y. State College of Forestry, Cornell University. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

This volume is not practical in the sense of being a handbook for even the youngest amateur forester. It is designed rather to afford an intelligent insight into the sorts of work in which practical foresters engage, and to present a clear account of the materials with which they have to do. Naturally, the author deals somewhat in detail also with the approved methods of managing forests under our climatic and political conditions. Moreover, he treats the whole subject in an entertaining and convincing manner, and demonstrates the entire feasibility of modifying European silviculture to meet our special needs. As a general thing, our lumbermen have criticised Forestry harshly as being a fad of doctrinaires, totally inapplicable to our North American woods, and, we may say also, inapplicable in our state of mind. There is, of course, a hopeless difference between a well-kept forest in Germany and the wild tangle of severed branches and underbrush around a lumberman's camp here. In Germany every twig fit for the faggot is saved; here, even the larger branches are left as worthless. Worse than this is the wholly undiscriminating character of the general policy which sweeps out of existence trees of different ages, leaving no young ones to replace the lost. Early efforts to show the possibility of adopting some sensible system for caring for our forests were treated with a derision which was simply disheartening. The pioneers in this propaganda were regarded as cranks of the first order

and absolutely impracticable. They could not secure a respectful hearing. Abernethy used to say that few persons would take care of their digestion until death stared them in the face. It was not until the rapid exhaustion of some of our forests stared our landholders in the face that even a languid interest was taken in the possibility that the cranks might, after all, have something to say worth hearing. As soon as attention was once secured, many persons who had been most incredulous began to regard the general scheme with favor. At the present time there are successful forest schools, well manned with trained teachers, all acting in coöperation with the general Government.

Professor Gifford's book shows clearly the scope of the new profession, into which large numbers of intelligent students are now entering, and in which a good many graduates are likely to be successful. The time is still far distant, we fear, when sound rules of forestry will be applied to the timber districts which are under small owners, and still further off is the happy time when the important work of reforestation will be seriously undertaken on a remunerative scale. Our national forest association and the associations in the States are working in harmony and, as a rule, intelligently. The general Government and a few of the State Governments have well-considered policies in regard to this matter, and the forest schools are all excellent. In the great work of increasing public interest in forestry in general, and especially in these useful organizations, Professor Gifford's attractive book will, we hope, play an important part.

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*The Path to Rome.* By H. Belloc. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

The dominant personal note which was a defect of taste in Mr. Belloc's clever studies of Danton and Robespierre is appropriate enough to his latest work. 'The Path to Rome,' in spite of its somewhat ambiguous title, is not a theological work, though it is the record of a pilgrimage, and the pilgrimage was the outcome of a vow.

"I said, 'I will start from the place where I served in arms for my sins; I will walk all the way and take advantage of no wheeled thing; I will sleep rough and cover thirty miles a day, and I will hear mass every morning; and I will be present at High Mass in St. Peter's on the Feast of St. Peter and St. Paul.' "

We regret to say that all these vows but one were made to be broken. But though he forsook the letter, Mr. Belloc observed the spirit of his resolutions, and did in fact start on foot from Toul in Lorraine, walked nearly the whole way, and under a summer sun at that, heard mass when it was perfectly convenient to do so, and finally reached Rome. His march lay along the Moselle to the Ballon d'Alsace, across the Jura into the plain of the Aar, and through German Switzerland. The straight path into Italy lies across the Gries Pass. This is impassable in June, and Mr. Belloc's foolhardy and unsuccessful attempt to cross it is one of the most interesting episodes in his narrative. He was reduced to the ordinary gates of the Furka and the St. Gothard.

In Switzerland his ignorance of German had made communication difficult, and he had hardly reached Italy when his inability to explain himself in Italian caused his arrest as a suspicious character. As he had already walked some hundreds of miles in the boots and lived and slept in the suit of linen clothes in which he set out, and carried no luggage but a stout club, the authorities would seem to have erred on the side of confidence when they released him on the mere utterance of the magic word "tourist."

It was twenty-five miles from Milan that Mr. Belloc proved false to the main purport of his vow, and committed the artistic blunder of taking the train as far as that city. Thence he passed by Lucca and Siena to Rome, taking the train only once more, and further indulging himself with two lifts in a cart. As an introduction to Italy, a long tramp over the sunbaked mud plains of Lombardy (Shelley's "waveless plain") under a July sun leaves everything to be desired. After the horrors of that alluvial plain,

"Do not blame me that Tuscany should have passed beneath me unnoticed, as the monotonous sea passes beneath a boat in full sail. Blame all those days of marching: hundreds upon hundreds of miles that exhausted the powers of the mind. Blame the fiery and angry sky of Etruria, that compelled most of my way to be taken at night. Blame St. Augustine, who misled me in his Confessions by talking like an African of 'the icy shores of Italy.' . . . Even the goodness of the Italian nature seemed parched up in those dry bottoms. At an inn where I ate they shouted at me, thinking in that way to make me understand; and their voices were as harsh as the grating of metal against stone."

At length he reached the outskirts of Rome:

"There was an open space; a tramway; a tram upon it about to be drawn by two lean, tired horses, whom in the heat many flies disturbed. There was dust on everything around. . . . Then (along a road perfectly straight, and bounded by factories, mean houses, and distempered walls: a road littered with many scraps of paper, bones, dirt, and refuse) I went on for several hundred yards, having the old wall of Rome before me all the time, till I came right under it at last."

To make a success of a long and solitary walking tour, a man must set out with a fund of pleasure in mere living, of scorn for discomfort, and perfect content with himself, to say nothing of physical soundness. All these were the happy portion of Mr. Belloc. Yet he will inspire no one to emulate his adventures. And the chief reason for this is that though he was well qualified to take such a journey, he lacks the power to tell the story of it. It is, of course, by sheer force of his own peculiar point of view and style that a writer can cast a glamour about the trivial incidents of the open road. We do not look to Mr. Belloc for the genius of Sterne or Stevenson, but we may be allowed to resent his neglect of such excellent material. "If you have come to this book for literature, you have come to the wrong booth and counter," he tells us; and more than once he seems to entertain himself with the certainty that the reader is finding his author's self-conscious manner irritating and tiresome. One may refuse to write literature, but why insist on being a bore when one has enough imagination and humor to be entertaining? A good deal of Mr. Belloc's worst writing is too elaborate to be reproduced here; a fair instance of pointless wit is at p. 220:

"You are not suddenly introduced to that country, but, as it were, inoculated and led on by degrees, which is a pity. For good things should come suddenly, like the demise of that wicked man, Mr. (*deleted by the censor*), who had oppressed the poor for some forty years, when he was shot dead from behind a hedge, and died in about the time it takes to boil an egg, and there was an end of him."

On the other hand, we quote a passage in which he is at his best:

"It was the first part of the afternoon when I got to a place called Meiringen, and I thought that there I would eat and drink a little more. So I steered into the main street, but there I found such a yelling and roaring as I had never heard before, and very damnable it was; as though men were determined to do common evil wherever God has given them a chance of living in awe and worship. For they were all bawling and howling, with great placards and tickets, and saying, 'This way to the Extraordinary Waterfall; that way to the Strange Cave. Come with me and you shall see the never-to-be-forgotten Falls of the Aar, and so forth.' So that my illusion of being alone in the roots of the world dropped off me very quickly, and I wondered how people could be so helpless and foolish as to travel about in Switzerland as tourists, and meet with all this vulgarity and beastliness. If a man goes to drink good wine, he does not say, 'So that the wine be good, I do not mind eating strong pepper and smelling hartshorn as I drink it'; and if a man goes to read good verse—for instance, Jean Richepin—he does not say, 'Go on playing the trombone, go on banging the cymbals; so long as I am reading good verse, I am content.' Yet men now go into the vast hills, and sleep and live in their recesses, and pretend to be indifferent to all the touts and shouters and hurry and hotels and high prices and abominations. Thank God it goes in grooves! I say it again, thank God, the railways are trenches that drain our modern marsh, for you have but to avoid railways, even by five miles, and you can get more peace than would fill a nosebag. All the world is my garden since they built railways and gave me leave to keep off them."

As a literary effort, Mr. Belloc's new book will never rank high. But his personality is interesting, and though he lacks the genius that transmutes, his picture of the route he travelled so painfully is likely to hold the attention of the reader. In a future edition we may venture to hope that he will cut out the tiresome dialogues between "Lector" and "Auctor," and the entirely irrelevant stories that block the path of his pilgrimage and interrupt the view.

The book is illustrated by sketches made on the march, good on the whole, though occasionally, like the philosophic by-play of the author, they are too trivial to be worth while.

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*The Old Royal Palace of Whitehall.* By Edgar Sheppard, D.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. xviii., 415.

Readers who have not been surfeited with the considerable number of books about London that have appeared of late, will find interest and pleasure in Dr. Sheppard's sumptuous volume. To the average Londoner of to-day, the old royal palace of Whitehall, if it exists at all, is probably confounded with the Banqueting Hall, now occupied by the United Service Institution. The Banqueting Hall, however, is only the last important remnant of what was once

an extensive series of buildings, which fire and the growth of the city have long since swept away. Dr. Sheppard's industrious researches have enabled him to reconstruct in description the Whitehall of a former time, and to exhibit the palace as the theatre of some of the most interesting events in English history.

The palace of Whitehall was for many years the London residence of the Archbishops of York, being known in consequence as York House or York Place. Under Cardinal Wolsey, who probably built or rebuilt considerable portions of it, it became distinguished "by a sumptuous magnificence that probably has never been equalled in the house of any other English subject, or surpassed in the palaces of many of its kings." Wolsey was the last archbishop to occupy the palace, and on his fall in 1529 it was taken over by the King, being treated by Henry VIII. as though it were a part of the Cardinal's private estate, although it was in fact a part of the patrimony of the see. In 1536 it was annexed to the ancient palace of Westminster. Henry VIII. took up his residence at Whitehall, and the palace continued to be the London residence of the sovereigns until the disastrous fire of 1698.

Under Henry VIII. the buildings were extended and improved, and the landed area considerably added to. By the time of James I., however, the palace was in a dilapidated condition, and the King contemplated its restoration and enlargement on a magnificent scale, but, with the exception of the Banqueting Hall, the elaborate plans of Inigo Jones were never carried out. Charles I. also contemplated reconstruction, and employed Rubens to paint the ceiling of the Banqueting Hall, but the unfortunate monarch accomplished little in the way of building. The palace had grown to immense size by the reign of Charles II. James II. made further additions and alterations, and William III. seriously considered rebuilding after the designs of Inigo Jones; but the destruction of nearly the entire collection of buildings, except the Banqueting Hall, by fire in 1698 put an end, not only to these plans, but to the further use of Whitehall as a royal residence. On the accession of George I. the Banqueting Hall was converted into a chapel royal, and was so used, save in the years 1829-37, until 1891, when it was lent by Queen Victoria to the United Service Institution.

Whitehall will always be most commonly associated with the execution of Charles I., and Dr. Sheppard devotes much attention to the difficult questions of the location of the scaffold and the determination of the window through which the King passed to his death. The palace was also, however, the home of Cromwell during most of the period of the Protectorate, and it was there that Cromwell died. Charles II. received the Lords and Commons there on his restoration, in 1660, and it was there that the same Lords and Commons met in 1688 "to settle the Prince of Orange upon the throne." William, however, disliked the palace as a residence, being always ill there, and in consequence Whitehall virtually ceased to be a royal residence after the abdication of James II.

The wealth of detailed information contained in Dr. Sheppard's book is, on the whole, well arranged and fairly digested, though at times the work savors too much of a compilation. The numerous full-page illustrations add greatly to its value. There is a careful index.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnauné, Aug. La Monnaie, le Crédit et la Change. Paris: Félix Alcan. 8 fr.
Brown, W. G. Golf. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.
Collingwood, W. G. The Lake Counties. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Davis, W. S. Belshazzar. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Dugard, M. De la Formation des Maîtres de l'Enseignement Secondaire à l'Etranger et en France. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr.
Gage, A. P. Introduction to Physical Science. Rev. ed. Ginn & Co. $1.
Haggerty, John. How to Treat the Trusts, and How to Win in 1904. Abbey Press. 25 cents.
Hastings, Rev. James. Dictionary of the Bible. Vol. IV. Pleroma-Zuzim. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners.
Hastings, Henry. Mistress Dorothy of Haddon Hall. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Howard, Dr. B. Prisoners of Russia: A Personal Study of Convict Life. D. Appleton & Co. $1.40.
Jordan, Leopold. Interviews with a Monocle. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. 50 cents.
Keary, C. F. The Brothers: A Fairy Masque. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Keene, R. W. The Blue Diamond. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Kennan, George. Napoleonder, from the Russian; The Napoleon of the People, from the French of Honoré de Balzac. The Outlook Company. $1.
Kenyon, C. R. The Argonauts of the Amazon. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Kingsley, Rev. Charles. Westward Ho! 2 vols. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan.
Lathers, Richard. Biographical Sketch of Colonel Richard Lathers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Louttit, G. W. A Maid of the Wildwood. Fort Wayne (Ind.): The Colonial Press.
Marchmont, A. W. Miser Hoadley's Secret. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.25.
Meyer, Kuno. Liadain and Curithir: An Irish Love-Story of the Ninth Century. London: David Nutt.
Needell, Mrs. J. H. Unstable as Water. Frederick Warne & Co. $1.25.
Nield, Jonathan. A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales. London: Elkin Mathews; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pollak, Gustav. Our Success in Child-Training. The Contemporary Pub. Co. $1.
Pyle, Katharine. Careless Jane, and Other Tales. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Russell, Norman. Village Work in India. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Sage, D., and Others. Salmon and Trout. Macmillan. $2.
Scott, E. H. Mother Holda. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Schuyler, Montgomery. Index Verborum of the Fragments of the Avesta. (Indo-Iranian Series.) Columbia University Press (Macmillan).
Simmons, J. C. My Trip to the Orient. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. $1.50.
Simon, Pierre. A Philosophical Essay on Probabilities. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
Some of the Rhymes of Ironquill. New ed. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Sumichrast, F. C. de. Racine's Athalie. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Temple Bible. Numbers.—The Earlier Pauline Epistles. 2 vols. London: Dent; Philadelphia: Lippincott. 60c. each.
Thackeray, W. M. The Newcomes. 3 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Thring, Lord. Practical Legislation. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Tompkins, H. W. Highways and Byways in Hertfordshire. Macmillan. $2.
Turk, Prof. M. H. Selections from De Quincey. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Vail, I. E. Three Years on the Blockade. Abbey Press. $1.25.
Washington, Booker T. Character Building. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Welch, J. H., and Taylor, H. E. Destruction of St. Pierre, Martinique. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
Wright, Prof. G. F. Asiatic Russia. 2 vols. McClure, Phillips & Co. $7.50 net.

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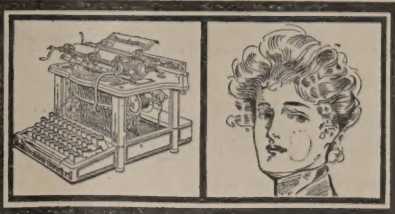

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1902.*

## The Week.

President Roosevelt's Fourth of July speech at Pittsburgh bore out the rumors that he would maintain a bold and unyielding tone in the matter of Cuban reciprocity. This he did, throwing "tact" to the winds. Party managers may well wring their hands over a President who bluntly says in public that he "regrets" what the party did, or failed to do, in Congress, and who defiantly tells them that the policy which they rejected will yet be adopted "as sure as fate." Fate has too many secrets in her grim keeping to make that an absolutely sure word of prophecy; but it is something to have an outspoken man in the Presidency, who thus throws down his gage to his political enemies in the presence of the people. What Mr. Roosevelt had to say about the Philippines was in line with the sentiments of his amnesty proclamation issued on Friday. The peace which all have so ardently desired has come at last; and the Administration's hope is that the army will have to be used no further in the archipelago except as a kind of temporary police force. The President intimated a parallel between our course in Cuba and that in the Philippines which is highly suggestive. If our goal is the same in either case—if, indeed, our conduct towards the Filipinos is to be made, in the end, on all fours with that towards the Cubans—then we may expect that the establishment of a civil government, in which the inhabitants are to have a share, will lead directly to their entire control of their own affairs. To that end the President is bound to strive, unless he is willing to see the Declaration of Independence made, as he said on Friday, a tissue of "meaningless platitudes." Mr. Roosevelt recurred emphatically at Pittsburgh to his former declaration about the need of special legislation by Congress to restrain Trusts and monopolies. His positive endorsement of Attorney-General Knox was something more than the flowery tribute which every member of the Cabinet is entitled to, on the Presidential travels, in his own home; it was a fresh definition of Mr. Roosevelt's platform.

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Monday's dispatches from Manila again illustrated, and very clearly, the unreliability of the Philippine news upon which the American people depends for its information as to what is going on in the archipelago. The Associated Press telegrams state that Aguinaldo is in fear of his life, now that he has been released from confinement, and that he does not dare to call upon Acting Governor Wright except at night time. This timidity is due, it is stated, to apprehension lest the friends of the late Gen. Luna attempt to take his life. All this is very interesting, indeed, but the *Sun's* correspondent will have none of it. He telegraphs as follows: "Aguinaldo says he does not fear the vengeance of the friends of Gen. Luna, who, it is charged, was assassinated by Aguinaldo's orders." Yet it is from these two correspondents that all the telegraphic news comes which reaches the United States. If their situation requires respect for the civil and military authorities in the islands, there is nothing to prevent their toadying to the powers that be and praising them to the skies. They may make or unmake the reputation of any officer. In Manila the signs that the two correspondents cannot forget the existence of a press law would seem to be more or less conclusive. In the Gardener case, for instance, the amount of space given to the defendant is very small compared with that bestowed upon the other side, and the bias in favor of the Administration is quite plain.

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Despite the confident assertions of a few weeks ago, that Gov. Taft would conclude his negotiations with the Vatican in "record" time for such diplomatic transactions, they are not yet completed. The stumbling-block is apparently the American request that *all* the friars be withdrawn. The cardinals would naturally like to have the friars of other than Spanish nationality remain, and enough of the Spanish to man the universities. None the less, the desire of the Vatican to keep on good terms with the United States is obvious as well as the wish to expedite matters. It is, of course, a dangerous precedent for Rome to set—this expropriation or forced sale of property of religious orders. At best some odium will cling to those who give up the rights of the four orders in return for cash, particularly as there is danger that such a wholesale withdrawal and the influx of American Protestants will seriously weaken the great power of the Church in the Philippines. While the cardinals of course realize that the United States has the whip hand, and are anxious to make as good a bargain as possible, some doubtless cannot forget that they are candidates for the Papal tiara. This is said to be particularly the case with Cardinal Rampolla, who, in addition to being Papal Secretary of State, is also protector of the Augustinians.

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Dr. Henry C. Rowland, lately an assistant surgeon in the army, contributes to the current *McClure's Magazine* a noteworthy article, entitled "Fighting Life in the Philippines." In this he explains from the medical point of view how it is that American officers and soldiers can murder and torture natives. He is able to press home his points by personal observation in the field and in hospitals. Chronic homesickness he found was one of the most serious disorders with which the surgeon has to contend in the archipelago, for it frequently results in acute dementia. One excellent sergeant, for instance, suddenly became insane, fired upon his own comrades, and then deserted to the Filipinos. Two days later he returned unharmed, but confused and depressed. A corporal suddenly jumped out of a hut, sprang upon an innocent native, and beat him unmercifully until overpowered by ten fellow-soldiers, who took the madman to the hospital. Here he recovered within twenty-four hours. Still another reliable soldier was caught in the act of deliberately murdering a Filipino—just as the ex-soldier who surrendered himself in California the other day declares that he did. An officer who was ordered to the hospital raged and threatened to kill the medical officer. "Quantities of such cases might be cited," Dr. Rowland declares, "all going to prove conclusively that, under certain unaccustomed conditions, it is possible for men to behave in a manner entirely foreign to all prehabitual impulse, as the result of unusual influences upon which they have no gauge."

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We observe that the Imperialists have left off their chuckling over Admiral Dewey's explanation that, when he said the Filipinos were more capable of self-government than the Cubans, he meant that neither people was capable of it. This was a rather roundabout and miss-fire joke at best, but it was never one which could do the Republicans any service. If Dewey is an infallible oracle, what becomes of that Cuban self-government which has been set up amid Republican rejoicings and self-gratulation? It is obviously a mistake and a sham, and a Republican Administration is much to be blamed for letting the Cubans cut loose at all. If, on the other hand, the opinion is maintained that the Cuban republic is doing very well, there stands the assertion of the Admiral that the Filipinos could make one do better. Moreover, here is a Republican Congress boasting of having given the Filipinos self-government at least to the extent of authorizing a Philippine Assembly. That is another blunder, if Dewey's dictum is impeccable. That officer, it is probable, shares the old military notion that the capacity for self-government

means only a willingness to obey the orders of a superior. He feels, with Wellington, that a Constitution is out of place on a man-of-war, and it is an easy step to deny impatiently that it is *in* place on a given piece of land—Malta, in Wellington's case, the Philippines in Dewey's.

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Even short-memoried Americans can recall the time when Gen. Fitzhugh Lee was a great authority on Spanish misrule in Cuba. Widespread indignation used to be aroused in this country by his accounts of the evils from which the Cubans suffered. Yet we do not suppose that the picture he now draws of the miseries and threatened disasters of Cuba, resulting from the prostrate condition in which the United States left the industries and finances of that island, will either attract much attention or arouse deep feeling. At the same time, there can be no doubt that he speaks words of truth and soberness. His description of the unhappy posture of affairs in Havana is borne out by all the impartial evidence available. All disinterested observers agree that the new Government is in rough water and laboring heavily; that President Palma is at his wit's end to stave off national bankruptcy; that he is beset by hordes of clamorous office-seekers, for whom there are neither places nor money to pay their salaries; that the Treasury is empty and revenues falling; that loans are necessary, yet can be negotiated only at ruinous rates; that retrenchment is imperative, but is possible only in the departments of education, public works, and sanitation; that the negro citizens, especially the colored soldiers of the Cuban army, are demanding offices and back pay, and are threatening to make trouble if their desires are not heeded. Gen. Lee's assertion to this effect is only an echo of what we hear from returning travellers and correspondents, and of what is to be read daily in the columns of that impartial witness on the spot, the *Diario de la Marina* of Havana.

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We got from the Cubans the Platt Amendment. That is down in black and white. It is a part of the Cuban Constitution. It binds the Cubans, while we remain absolutely free; and the promise that President McKinley and Secretary Root gave them in return, has been cynically broken. How ill at ease they are in such a situation, and how directly their plight provokes them to show a proud sensitiveness, may be seen in the request of the Cuban Government that we take away the stock of coal belonging to us, which was left on a dock at Havana. They do not want to have even the appearance of American control. Secretary Moody very properly undertakes to remove the coal. This should have a good effect. It should tend to make the Cubans discredit such an absurd dispatch as that published the other day by *El Mundo*, saying that President Roosevelt had telegraphed President Palma "forbidding" him to form a Cuban militia. Yet the Platt Amendment remains a continual cause of vexation to the Cubans. Under it, for example, they agree to maintain the American methods and standards of sanitation. If they did not, if yellow fever should be allowed to infest Havana again, there would be a speedy cry that the Cuban Government was a failure, and that annexation was forced on us in self-defence. But what the Cubans say is that the force of Major Gorgas is one very expensive to maintain; that it is as much for our benefit as theirs; and yet that we have disabled them from having a revenue adequate for such an outlay, while forbidding them to economize. No wonder they are sore. They will soon be called "ungrateful."

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A full statement of Gen. Wood's payments from the Cuban Treasury, for the purpose of obtaining legislation from the Congress of the United States, was sent to the House on the eve of adjournment. The total is $15,626. Of this sum, $1,350 went to the Havana *Post*, an American paper, which evidently did not daily flatter the Military Governor without expecting something in return. Its rival, the Havana *Herald*, with the natural envy and spite of one not allowed to bask in official sunshine, openly asserted that the *Post* was subsidized from the palace, and that Gen. Wood, in his soldier's simplicity, was paying the full retail price, instead of getting his thousands of copies at a wholesale rate. Putting all this one side, it is obvious now that, with whatever good intentions the payments were ordered, they were indiscreet and improper. Quite apart from their secrecy, and from the boomerang effect which their unexpected publication had upon Congress, they were in violation of the one principle which should have ruled our military government in Cuba throughout. This is, that we were there as trustees, and that all Cuban revenues were in the nature of a trust fund. It is clear that, to-day, the Cubans would be only too glad to have that money back in their Treasury. If they had, and in addition the sums which Gen. Wood gave to buy off the opposition of Gomez and others, the Cuban Government would not be obliged to cancel its contract for the education of Cuban teachers in this country, for lack of $30,000.

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The closing of the successful meeting of the Southern Educational Association in Chattanooga calls attention anew to the educational revival in the South. Unlike the annual conference of the Southern Education Board, this association is made up wholly of Southerners actually engaged in teaching work. Being free from Northern influence, its proceedings show all the more clearly how Southern teachers have become aroused to the great need of an upbuilding of the school systems of their section. The resolution passed by the association calling upon the State Legislatures to meet school districts half way in providing for district libraries, is merely a symptom of the liberal spirit everywhere manifesting itself. While such a school library would primarily benefit the scholars, it would also exert a great elevating influence upon the surrounding homes; and an appreciation by the parents of the work of the schools is one of the aims which the educators have most at heart. A South Carolina delegate to the Athens conference in May, for instance, declared that he would speak from every stump in the State, if necessary, to further the educational revival. It has suddenly become plain to teachers throughout the South that if really rapid progress is to be made, those of mature age, as well as the young, must be brought to a realization of the financial and practical, as well as moral and intellectual, advantages to be obtained through a sound education.

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So marked is the growing liberality in educational matters in the South, particularly in accepting Northern aid in the building up of schools and colleges, that the crass narrow-mindedness of the Louisiana Legislature in the matter of school histories becomes the more glaring by contrast. This worthy body has decreed that no text-book shall be used in the schools of the State which does not give Rear-Admiral Schley full credit for the naval victory at Santiago. There has been some excuse in the deep-seated antagonisms of the civil-war period for the attempt to prescribe histories of that time written from the ultra-Confederate standpoint. But this effort to say what shall be or shall not be put into a school history in regard to the events of 1898, goes much further in the way of prejudice and illiberality than anything which has yet been reported. Doubtless we may yet hear of a Southern Legislature's decreeing that President Roosevelt's Administration shall become known to the youth of its State only as one of "infamy" and of "insult to the South," because of the Booker Washington dinner incident. Plainly the Louisiana Legislature is itself very much in need of an educational revival. We would suggest a course of lectures by James Ford Rhodes, Charles Francis Adams, and others upon the true meaning of history and the proper attitude of the historical writer. It would then learn the folly of its resolution, beside which King Canute's attempt to assert sovereignty over the ocean was an

act of wisdom. Rear-Admiral Schley's place in history will be decided by the verdict of his brother-officers, the adverse findings of the court of inquiry, and the opinion of unbiassed foreign experts.

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Last week's report on the movement of national bank circulation during June has a special interest. It proves, if further proof were necessary, the intimate and unfortunate connection between this form of money supply and the condition of the Treasury, and it shows that the resulting evil has been for the present checked. At first glance, an uninformed observer might be puzzled to understand why such a connection should exist at all. But the order of events is as plain as a syllogism. Bank circulation depends on the Government bonds deposited by the banks as security for the notes. An excessive public surplus is usually dealt with here by redemption, on a considerable scale, of the public debt. The Treasury's bids for such a purpose force the bonds to an artificial price. The profit thereby guaranteed induces the banks to sell their bonds, as a result of which they have to reduce their circulation. All this is nothing new to us. In the fiscal year 1887, for instance, the surplus revenue was such as to draw very seriously on the money market, and $125,000,000 of bonds were bought in by the Treasury. In 1888, $71,000,000 were redeemed for the same reason; in 1889, $120,000,000; in 1890, $104,000,000; in 1891, $114,000,000. The result was contraction of $26,000,000 in bank notes during 1888, $31,000,000 in 1889, $25,000,000 in 1890, and $18,000,000 in 1891. With the Treasury piling up idle surplus, even after these lavish and at times extravagant bond-redemptions, something very like a real contraction of the outside money supply was in progress.

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This contraction, it will be observed, was wholly independent of any conditions properly governing movement of circulation. Almost exactly the same phenomenon arose last autumn. Bank circulation based on bonds had expanded, between the enactment of the law of 1900 and the close of last September, $115,000,000. It still showed a general tendency to increase when the Treasury's unexpectedly heavy surplus, and its consequent large withdrawals from the money market, forced Mr. Gage to resume his bond-redemptions on an extensive scale. Between that date and the close of last March, the Treasury bought in $35,890,000 of its bonds. During exactly the same period, bonds of the national banks, deposited to secure outstanding notes, decreased in amount $11,100,000, with, of course, an equivalent contraction of circulation. The first act of Mr. Shaw was to stop the bond-redemptions, with a view to stopping the quite artificial contraction of the currency. Since March, not a dollar of the public debt has been redeemed. Retirement of notes continued for a month or two, probably for account of banks which wished to strengthen their cash reserves. Now it has stopped entirely; during June, there was an increase, for the first time in nine months, in bonds held by the banks to secure circulation, and outstanding notes increased. It is quite manifest, however, that even this normal movement is a result of accidental circumstances; that, had the Treasury surplus kept on draining an active money market, the contracting process could not have been arrested. The whole episode shows the fatal weakness of the present bank-note system—a system which for security is admirable, but, for the other normal functions of a currency, hopelessly out of joint.

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An aged merchant in this city has planned a unique beneficence—an institution which shall succor worthy self-supporting people, temporarily under stress of poverty or of physical disability. This new charity will not compete directly with the present hospitals, for it will draw neither from the well-to-do classes nor from the very poor, but from the average independent wage-earners. Its organization will permit it to treat those cases of comparatively slight illness and of tedious convalescence which the hospitals undertake, if at all, only at a sacrifice of efficiency. The character of the trustees of the Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation, so splendidly endowed, insures a wise administration of this unusual trust; while the fact that the donor, Mr. John M. Burke, gives the funds outright, and will during his remaining life serve upon the Board of Trustees, happily brings to the shaping of this novel benefaction the counsel of the mind and heart which conceived it. Mr. Burke's is comparatively an obscure name in this city. It is a redeeming feature of our restless civilization that, where thousands are moving heaven and earth for notoriety, there are always a few modest citizens of every city who are silently planning how to turn their personal prosperity to the general good, and who finally present a great scheme of benefaction with no more circumstance than they use in any customary transaction of their day's work.

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The most important action thus far in connection with the meeting of the Colonial Premiers in London has been the Imperial Government's refusal to suspend the Constitution in Cape Colony. This decision is all the more striking in view of the fact that Lord Milner has gone on record, unofficially, but publicly, as desiring "to preserve the Colony from the disastrous consequences which are likely to result from the resumption of Parliamentary and party strife before the bitter passions excited by the war have had even a little time to subside." Of course, Lord Milner, like the forty-two members of the Cape Colony who petitioned for the suspension of the Constitution, wished it understood that their views implied "no defection from the principle of responsible government." But the English Cabinet has apparently realized that the South African public would not take a suspension in this broad-minded spirit, particularly that part of it which has lately been won over to peace by a promise of eventual total self-government. The truth is, that Lord Milner and his followers fear that in Cape Colony the Dutch and their sympathizers will be in the majority, and their kind of self-government does not include anything but English supremacy. The English party at the Cape is divided on the suspension proposal; the Premier, Sir Gordon Sprigg, being against it, partly in view of Lord Milner's promise in 1899 that there should be no curtailment of Constitutional liberties as a result of the war. Not only Sir Gordon Sprigg, but others of the visiting premiers, have had a hand in bringing about the decision, for fear of the bad effect such action as urged by Lord Milner would have upon their colonies. Aside from this personal reason, they have urged a policy which is in line with the best English Constitutional traditions.

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The announcement that the King of Italy and the Czar will soon exchange visits, gains a piquancy from this added item, that, while Victor Emmanuel III. will find time to make the return trip by way of Berlin, he considers Vienna too inconvenient a stopping-place on the way to St. Petersburg. This certainly lends color to the repeated rumors of alienation between Austria and Italy. It is undoubtedly something of a chagrin to the tenant of the Quirinal that no Austrian sovereign or prince of the blood will make an official visit to Rome, for fear of disturbing the delicate but friendly relations which exist between the dual monarchy and the Vatican. It may be felt that a punctilio of this kind has no longer serious political weight; but the fact that the Italian King visits the Czar in the first instance, and elaborately omits to visit the intervening Emperor, shows at least that the Triple Alliance lacks something of its old fervor. Amateurs of prophecy about the Eastern question will not fail to point out the fact that Italy may well be seeking assurances from the arbiter of the East in the matter of Montenegro and Albania, where her interests clash directly with the supposed ambitions of Austria. But one does well to leave the Levant on the lap of the gods.

### *VACATION TRUST-HUNTING.*

All accounts agree that the President's Pittsburgh declaration about "great corporate fortunes" is but the preliminary to an active political campaign against Trusts. He is to devote his vacation to their pursuit. Instead of the Big Game of the Rockies, which has so often before been the trophy of his holiday bow and spear, he plans to return this time with the pelt of the *Octopus Vulgaris*. Representative Littlefield is to be called in as a brother-Nimrod. The Attorney-General is to visit Oyster Bay, not for the purpose of hunting the common or garden Trust which alone haunts that peaceful shore, but to help the President load his anti-Trust cartridges for his fall shooting on the Western stump. The idea is to equip him with a high-powered rifle, in the shape of a bill embodying his idea of the "new legislation" needed against Trusts, before which every Trust that roams the prairies shall go down.

We would not be thought to speak flippantly of the President's plans. He is, no doubt, in dead earnest. His sincerity, in the position which he has taken on this subject, is as unquestionable as his courage. We cannot, however, blind ourselves to the fact that a long-range summer fight with Trusts is a very different thing from coming to close grips with the monsters in the winter at Washington. From such a hand-to-hand contest the President and his party have just emerged, and the Trusts were not the ones to come out of it "considerable shuck up like" and "permiscuously chawed." The truth is, as a careful study of the habits of the Trust will show, that animal is what may be called an æstivating instead of a hibernating species. It sleeps peacefully the summer through, caring not for the loud cries of its assailants on stump or platform. But when the winter comes, with an actual bill in Congress, like Mr. Littlefield's of this year, then it appears all teeth and claws, and by the time the Trust gets through with that bill, its own father would not recognize it.

This well-known fact is what suggests the present political futility of President Roosevelt's aggressive movement against the Trusts. He intends, his friends say, to spike the Democratic gun. But he will need to be exceedingly careful lest he furnish that piece of artillery with an extra charge of powder. Just what is the cry which, it is evident, the Democrats will raise against the Republicans in the Congressional campaign of this autumn? Obviously, that the party in power, with an ample majority and abundant time, did not so much as report in Congress a single measure for the restraint of monopoly. Now, to bring out a vacation bill on the subject will look, in the first place, perilously like confessing that the Democratic charge is true. The retort will be ready to hand: "If you think such legislation is imperatively needed, why did you not enact it during the last session of Congress?" President Roosevelt can hardly reply that Congress was too busy heeding his urgent request for Cuban reciprocity! And simply to make a fresh promise of doing, in the crowded short session, what no time was found for in the long one, would put the party too much in the attitude of being the party, not that "does things," but that is always going to do things.

Another pitfall will lie at the President's feet. What is he going to say about the relation of the tariff to Trusts? He cannot be unaware of the line of attack which the Democrats will take up. They will maintain that the Republican party is so protection-mad that it dares not touch a customs duty even when it can be shown to inure to the benefit of a Trust. In support of this contention, they will point to a solid Democratic vote in Congress in favor of taking off the tariff from all Trust-made products, and a nearly solid Republican vote against it. Here is no question of problematic control of Trusts by special legislation, thrown at once into the courts. It is, rather, an opportunity to cut away at one sharp stroke a needless and noxious protection enjoyed by monopolies. How is the President to excuse his party's attitude on that subject? Can he expect to stir up agitation about Trusts, and yet be silent, and have his party silent, in regard to this one definite and perfectly feasible way of clipping their claws? When a man goes Trust-hunting, he must not put aside the most direct and immediately deadly weapon he might use; or, if he does, he must expect to have some awkward questions put to him, and will have to give a transparently clear explanation of his course.

In referring to these personal and political difficulties which the President is certain to encounter, we must not be charged with belittling or discouraging his enterprise. We consider it of the highest moment if it signifies that Mr. Roosevelt intends to assert his leadership, and that he means to break with the timid and selfish counsels of party managers in the matter of monopoly, as well as of Cuba. He understands perfectly by this time, we have no doubt, that he has nothing to hope, but everything to dread, from the bosses and the promoters. He has heard, we presume, of that magnate who said, in the bitterness of his wrath at President Roosevelt's suit against the Northern Securities Company, that he was prepared to spend $1,000,000 to prevent his renomination. To shrink before such threats would be neither safe nor shrewd for Mr. Roosevelt. Whatever the party leaders may think of him, he is extraordinarily popular with the Republican rank and file. We can interpret his announced programme in only one way: he means to go directly to the masses of his party, and secure for himself such a support as will enable him to obtain the legislation he thinks necessary for Cuba, or against monopoly, whether the party bosses will hear or forbear. It is a greatly daring plan, and it may fail; but it reveals the President as a man who does not shrink from the duty of leadership, and who knows how alone to assert and apply it —namely, by going over the heads of the managers to the people.

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### *PROTECTION OF MINORITY STOCKHOLDERS.*

There is much in the present situation of the "small investor" to arouse sympathy. The rate of interest has fallen very low, and the rate of taxation has correspondingly risen; for a tax of 2 per cent. on property that pays 4 per cent. interest is twice as heavy as the same tax was when the property paid 8 per cent. The proper, and we might say natural, investment for moderate fortunes is in mortgages on real estate; but our system of double taxation renders this investment frequently impracticable. A citizen of New York may, it is true, put his money in a savings bank, which can then put it into an untaxed mortgage. But the bank will accept only a small sum from one depositor, the theory being that such institutions are for the accommodation of poor people. Thus the inducement to invest in corporate stocks is very strong. In most States such stocks are taxable but once, and as the taxes are generally paid by the corporation, the stockholder is relieved from annoyance.

But nowadays the stockholder finds that his security is elusive. He may learn any day that his property has been, or is to be, taken from him; and it does not make much difference whether the process is called stealing or reorganization, or enlargement of the field of the enterprise. True, he does not often lose the whole of his property; but he finds its status impaired. He can no longer dismiss his investments from his mind, as matters that, having been once properly investigated, need no more attention. He must decide whether he will pay an assessment or be "frozen out"; whether he will take other stocks in place of those with which he was satisfied; whether he will surrender stocks for bonds or bonds for stock.

Sometimes he does not need to decide. The matter is settled without consulting him. The holders of the second-mortgage bonds of a great railroad in the Southwest were told not long since that the directors had sold bonds amounting to $30,000,000, which became, in the judgment of some people, practically a prior lien. The stockholders of a great railroad in the South suddenly learned that the directors had decided to issue

bonds to a large amount for the purchase of the stock of a railroad of questionable value. Other instances will suggest themselves to every one. Many of what were known as "investment stocks" have become the footballs of speculators. "Buying for control" now constantly alarms the conservative investor. Before he knows it, men whom he believes unscrupulous and dishonest may have acquired a majority of the stock of a company in which he has a large interest, and he must wait in terror for the announcement of some scheme of plunder.

It is true that the directors of any industrial enterprise must have freedom of action. They must not be hampered when there is a sudden stress, nor be compelled to explain matters in which secrecy is important. But there are well-defined limits to their powers. There are established principles of law, of general application; and there are specific limitations in the charters of corporations. In his recent book, 'Facts and Comments,' Herbert Spencer comments on the disregard of the rights of the smaller number by the majority, and on the submissiveness with which such disregard is accepted. This, he says, is because

> "Freedom in its full power—the power to carry on the activities of life with no greater restrictions than those entailed by the claims of others to like power—is understood by very few. Men who take shares in a company formed for a specific purpose, and then think themselves bound by the vote of a two-thirds majority to undertake some other purpose, do not perceive that they are aggressed upon—do not see that those who have entered into a contract are not bound to do a thing which they have not contracted to do, and that therefore they are wronged."

Mr. Spencer concludes that the doctrine of the unlimited power of rulers, whether nominally despots or representatives of the majority of the people, has so infested the world that few are to be found to resist it. For the present, he thinks there is no probability of anything better, but a probability of something worse; "for the retrograde movement now going on towards the militant social type is inevitably accompanied, not by relaxation of authority, but by enforcement of it."

This is perhaps too gloomy a view; but if we do not presently see a defensive movement on the part of investors whose rights have been impaired by the malfeasance of their trustees, the event may justify Mr. Spencer. These wrongs have taken place on a rising market, and most men do not worry over increased liabilities while they see their stocks quoted at advancing figures. But the time to maintain a right is when it is attacked, and stockholders may well ask themselves if it is not their duty to resist such attacks as have recently been made. The fidelity insurance companies have not yet undertaken to protect stockholders against frauds committed by trustees who have used their fiduciary position for their own gain; but they may presently see their way to enter this field. The small stockholder can generally not afford to bring an action, which is necessarily of the most difficult character, nor are stockholders unacquainted with each other able to combine. Actions by the public prosecutors amount to nothing; there is hardly a case where such an action has really resulted in the punishment of an offender by anything more than a trifling penalty. It may be necessary to require the trustees of corporations to give substantial bonds for the faithful execution of their trusts, and the companies executing such bonds would be obliged to prosecute offenders. It is certainly for the interest of stockholders to hold promoters and members of syndicates to a sharp account; and in this case their duty and interest coincide. What is lacking is the determination to resist aggression.

## *MUNICIPAL LIGHTING.*

The working of the Massachusetts Municipal Lighting Act of 1891 is examined by Mr. A. D. Adams in the June number of the *Political Science Quarterly*. Up to the middle of 1900, thirty-seven cities and towns had voted for municipal ownership, but only seventeen had done more than this. Seven towns have constructed new works, no private plants having occupied the field; nine have bought the works of existing companies. In one case the town refused to buy a private generating plant, and it was moved away. Three towns agreed with the private concerns on terms of purchase and avoided litigation. In six cases the terms of purchase had to be settled by the court. The town of Middleboro bought by agreement a plant which did not pay operating expenses. Hull bought by agreement a plant which earned 3.7 per cent. Hudson bought a plant appraised by commissioners at $15,300, on which sum it paid 7 per cent.; but the plant was not found satisfactory, and a new one was built for $17,000. Wakefield bought a plant appraised at $144,680, on which capital it earned 1.2 per cent. Only Westfield seems to have made a good investment; but the 9.6 per cent. earned by its plant is none too much for interest and depreciation.

This record should certainly be sufficient to cool the ardor for municipal ownership, and most towns will probably wait to see further results of the experiment before trying it themselves. It is the opinion of Mr. Adams that the existing law is responsible for this flagging zeal. The law provides that, if the municipal Government decides to take up the lighting business, it must buy out whatever plants are already devoted to that business, if the owners are willing to sell. In order to prevent compulsion, no rights granted in the highways can be revoked while the question of municipal ownership is pending. Attempts have been made to modify the law, by repealing the clause requiring the purchase of existing plants, and by limiting the price paid to the cost of construction or the cost of replacement. These attempts have failed, but they will no doubt be renewed, and may result in some change in the law.

Superficially, the law may seem too favorable to the existing companies. Why should they be permitted to "unload" their investments on the public; and why should they be paid more than it would cost to replace their plants? The answer to these questions is not simple, but it is to many minds conclusive. In the first place, until within a short time, few supposed that municipal governments were competent to carry on business. Certain matters were necessarily in their charge, but it was not supposed that they would go outside of their routine; nor was their management generally so good as to make it seem desirable to enlarge their responsibilities. Under these circumstances the lighting companies were formed; and they would certainly not have been formed had the Government been regarded as a possible competitor. When business is carried on by any government, it can be carried on at a loss, the deficiency being made up by taxation. But private persons cannot carry on business in this way; if they cannot make a profit, they must stop. A governing body can thus crush competition, and it is the aim of those who believe in municipal ownership to establish municipal monopoly. But to ruin those who had undertaken to furnish light when they could not have expected the Government to compete in the business, seems highly unjust. The grant of rights in the streets and other privileges estops the Government from destroying these rights. The obligation of contracts is practically impaired, and equity would enjoin such a proceeding by a private party. The requirement that the municipality shall buy existing plants is merely a requirement that it shall not destroy their value without compensation.

For another reason this condition is proper. Light can be furnished more economically, as a rule, where only one concern is engaged in the business. The history of competing gas companies is well known. Their competition is illusory; and the community finally has to pay the cost of several plants, instead of one. Either a municipal plant would ruin an existing private plant, or both plants would be paid for by the public. The Legislature wisely prevents this result. The assertion that only the cost of production, or of reproduction, should be allowed as compensation, is

altogether inadmissible. Such a rule might be applied to companies formed hereafter, but it would be highly unjust to existing concerns. The element of good will is, in a growing community, very valuable. A plant is constructed with an eye to the future. It must be made large enough to more than supply the present demand, or it will have to be reconstructed at once. Capitalists discount future dividends. They will carry on an industry at a loss for some time if they are convinced that it will be eventually profitable. The dividends that they forego now they expect to obtain hereafter. Some allowance, however, should be made by investors for the cheapening of production; and the fact that a property has cost a certain sum does not prove that it is worth it, even when taken for public uses. Appraisal under the direction of the court is probably the fairest method of ascertaining value; and if such proceedings cannot be carried on without corruption, municipal ownership will certainly not be exempt from it. We doubt if the Massachusetts statute can be improved, even if it renders municipal ownership unattractive. As to the extent of the desire for it, we cannot regard that as indicated by the size of the petitions in its favor that have been presented.

## *CHAMBERLAIN AND THE PREMIERS.*

When Mr. Chamberlain and the Colonial Premiers assembled on Monday week, it was apparently a case of either side desiring the other to take the initiative. "Tirez les premiers, Messieurs," said Mr. Chamberlain, with true Fontenoy gallantry. But the others, not to be outdone, asked him what *he* had to propose. According to the dispatches, he had very little to suggest except "problems." But no empire that we know of —or republic, either—has to go hunting problems. Solutions are what we are all short of; and it seems to be agreed that Mr. Chamberlain was, for him, singularly halting and almost tongue-tied in the whole matter of preferential trade with the colonies.

The reason why he may have felt a certain embarrassment in speaking on this subject, is not far to seek. He was meeting with the colonists only a few days after the Chancellor of the Exchequer had, in the House of Commons, given the finishing blow to the whole scheme. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was understood to have been outvoted on the grain duties, and the inference was that they were imposed as a peculiarly Chamberlainish plan for striking a bargain with the colonies. Indeed, Sir Michael himself had used language that looked that way. He had spoken vaguely of his willingness to make "a sacrifice" in order to promote trade with the colonies. But just when the talk was most confident about preferential tariffs within the empire, the Chancellor, who was expected to bless the project, rose to curse it. When charged, on June 18, with holding the same views as Prime Minister Seddon of New Zealand, he broke in, "I entirely repudiate that"; and later on said that the rumor of the Government's intention to lay discriminating taxes on imports was "an extraordinary delusion," and that "it is not our policy to endeavor to encourage trade with our colonies by initiating a tariff war with our largest customers." If, said Sir Michael with unfeeling sarcasm, the other colonies wanted to imitate Canada and give British goods a preferential tariff without any *quid pro quo*, he was not the man to say them nay; but as for the notion that England thought of changing the principles upon which her fiscal system was based, "I entirely disavow," he said, "any idea of that kind."

Mr. Chamberlain must have considered this excessively rude, coming as it did on the heels of his own speech at Birmingham. In that he had sneered at "adherence to old and antiquated methods" of building up international trade, and said, alluding directly to the grain duties, and the chance they gave to favor colonial trade at the expense of that of other countries:

> "If by adherence to economic pedantry, to old shibboleths, we are to lose those opportunities of closer union which are offered us by our colonies, if we are to put aside occasions now within our grasp, if we do not take every chance in our power to keep British trade in British hands, I am certain that we shall deserve the disasters which will infallibly come upon us."

After this, it must have been disheartening enough to have an economic pedant turn up in the person of Mr. Chamberlain's own Chancellor of the Exchequer, to damn his scheme out of hand.

It is an old dream of Mr. Chamberlain's, however, and he will doubtless continue to strive for its fulfilment with all the varied resources at his command. As long ago as 1896 he was holding out to the colonies the bait of an exclusive production of the "articles of enormous consumption" in England. In return, there was to be a removal by the colonies of "protective duties upon any product of British labor." Naturally, the first part of the programme has seemed fascinating to the colonies. One of the mottoes among the Canadian decorations designed for the coronation was, "Canada, the Granary of the Empire." Premier Seddon had no sooner landed in England than he began to talk about "a self-sustaining empire," in which the colonies should supply "all the foodstuffs." But it is obvious that the proposal has not been able to endure discussion. The "old shibboleths" of political economy, which so excite Mr. Chamberlain's disgust, are simply an embodiment of the wisdom garnered by long experience in international trade; and it is the voice of the experienced English ship-owner, the practical English manufacturer, and the English exporter that has made itself heard, and that has prevailed against the gaudy project on which Mr. Chamberlain has set his heart, and upon which he has almost staked his political fortunes. Sir Robert Giffen has buried it under an avalanche of fact and argument; and the biographer of Cobden, Mr. John Morley, has attacked it in and out of Parliament with all of Cobden's earnestness and logic and with more than Cobden's eloquence. One of Mr. Morley's happiest strokes was when, in picturing the certain decay of English trade as a result of even a disguised protection, he said, in clever allusion to Prime Minister Seddon:

> "You well know Macaulay's famous picture of the New Zealander—the traveller from New Zealand—standing in a vast solitude, and from the broken arches of London Bridge sketching the ruins of St. Paul's. What a pang would go through the heart of that New Zealander, when the time comes, if he thought that this mournful and dismal solitude, this breakdown of a great city, had been due to a policy adopted in consequence of the masterful blandishments of a New Zealander."

In two words, the argument against the fair-seeming proposal of preferential trade is that, to "prefer" the colonies is, in the act, to discriminate against other nations; that the trade of the latter is worth more than that of the former could possibly be; and that to tax, directly or indirectly, food and raw materials is to disable English manufacturers from competing in a world-market where they already experience severe competition. These truths appear to be so firmly fixed in the minds of leading Englishmen, and of the majority of the Cabinet itself, that we are likely to hear little more of the trumpeted scheme of an all-British tariff and an Imperial trade. The Premiers at the Conference can exchange only helpless platitudes on this subject, and will devote their time and strength to projects of intercolonial communications and Imperial defence. Even as to those, the prospect is that the proceedings will be largely Platonic.

## MR. BRYCE ON THE RELATION BETWEEN WHITES AND BLACKS.

OXFORD, June 20, 1902.

> "The tremendous problem presented by the Southern States of America, and the likelihood that similar problems will have to be solved elsewhere—as, for instance, in South Africa and the Philippine Isles—bid us ask, What should be the duty and the policy of a dominant race where it cannot fuse with a Backward race?"

These words are taken from Mr. Bryce's Romanes Lecture on "The Relations of the Advanced and the Backward Races of Mankind." To suggest an answer to this "tremendous problem" is, if not exactly the aim, yet certainly the effect, of the last and to my mind the most important of Mr. Bryce's utterances.

Nothing he has written or spoken is, whether one agrees with his views or not, likely to produce so much effect as the address delivered at Oxford on the 7th of

June. Of its importance and its weightiness it is hardly possible to speak in terms that are too strong. The address raises in a clear form the most perplexing question of the time. It happily raises this question (which may in no short time divide political parties in England) before the treatment of backward races has been forced upon the active attention of the English public and become involved in all the confusion of partisanship; and Mr. Bryce speaks with authority. He is in some sense an expert witness and an expert free from bias. He has devoted life-long attention to political and social inquiries. He has collected an infinity of knowledge from the storehouse of history. He possesses an unrivalled acquaintance with the actual conditions, as far as they can become known to a traveller, of different and distant countries. When he speaks of India, of the Mohammedan world, of Russia, of the Southern States of America, or of Mexico, he speaks of lands which he has seen and with the inhabitants whereof he is intimate. He is, further, nothing of a bookworm. To the knowledge gained from books, from thought, and from travel he adds the equally valuable knowledge of mankind gained from participation in the public life of England. When we add to all this that, throughout the United States, every word he prints is sure to be read by thousands of readers who will receive his teaching with a strong and perfectly legitimate prejudice in favor of the teacher, one may feel perfectly certain that his views with regard to the relation between blacks and whites will not fall to the ground without effect.

Mr. Bryce's policy, if I may use the term, rests on three principles which the whole of his lecture more or less supports and illustrates. First: The sentiment or prejudice of the whites against the intermixture of blood (or intermarriage) between whites and blacks is, at any rate where the whites belong to the Anglo-Saxon race, so strong that it cannot and perhaps ought not to be overcome. He apparently assumes it to be certain that, neither in the Southern States of America nor in South Africa, will the difficulty of adjusting the relation between whites and negroes ever be removed by fusion. This is a state of things which statesmen must accept as a fact, and recognize it, therefore, in their political arrangements.

Secondly. Fusion or intermarriage between races so widely different as are blacks and whites produces, on the whole, unsatisfactory results; to this statement there are, as Mr. Bryce is careful to insist, occasional and striking exceptions. Still, policy must be built on what is usual, not upon what is exceptional, in the course of things; and—what is of supreme importance—the unsatisfactory result produced by the mixture of whites and negroes, or of whites and Hindus, or of the American aborigines and negroes, goes a good way to supply a moral justification for the condemnation, by Anglo-Saxon sentiment, of intermarriage between whites and blacks. For "the matter ought to be regarded from the side neither of white nor of black, but of the future of mankind at large"; and for the future of mankind it is absolutely vital that "some races should be maintained at the highest level of efficiency, because the work they can do for thought, and art, and letters, for scientific discovery, and for raising the standard of conduct, will determine the general progress of humanity." If, therefore, we can suppose the blood of the races which are now most advanced to be diluted, and, so to speak, deteriorated by the blood of those of the most backward, there might be an irreparable loss to the world at large.

Thirdly. Sound policy must be based on the recognition of the unconquerable and probably justifiable aversion entertained by men of English race to the fusion by intermarriage of the white and the black races, combined with the recognition of the equal claim to justice of every man, whatever his race or color. This principle would, if I understand Mr. Bryce rightly, lead to the following consequences. Intermarriage between whites and blacks would be discouraged, if not absolutely forbidden. The line of conduct proposed

"dissuades any attempt to mix races so diverse as are the white Europeans and the negroes. The wisest men among the colored people of the Southern States of America do not desire the intermarriage of their race with the whites. They prefer to develop it as a separate people on its own lines, though, of course, by the help of the whites. . . . [The negro race] will cultivate self-respect better by standing on its own feet than by seeking blood alliances with whites, who would usually be of the meaner sort."

The negro race would, however, acquire complete legal—which is a different thing from political—equality.

"On the legal side of this question one thing is clear: the Backward race ought to receive all such private civil rights as it can use for its own benefit. It ought to have as full protection in person and property, as complete an access to all professions and occupations, as the more advanced race enjoys."

Political equality, in the democratic sense of the term, should hardly be aimed at; but,

"as regards political rights, race and blood should not be made the ground of discrimination. Where the bulk of the colored race are obviously unfit for political power, a qualification based on property and education might be established which should permit the upper section of the race to enjoy the suffrage. Such a qualification would doubtless exclude some of the poorest and most ignorant whites, and might on that ground be resisted. But it is better to face this difficulty than to wound and alienate the whole of the colored race by putting them without the pale of civic functions and duties."

Lastly, social relations must be left mainly subject to the control of public opinion:

"As regards social relations, law can do but little save in the way of expressing the view that the State takes of how its members should behave to one another. Good feeling and good manners cannot be imposed by statute. The best hope lies in the slow growth of a better sentiment."

Here, then, we have Mr. Bryce's policy. Its essential elements are the substitution of friendly separation for any attempt at fusion between the two races; the insuring to the blacks, not only in name, but in fact, of every private civil right which can be claimed by any citizen; the placing of political rights on a basis which, while it makes it possible for a few negroes of exceptional ability to take part in public life, secures, probably for years to come, the political predominance of the white race; and, lastly, the gradual amelioration of social relations between the advanced race and the backward race by the slow growth of better public feeling and opinion.

The "policy of isolation" has much to recommend it. It depends, however, for its moral justification on the assumption that "the mixture of races very dissimilar, and especially of European whites with blacks, tends rather to lower than to improve the resultant stock." But the validity of this assumption is disputed by some competent judges, and is not easy to reconcile with some of the phenomena—such, for example, as the genius occasionally displayed by men of mixed race, or the eminence attained in Mexico by leaders who have certainly in their veins a strain of Indian blood. Indeed, our author himself writes: "The subject of race mixture is one of extreme interest, to which, as far as I know, comparatively few data for positive conclusions exist"; and, if this be so, the policy of isolation or separation is at best an experiment that depends for its success on the soundness of a theory which itself rests upon a foundation of dubious strength. But this general objection must not be pressed too far. Appearances suggest the conclusion that race-mixture may generally produce evil, and the conviction of whites that intermarriage between themselves and persons of color can hardly be tolerated, is itself a fact of primary importance, which may establish in the eyes of statesmen the prudence of discouraging the fusion of widely differing races. Another general remark is, that Mr. Bryce's language as to "social relations" is extremely vague. "Good feeling and good manners cannot be imposed by statute"; but then, law ought to do "something in the way of expressing the view the State takes of how its members should behave to one another." The difficulty lies in reconciling these two aspects of law. No statute can force the whites of a Southern State to enter into intimate relations with their colored neighbors; but is the law to enact that whites and blacks shall not ride in the same carriage, or to tolerate the refusal of an innkeeper to supply a room to a gentleman of color? My object is not to answer these questions, but only to show that they and like inquiries need answering. The line between social and legal equality is in truth hard to draw. The formal recognition of equal legal rights when the real enjoyment thereof is denied, increases instead of lessening the irritation of the race which suffers from its denial.

Dismissing, however, altogether the more general criticisms on the policy of isolation, we shall find that it is open to at least four specific objections.

First. It permanently stereotypes the rigid division of the members of one community into two absolutely separate though it may be not actually hostile bodies. Is this sort of separation really compatible with the existence of a State, the members of which all possess equal legal rights, and all of whom, on certain requirements as to education and property being fulfilled, take their share in political life? It is difficult to answer this inquiry in the affirmative. The answer becomes the more perplexing when we note that the arrangements which are intended to insure the political predominance of the more advanced race, will, as time goes on, cease to be efficacious. Almost all blacks will, if fairly treated, come ultimately to possess the amount of education which may be re-

quired as a condition for exercising electoral rights; and in any country which is prosperous, the colored population who enjoy the benefit of equal laws and of fair treatment, will, in no long time, become possessed of a good deal of property. It is vain to suppose that either the educational test or the property qualification, if fairly worked, will permanently, in a modern State, at once admit the great body of the whites to political power and exclude from it the great body of the blacks. The political arrangements proposed by Mr. Bryce in regard to the suffrage are in themselves wise; they may produce good effects for a time. This is no small matter, for the lapse of time may educate the negroes and mitigate the racial prejudices of the whites. But constitutional devices which are ingenious and beneficial are, after all, merely devices for tiding over a period of transition.

Secondly: Social separation, combined with fair treatment of the negroes, will, it is of course hoped, as time goes on, mitigate or remove racial hostility. Every one interested in the progress of humanity must wish that this hope may turn out well founded. Unfortunately, the very circumstances which recommend the separation of two races who live together and are intended to be contented citizens of a common country, forbid the expectation that the policy of isolation will produce beneficial effects. Is it in accordance with human nature that a dominant class who hate the idea of intermixture of any kind with a race whom they hold to be their inferiors, will really and fairly allow to this race full legal equality? Grant that the blacks will obtain "full protection in person and property," though this is conceding a good deal; does any one really suppose that, under the system of isolation, they will obtain "as complete access to all professions and occupations, as wide a power of entering into contracts, as ready an access to the courts, as the more advanced race enjoys"? Neither knowledge of human nature nor a fair reading of history warrants any confidence in the answer which a philanthropist would wish to give to these inquiries. Rigid separation fosters that very pride of race and that contempt for men who, on the ground of color, are counted as inferiors, which statesmanship and humanity alike wish to remove; the considerations which justify the policy of separation will prevent the exercise of that perfect justice which alone is likely to make that policy beneficial.

Thirdly. The rigid separation between whites and blacks is hard to reconcile, not so much with the dogmas as with the essential character of Christianity. There is neither Greek nor Jew, circumcision nor uncircumcision, barbarian, Scythian, bondman, freeman; but Christ is all and in all. These words embody the essence of Christian faith; can they by any possibility be made consistent with customs, more rigid than law, forbidding men of different color to join together in the worship of the same God? In the long run, either the doctrine of brotherhood preached by the Church must break down the social separation maintained by the State, or the moral and intellectual inequality embodied in the customs of the State must reduce the sentiment of Christian brotherhood to an ineffective and, from its acknowledged unreality, hurtful dogma. This remark does not, be it noted, necessarily apply to the prohibition of intermarriage. If the conviction should ever become firmly established, among blacks no less than among whites, that fusion between the two races is an evil to each, moral sentiment will, as in other cases, rightly conform to well-established physical facts. But, though the ultimate prevalence of such a conviction is possible, it is by no means certain, and the possibility depends upon the complete establishment of a principle the truth whereof is still a matter of debate.

Fourthly. The policy of isolation is inconsistent with the fundamental assumption of democracy. The dogma of human equality in the only sense in which it can be entertained at all by any reasonable man, is the cornerstone of democratic government. It does not, of course, mean that all men are equal, either morally or intellectually: for the immense differences between one man and another, in both physical and intellectual power, are patent to any one who is not the slave to some mere formula. Nor is it possible for any thoughtful person to believe, as did thinkers of great power during the eighteenth century, that these differences are due wholly to circumstances which can be got rid of by wiser laws or by better institutions. But, though no modern democrat who has thought seriously on social and political questions can, at the present day, believe in the "equality of mankind" in the strict sense of that term, every supporter of democratic institutions does believe and feel that, from a political point of view, the characteristics which men have in common are of far more importance than the features, marked though they may be, in which they differ from one another. Democracy depends upon the importance attached to the similarities, as surely as aristocracy depends upon the importance attached to the differences, of human nature; and wherever democratic institutions flourish, the dogma of equality, rationally understood, roughly corresponds with the actual state of society. But the strict separation in any community of whites from blacks emphasizes in the strongest manner the vital importance of the difference of color. It goes in reality further than this, and declares that, in the eye of the State, one class of citizens does not stand on an equality with another class of citizens. A system of caste, whatever its merits, is inconsistent with the democratic spirit, and it passes belief that caste and democracy can in reality coexist.

Nor can this assertion be disposed of by pointing to the success of the Anglo-Indian administrative system, under which different races, while standing apart from one another, have enjoyed equal civil rights. The success of English administration is in no way due to democracy. British India is not governed on democratic principles; government *for* the people is a very different thing from government *by* the people. The government of England, it is true, has become more or less democratic, but the popular government of England is Imperial government as regards India; and the credit fairly due to English democracy is that, while popular opinion has vaguely desired that India should be governed with justice, popular wisdom or diffidence or indifference has confided the administration of British India to experts. The whole relation, moreover, of Englishmen to the natives of India is modified by the physical inability of Europeans to settle there. The country is governed by Englishmen, but it is inhabited by native races.

To summarize the objections which Mr. Bryce's proposals excite in the mind of a friendly critic is a very different thing from asserting that these objections are decisive. The general drift of the policy he recommends strikes me, in so far as I can venture to have an opinion on the subject, as preëminently wise, if it be looked upon as a scheme for meeting fairly the immediate difficulties of the moment. What criticism suggests is that, if one may assume the soundness of the principles on which his suggestions are based, they sketch out a prudent policy of transition, but do not afford anything like a final solution of the negro problem. A. V. Dicey.

## THE LATE LORD ACTON.

London, June 23, 1902.

In Lord Acton, who has just died (June 19), at Tegern See in Bavaria, Europe has lost one of its most learned men, and England one of its most unique literary figures. He belonged to an old Roman Catholic family of Shropshire, a branch of which had gone to southern Italy, where his grandfather, Gen. Acton, had been chief minister of the King of Naples in the great war, during the period when the Bourbon dynasty maintained itself in Sicily, by the help of the British fleet, while all Italy lay under the heel of Napoleon. His father, Sir Ferdinand Acton, married a German lady, heiress of the ancient and famous house of Dalberg, one of the great families of the middle Rhineland; so John Emmerich Dalberg Acton was born half a German, and connected by blood with the highest aristocracy of Germany. He was educated at Oscott, one of the two chief Roman Catholic colleges of England, under Dr. Wiseman, afterwards Archbishop of Westminster and Cardinal; but the most powerful influence in the development of his mind and his principles was that of Dr. von Döllinger, with whom he lived and studied for some years at Munich. He sat for a short time in the House of Commons, as member first for Carlow (1859), and was afterwards elected for Bridgnorth (1865), but lost his seat (which he had gained by one vote only) on a scrutiny. In those days it was no easy matter for a Roman Catholic to secure an English seat; so in 1869 Mr. Gladstone had him created a peer. Though he took no prominent part in Parliamentary life, in either house, he continued to be all his life keenly interested in politics, and was for many years one of Mr. Gladstone's most trusted confidential advisers. It was, indeed, believed that on at least one occasion Mr. Gladstone wished to place him in an important office; but political exigencies made this impossible, and the only public post he ever held was that of Lord in Waiting in the Ministry of 1892. In this capacity he was brought into frequent contact with Queen Victoria, who felt the warmest respect and admiration for him. He was one of the very few persons round her who knew the courts of Continental Europe, and could discuss with her from direct

knowledge the men who figured in those courts.

Unlike most English Roman Catholics, he was a strong Liberal—a Liberal of that orthodox type which prevailed from 1852 till 1885. He was also a convinced Home-Ruler, and had, indeed, adopted the principle of Home Rule for Ireland before Mr. Gladstone himself adopted it. His liberalism was based on the love of freedom for its own sake, and on the belief that freedom is the best foundation for the stability of a constitution and the happiness of a people. This was, he used to say, one of the great lessons which he had learnt from history. He applied it in ecclesiastical as well as in political affairs. At the time of the Vatican Council of 1870, he was, though a layman, prominent among those who constituted the opposition maintained by the Liberal section of the Roman Catholic Church to the affirmation of the dogma of papal infallibility. His wonderfully full and accurate knowledge of ecclesiastical history was placed at the disposal of the prelates, such as Archbishop Dupanloup, Bishop Strossmayer, and Archbishop Conolly (of Halifax, N. S.), who combated the Ultramontane party in the animated and protracted debates which illumined that Oecumenical Council. One, at least, of the treatises and many of the letters in the press which the Council called forth, were from his pen, and he was recognized by the Ultramontanes, and in particular by Archbishop Manning, as being, along with Döllinger, their most formidable opponent. As every one knows, the Infallibilists triumphed, and the schism which led to the formation of the Old Catholic Church in Germany and Switzerland, was the result. Döllinger was excommunicated; but against Lord Acton, since he was a layman, no action was taken, and he remained all his life a member of the Roman communion, while adhering to the views he had advocated in 1870.

With this close hold upon practical life and this constant interest in the politics of the world, especially of England and the United States, no one could be less like that cloistered student who is commonly taken as the typical man of learning. But Lord Acton was a miracle of learning. Of the sciences of Nature and their practical applications in the arts he had indeed no more knowledge than any cultivated man of the world is expected to possess. But of all the so-called "human subjects" his mastery was unequalled. Learning was the business of his life. He was gifted with a singularly tenacious memory. His industry was untiring. Wherever he was—in London, at Cannes in winter, at Tegern See in summer, at Windsor or Osborne with the Queen; latterly, till his health failed, at Cambridge during the University terms—he never worked less than eight hours a day. Yet, even after making every allowance for his memory and his industry, his friends stood amazed at the range and exactness of his knowledge. It was as various as it was profound. It covered the whole field of history, both civil and ecclesiastical, and was especially full and minute as respects the Renaissance and Reformation periods and the centuries thence down to our own. It included not only the older theology, but modern Biblical criticism. It included metaphysics; and not only metaphysics in the more special sense, but the abstract side of economics and that philosophy of Law on which the Germans set so much store. Most of the prominent figures who have led the march of inquiry in these subjects, men like Ranke and Fustel de Coulanges in history, Wilhelm Roscher in economic science, Adolf Harnack in theology, were his personal friends, and he could meet them as an equal on their own ground. On one occasion he was a guest at a small party in London where the late Bishop Creighton, who was then writing his History of the Popes, and the late Prof. Robertson Smith, the first Hebrew and Arabic scholar in Britain, had been invited to meet him. The conversation turned first upon the times of Pope Leo the Tenth, and then upon recent controversies regarding the dates of the books of the Old Testament, and it soon appeared that Lord Acton knew as much about the former as Dr. Creighton, and as much about the latter as Robertson Smith. The Constitutional history of the United States is a topic far removed from those philosophical and ecclesiastical or theological lines of inquiry to which most of his time had been given; yet he knew it perhaps more thoroughly than any other living European, and he continued to read all the books of importance dealing with it which from time to time were published. So, indeed, he kept abreast of nearly all the literature of possible utility bearing on history and political theory that appeared in Europe or America, reading much which his less diligent or less eager friends thought scarcely worthy of his perusal. And it need hardly be said that his friends found him an invaluable guide to the literature of any subject. In the sphere of history more especially, one might safely assume that a book which he did not know was not worth knowing, while he was often able to indicate, as being the right book to consult, some work of which the friend who consulted him, albeit not unversed in the subject, had never heard. He had at one time four libraries—the largest at his family seat, Aldenham in Shropshire, others at Tegern See, at Cannes, and in London; and he could usually tell in which of these the particular book he named was to be found. Unlike most men who value their libraries, he was fond of lending books, and would sometimes put a friend to shame by asking some weeks afterwards what the latter thought of the volumes he had almost forced on the borrower, and which the borrower had not found time to read.

Vast as his stores of knowledge were, they were known only to the few who were intimate with him. It was not merely that he, as Tennyson said of Edmund Lushington, "bore all that weight of learning lightly, like a flower." No one could have known in general society that he had any weight of learning to bear. He seemed to be merely a highly cultivated and agreeable man of the world, interested in letters and in politics, but quite as willing (perhaps more willing) to listen as to talk. In a large company he seldom put forth the fulness of his powers; it was in familiar talk with persons whose tastes resembled his own that the extraordinary finesse and polish of his mind revealed themselves. His critical taste was not only delicate, but exacting; his appreciations leaned to the side of severity. No one applied a more stringent moral standard to the conduct of men in public affairs. He insisted upon this, in his inaugural lecture at Cambridge, as the historian's first duty. But in estimating the value of literary work he was also hard to satisfy. His ideal, both as respected thoroughness in substance and finish in form, was unusually high, and he noted every failure to reach it. No one appreciated merit more cordially. No one spoke with warmer admiration of such distinguished historians and theologians as those just named. But the extreme precision of his thinking and the fastidiousness of his taste gave a tinge of austerity to his judgment. His opinions were peculiarly instructive and illuminative to Englishmen, because he was only half an Englishman, as well in blood as in his training and mental habits. He viewed our insular literature and politics with the detachment not only of a Roman Catholic among Protestants, of a pupil of Döllinger and Roscher among Oxford and Cambridge men, but also of a citizen of the world, whose mastery of history and philosophy had given him an unusually wide outlook over mankind at large.

The passion for acquiring knowledge which his German education had fostered ended by becoming a snare to him, because it checked his productive powers. It absorbed so much of his time that little was left for literary composition. It made him think that he could not write on a subject till he had read everything, or nearly everything, that others had written about it. It developed the habit of making extracts from the books he read—a habit which took the form of accumulating small slips of paper on which these quotations were written in his exquisitely neat and regular hand, the slips being arranged in cardboard boxes according to their subjects. He had many hundreds of these boxes; and though much of their contents must no doubt be valuable, the time spent in copying and arranging the essence of the books whence they came, would have been better spent in giving to the world the ideas which they had helped to evoke in his own mind. When one read some article he had written, garnished and perhaps overloaded with citations, one often felt that his own part was better, both in substance and in form, than the passages which he had culled from his predecessors. One of the secrets of historical composition is to know what to neglect, since in our time it has become impossible to exhaust the literature of most subjects, and, as respects modern times, to exhaust even the original authorities. Lord Acton was unwilling to neglect anything; and his passion for completeness drew him into a policy fit only for one who could expect to live three lives of mortal men.

It was this somewhat overstrained conscientiousness, coupled with the almost impossibly high ideal of finish and form which he set before himself, that made him less and less disposed to literary production. No man of first-rate powers has in our time left so little by which posterity may judge those powers. In his early life, when for a time he edited the *Home and Foreign Review*, he wrote pretty frequently; and even between 1868 and 1890 he contributed to the press some few historical essays and a number of anonymous letters. But the aversion to creation seemed to grow on him. About 1890 he so far yielded to the urgency of a few friends as to promise to reissue a number of his essays in a volume, but, after he had spent several years in

rewriting and polishing these essays, he abandoned the scheme altogether. In 1882 he had already drawn out a plan for a comprehensive history of Liberty; and those who were privileged to hear him talk of the way in which he meant to treat that splendid theme, know what it might have become in his hands. But this plan also he dropped, because the more he read with a view to undertaking it the more he wished to read, and the larger did the enterprise seem to loom up before him. With him, as with so many men who cherish high ideals, the Better proved to be the enemy of the Good.

His literary style suffered in his later days from the copiousness of the interspersed citations and from the overfulness and subtlety of the thought, which occasionally led to obscurity. But when he handled a topic in which learning was not required, his style was singularly clear, pointed, and incisive. Some years ago he wrote in one of our monthly magazines a short article upon the late Lord Houghton (Mr. Monckton Milnes), which showed how admirable a master he was of polished diction and penetrating analysis, and made one wish that he had more frequently consented to dash off work in a quick way.

To the work of a university professor he came too late to acquire the art of fluent and forcible oral discourse, nor was the character of his mind, with its striving after a flawless exactitude of statement, altogether suited for the function of presenting broad summaries of facts to a youthful audience. His predecessor in the Cambridge chair of history, Sir John Seeley, with far less knowledge, far less subtlety, and far less originality, had in larger measure the gift of oral exposition. But the influence of Lord Acton's character and method, the impression produced by the amplitude of his views, by the range of his learning, by the liberality of his spirit and his unfailing devotion to truth and to truth alone, was very great and very fruitful in the university. His lectures (read from MS.) were models, in their way, of narrative informed by fulness of thought.

To most men he seemed reserved as well as detached. He avoided publicity and popularity with the tranquil dignity of one for whom the world of knowledge and speculation was more than sufficient. But he was a most loyal friend, affectionate to his intimates, gracious in his manners, blameless in all the relations of life. Comparatively few of his countrymen knew his name, and those who did probably knew him best as the confidant of Mr. Gladstone and as the most remarkable instance of a sincere and pious Roman Catholic who was equally a Liberal in politics and in theology. But those who had been admitted to his friendship recognized him as one of the finest intelligences of his generation—an unsurpassed, and indeed a scarcely rivalled, master of every subject which he touched.

# Correspondence.

## THE EXCUSE FOR DEWEY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I suggest that the statement in your issue of the 3d inst., in regard to "the spurious character of the so-called battle of Manila," is hardly fair to Admiral Dewey and the commanders of the American land forces? In a certain sense the battle was a sham, but this was not their fault. By the Spanish military law, as I understand, a commander who surrenders a post without a fight, no matter how hopeless it may be, is punished with death. To show that this rule is not a dead letter, I may state that I was informed by Capt. C. H. Davis, U. S. N., who was in command of the naval force which took Ponce, that, although the Spanish troops there were very few, and utterly powerless to protect the town against bombardment, their commander was with great difficulty induced by the civil authorities to withdraw, in consequence of Capt. Davis's threat to bombard unless the town were immediately surrendered. Although a refusal to withdraw the troops would only have led to needless slaughter and destruction of property, the Spanish commander was condemned to death, and it was only in consequence of a very strong influence in his behalf, backed by Capt. Davis's positive statement that he had intended to fulfil his threat, that the sentence was commuted to imprisonment—for life, I think.

Of course, from a humanitarian standpoint, the Spanish Governor-General should have surrendered without insisting on the formality of an attack, and should have taken his death punishment like a Christian, instead of sacrificing other men's lives to save his own; but then, Spaniards are rarely humanitarians. The American officers were not, however, responsible for the Spaniard's lack of humanity. He would not surrender the town without an attack, although he would agree to do so after the attack had reached a certain point. The time had come to take Manila, and, if it was to be taken, an attack in force was inevitable. Had the cable been working, the American officers could have been informed of the protocol, in which case there would have been no attack; but it was their duty to go ahead until they received orders to the contrary, and the Spanish Governor-General left them no choice.

Yours truly, Charles C. Binney.

Philadelphia, July 5, 1902.

## OXFORD AND THE RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As your excellent article in No. 1928 has done me the honor to allude to my anticipations (in the May *Fortnightly*) of the effects of the Rhodes foundation in America, a few words of comment may perhaps be permitted me. In the first place, I hardly "advocated" the giving of Rhodes scholarships to graduates. I merely said that *if* Americans were consulted, they probably would be so given; if they are not consulted, any scheme that is adopted will probably prove a failure. Again, admitting that their age would differentiate the Rhodes scholars from the ordinary undergraduates, it hardly seems to follow that they would have to form "a separate colony" in any invidious sense. The social life of Oxford is varied enough to afford congenial society to every taste.

On the other hand, your article seems entirely right as to the relations of the colleges towards the Rhodes scholars. They will be judged on their individual merits as men, and those colleges which are most attractive will have the first choice and will admit those whom they want. No college will want too many of them, and all colleges will want some. Thus the problem of distribution will solve itself, without any official regulation or vain attempt to dictate to the perfectly independent authorities of the colleges.

F. C. S. Schiller.

Corpus Christi College, Oxford, June 27, 1902.

## THE HARVARD COMMENCEMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This year's commencement at Harvard was a day to cause grief to all her sons who have dear at heart her fair fame and her honorable record as a seat of learning. Snobbery, commonplace, and mutual and self-admiration reigned supreme. The ticket which every graduate was rightly required to carry and show was dishonored by policemen at various points where there could be no question of the safety of the President of the United States; but he was somewhere near, as if he were the Sultan or great Cæsar. Can anything surpass the bad taste of President Eliot's words describing Charles Proteus Steinmetz as "the foremost expert in applied electricity of this country, and therefore of the world"? After dinner (and such a dinner!), and after President Eliot had compared 1892 (why not 1872?) with 1902, to the tune of "Alone I done it," the crowded tables resolved themselves into a political meeting. President Roosevelt chose that time and place to make an *apologiam pro vitâ suâ*. He can hardly be so simple as to suppose that his assertion that Wood and Root are good men and have done right, convinced a single person who considers Wood to have made wrongful use of money, and Root to have kept back facts which the whole country ought to have known. Fortunately, there were redeeming features — Governor Crane's few simple words, and the reception of Roosevelt's tribute to the junior Senator from Massachusetts. And most delightful was it that, at the singing of "Fair Harvard" in front of Holworthy, nearly every man in range took off his hat. This went far, but could not wholly atone for the mistakes of the day, in the view of a middle-aged alumnus.

A. L. T.

Boston, July 4, 1902.

# Notes.

Henry Holt & Co. announce the second volume of Prof. J. P. Gordy's 'Political Parties in the United States'; a translation, by Dr. William Fairley, of Seignobos's 'History of the Roman People'; and a 'Syuopsis of Animal Classification,' by Prof. Wilder of Smith College.

'The Unspeakable Scot,' by T. W. H. Crosland, is in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

It is with a pleasant surprise that we receive from Aiken, S. C., a very tasteful prospectus of the Palmetto Press (W. L. Washburn), announcing a reproduction, in two limited editions, of Urian Oakes's 'An Elegie upon the Death of the Reverend Mr. Thomas Shepard,' following the form and spelling of the copy of the first edition

in the Library of Brown University. Mr. Shepard was "Late Teacher of the Church at Charlstown in New England," and his death occurred in 1649. Oakes died fourth president of Harvard College in 1681.

'Why My Photographs Are Bad,' by Charles M. Taylor, jr., a practical guide to the amateur, is to be published by George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia.

Among forthcoming publications of the Oxford University Press we select for mention 'The Part of Rheims in the Making of the English Bible,' by the Rev. J. G. Carleton; and 'Une Lignée de Poëtes,' by Charles Bonnier.

Kingsley's 'Westward Ho!' in two volumes, Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus,' and a special translation of Boethius, 'The Consolation of Philosophy'—the first into English having been King Alfred's about 890—are among the fresher outputs of the Dent-Macmillan Temple Classics. Mr. W. V. Cooper, B.A., King's College, Cambridge, is the author of this latest version. Portraits, a view of the rectory and church at Eversley, and an Elzevir frontispiece representing the wheel of fortune, adorn these captivating little books.

'Jane Eyre' begins the complete edition of Charlotte Brontë's works bearing the imprint of Dodd, Mead & Co. In Dr. Robertson Nicoll's candid and excellent introduction, some scraps of evidence are offered in support of the suggestion "that in Charlotte Brontë's conception of love there are distinct traces of Harriet Martineau's forgotten novel of 'Deerbrook.'" Appended to this volume is a hitherto unpublished fragment, 'The Moores,' written during her married life, and there will be more such to come, we are told. The print is as large as this bulky work permits.

The same publisher's Thackeray proceeds with 'The Newcomes' in three volumes, with Walter Brock's editing and cleverly designed illustrations by Charles E. Brock.

Mr. William Wale's dictionary of quotations, 'What Great Men Have Said about Great Men' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), has an obvious utility, but we must as little expect proportion as completeness in such a collection. There is, for example, but one "saying" for Lincoln—Walt Whitman's, in prose; yet Lowell had just been drawn upon for Lessing, and heads nine sayings about Longfellow, besides contributing one of three on himself. Under Emerson we might wish to find Matthew Arnold. Arnold himself has apparently not been talked about by his peers. An index of the critics and panegyrists quoted would, we think, have been worth while.

We have met with no better guide-book to the Lake District than that entitled 'The Lake Counties,' by W. G. Collingwood (E. P. Dutton & Co.). It is one of Dent's "County Guides" series, under the general editorship of Mr. G. A. B. Dewar, and meets the most fastidious requirements of type, paper, weight, etc. It is light in the hand, though nearly 400 pages in length, and has eight separate maps, besides a general map of the region in a pocket. The idea of having a set of articles by experts attached to the eight "Itineraries" is a very happy one; there are ten of these, dealing with the natural history and sport of the Lake Counties, three of them written by members of the Severn family, whose close relation to Ruskin and the life of the dalesmen is well known. The illustrations, by Cuthbert Rigby, though not as good as those of Mr. Pennell in a similar work, are pleasing enough. Mr. Collingwood is a resident of the Coniston district, and was an intimate friend of Ruskin. He writes with complete knowledge of the legends and antiquities of the dales and lakes and in an entertaining style. No tourist to the Lakes should neglect this convenient little volume.

'Nature Portraits' (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is a folio collection of pictures of birds, mammals, insects, and fish by various nature photographers, with a short accompanying text by the editor of *Country Life in America*. The illustrations, many of which have been published before, are excellent. They are largely the work of Mr. Dugmore and Mr. Carlin. One photograph, by the way, labelled "Pocket Gopher," does not appear to represent that animal. The text, which has no direct connection with the pictures, will be of some interest to teachers and parents who are considering pedagogical problems of "nature study." It challenges certain points of view which, if early impressed upon a child, affect his future relations with the world of nature. In a series of sections, it discusses the old attitude towards wild animals versus the new, as expressed in the new method of hunting with the camera and the new movement for protection; condemns the attempt to explain as distinctly useful each structure or character in an organism; defends the teacher who tries to make nature interesting to children in ways discredited by the advocates of "science for the sake of science"; urges emphasis on the large and significant values of a subject; and favors the use of the poetic and figurative in interpreting nature to children.

'Wags of the Stage,' by Joseph Whitton (Philadelphia: George H. Rigby), a model of book-making, so far as type, printing, and illustration are concerned, must have been written for personal gratification, as there is no other reasonable excuse for its production. It is mainly a collection of humorous anecdotes concerning stage-folk of greater or less eminence, but the selected stories are either too stale or too silly to be worth repeating. Moreover, the author has no special gift of comic relation, or, apparently, any general acquaintance with his subject. His book, indeed, is chiefly remarkable for the good things which are not to be found in it, although they have been common property for the last hundred years. The most interesting part of it is his account of his adventures in Nicaragua with William Wheatley; but these have nothing whatever to do with waggery, and afford no fresh information.

We have, perhaps, not devoted to Delta's 'Charades' (Cambridge, Mass.: Charles W. Sever & Co.) as assiduous a study as so profound a tome requires. The impression it has left is, that Delta deals with his charade-words as popularizers do with the secrets of natural science, and aims "to make them patent to the meanest capacity." But this may be a mere effect of superficial reviewing; for not half the book has been worked through. So, for aught we know, there may be tests here fit to measure every grade of charade sagacity. A certain neatness is observable in these problems, hardly rising to elegance. No mortal could for one moment mistake them for poetry. Yet experiment has shown that they will beguile an idle hour very well.

The important monograph of Mr. J. E. G. de Montmorency on 'State Intervention in English Education' (Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press; New York: Macmillan Co.), traces the history of that question from the earliest times down to 1833, when Parliament for the first time voted money for the promotion of elementary education. The subject is dealt with mainly from the political and legal point of view, and abounds in valuable references to documentary authorities. The writer expresses his surprise that no satisfactory collection of such material had previously been made, and contends that many of the present educational troubles in England are directly due to the neglect of the historical aspect of the subject. Two notable points are particularly emphasized by the record here presented—the decadence of education under the Stuarts, from which it resulted that it was less flourishing in the beginning of the nineteenth century than at a certain period before the Reformation; and the example of progress set by the colonies to the mother country. Incidentally, Mr. de Montmorency calls attention to the curious fact that the general use of the English tongue dates from the Black Death. The terror of the plague drove out of the country the French and Norman parish priests, who were also the masters in the grammar schools. The clergy who remained were natives, and their influence introduced English into schools as the vehicle of lessons. We have noticed an erratum on p. 153, where Sir Henry "Parke," the Australian politician, should be Sir Henry Parkes. It is to be inferred from his preface that Mr. de Montmorency intends to follow up the present volume by a similar treatment of the period from 1833 to the passing of the Elementary Education Act of 1870. If the second book is of the same quality as the first, it will be heartily welcome.

Mr. A. R. Whiteway, an English barrister, deals in a light and even flippant style with a subject of too much gravity for such handling. His 'Recent Object-Lessons in Penal Science' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) is made up largely of magazine articles, and contains little that is new to penologists, or even to those who have but a cursory acquaintance with the subject. His bibliography is very incomplete, and many of his comments are inept. The book may serve to draw attention to a subject which deeply concerns the public but interests it little. If it can do this, it will justify its existence.

Very different points of view are taken by "Veritas" in his 'German Empire of To-day' (Longmans, Green & Co.) and by Maurice Lair, in 'L'Impérialisme Allemand' (Paris: Armand Colin). The composition of the former book is somewhat peculiar. It begins with a sketch of German history up to 1871, which is necessarily too brief to be of much value, and proceeds to explain the present condition of the Empire largely by means of consular reports. A considerable body of facts and a large number of figures are thus marshalled under various titles; the impression given being that remarkable progress has been made in every direction. "Veritas," however, does not look below the surface, and his book is little more readable than most public documents. M. Lair presents the same facts, but he interprets

them, and gives others which supplement them. He is as keen in depreciation as "Veritas" is dull in laudation, and shows us the seamy side of imperialism very effectively. On the whole, we must say that those who wish to know the truth would better consult M. Lair; making some allowance for national prejudice. Nor will those who read for amusement be disappointed in his pages, for his sarcasm is clever. But he does not fail to recognize much that deserves admiration, and his tribute to German industry, enterprise, and intelligence is unstinted.

It would be strange indeed if a French author should win the distinction of writing the best life of the late Queen of England. At present, however, M. Abel Chevalley seems to hold the field. His 'La Reine Victoria: Sa Vie, son Rôle, son Regne' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) is certainly superior in every respect to such compilations as that to which the Duke of Argyll put his name. Its literary merit and its freedom from bias mark it off at once from the numerous biographies which have attempted a new interpretation of the political maxim that the king can do no wrong. M. Chevalley's memoir is especially valuable for its estimate of the nature and extent of Queen Victoria's influence upon state affairs, and for the light it throws upon the relation between the growth of the imperialistic spirit and the increase of the authority of the crown. Another admirable feature is its excellent character-drawing of Gladstone, Disraeli, Chamberlain, Salisbury, and the Queen herself. The criticisms of English weaknesses are at times severe, but they are nearly always well-informed, and are evidently consistent with a warm appreciation of what is admirable in English character and what is great in English statesmanship.

Charming views in plenty accompany Prof. Dr. Ludwig Neumann's 'Der Schwarzwald' in the "Land und Leute" monographs published in Leipzig by Velhagen & Klasing (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). Inhabitants as well as scenery are pictured, and history, topography, boundaries, orography, plain and elevation, are duly regarded. The frontispiece is a fine general view of Baden-Baden, which we commend to readers of Turgeneff's 'Smoke.' The index is not forgotten. An Andree map of the region concludes the liberal equipment.

The latest addition to the popular reproductions of pictorial masterpieces in the series called "Meisterbilder" of George D. W. Callwey, Munich, is a portfolio containing Moritz von Schwind's "Morgensonne," Luca Signorelli's "The Damned," Rubens's cheerful companion piece of "The Descent of the Damned," Rembrandt's "Supper at Emmaus," Dürer's "Virgin Mary with the Child" in three prints brought together on one sheet; and Holbein's "Wife and Children." Two of the above, we opine, could be well spared from the "Deutsches Haus" for which the series is designed.

Even the libraries of a great city may be difficult to ferret out. Such was the experience of a committee of the New York Library Club compiling a list of libraries in this metropolis ('Libraries of Greater New York'). When found, they did not always heed the request for simple information as to history, regulations, and resources, and the derelict have thus earned a star in the catalogue, even when the particulars have been otherwise ascertained or conjectured. The volume, handsomely printed, includes a valuable index to special collections, and a manual and historical sketch of the club, with lists of members.

Internal dissensions in the Camera Club of this city have resulted in the withdrawal of the management of its organ, *Camera Notes*, with Alfred Stieglitz at their head, upon the appearance of the first (July) number of volume six. The high quality of the illustrations of this issue emphasizes the loss of such editorial direction as the periodical has heretofore had, and also the task imposed upon the future editors. The number is further distinguished by an author and subject catalogue of the club's extensive photographic library, by Juan C. Abel.

The April number of *Photo-Miniature*, the tiny publication of Tennant & Ward, No. 287 Fourth Avenue (London: Dawbarn & Ward), is given up to a Treatise on Film Photography by the editor, John A. Tennant, who has found no English predecessor in this service.

Mrs. Agnes Smith Lewis of Cambridge reports in the *Expository Times* an especially scandalous instance of vandalism. In a visit a few months ago to the Convent of St. Catherine on Mount Sinai she discovered that a leaf was missing from the Syriac codex of the Gospels, which she discovered there in 1892, and which has since been known as the Sinaitic Palimpsest. The manuscript has been kept carefully in a box in custody of the monks, but has been shown occasionally to travellers. Her belief is that some visitor, wishing to make an addition to a collection of Oriental curios belonging to himself or to his university, slipped the leaf between the pages of a book in the hope that it would never be missed. Mrs. Lewis gives reasons for the opinion that the theft was not the work of a scholar. She publishes in the *Expository Times* a photographic facsimile of the stolen leaf, which contains part of the story of Mary, slave of Tertullus, and, in the under-script, the text of Mark ii., 21—iii., 21. The existence of this photograph fortunately prevents any loss to scholarship, but makes the offence none the less heinous.

In American comments on Sir Walter Besant's Autobiography considerable notice has been taken of his protest against the ultra-ecclesiastical atmosphere of King's College, London. A significant mitigation of this conservatism is now reported. The College Council has decided by twenty-two votes to two "that, so soon as may be, every religious test as a qualification for office, position, or membership, in or under the Council or College, other than professorships or lectureships in the faculty of theology, shall cease to exist." This liberalizing process has been stimulated by the action of a Welsh M. P. in moving the omission, from the grant to universities and colleges, of the sum of £1,700 hitherto annually appropriated to King's College. It was recognized that, in view of the provisions of the act of 1898 which reconstituted the University of London, the college could no longer share the financial and other advantages of affiliation to that university without abandoning its tests. King's College, it will be remembered, is the institution which dropped from its professorial list, on account of heterodoxy, Frederick Denison Maurice and, later, A. W. Momerie.

The close of the academic year at Oxford has been signalized by two graceful acts of generosity on the part of alumni of two leading American universities. The welcome given to these gifts is officially recorded in the University *Gazette* of June 17, where we read that the Hebdomadal Council "gladly accepted two busts in bronze, reproductions of the busts of George Washington and Benjamin Franklin by Houdon, presented by Jonathan Ackerman Coles, D.M., an alumnus of Columbia University," and in the next paragraph we read of an offer made to the University through the same Council by a visitor, Dr. Lee of Cornell University, "of one hundred and two New England elms to form an avenue in the Park." This proposal received the approval of the Curators of the Parks and has been gladly accepted. The bronze busts are to be placed in the Bodleian Galleries, which already contain a fine charcoal drawing of the late Captain Edward Silsbee placed beside his gift of Shelley mementoes. The other busts in the same galleries are of Mr. Gladstone, Dr. Jowett, and Sir Thomas Bodley, and among the numerous portraits is one of the Mr. Prynne who (along with Mr. Burton and Dr. Bostwick) suffered the indignity of having his ears cropped for the publication of heretical doctrines. This is the Mr. Prin whom William Dyer (see his letter in the *Nation* No. 1926) visited in the Tower of London. When, in the fulness of time and on the completion of all legal preliminaries, the American Rhodes scholars finally appear in Oxford, they will find in these recent gifts welcomed by the University an earnest of the welcome which will be extended to them.

With a too liberal anticipation of the future, our reporter of the American Library Association's meeting spoke last week of the Library of Congress adding "half a million cards" to its catalogue yearly; a slip for "fifty thousand titles."

—The predominant tone of the July *Atlantic* is seriously political. The editor opens the volume with suggestions on keeping the Fourth of July, and invites very careful attention to the foundation principles of our Government and the problems involved in our attempt to force "American institutions" upon others regardless of their own desires. And those who imagine that it is really our own kind of institutions that we are so far planting in the Philippines, may well take to themselves the remarks of H. D. Sedgwick, jr., on the facility with which Americans of the present day can cling to the patriotic phrases of the past, long after they have ceased to have any real meaning as applied to the facts of to-day. This habit of passing off spurious articles under a fair name, and the excessive commercialism of the time, are the two aspects of current American life to which Mr. Sedgwick calls special attention. James A. LeRoy, who has had two years of service with the Philippine Commission, tells at some length of the damage done among the natives by the unrestrained exhibition of race prejudice on the part of American officers and men, adding materially, by the way, to the already ample evidence of positive cruelty to the natives. Mr. LeRoy misses the point, however, when he asserts that to doubt

our doing eventual justice to the Filipinos is to call into question government by the people. Our government of them is not and never can be even government by the American people. From the nature of the place it must be largely monarchical or oligarchic in its application, and its failure to work smoothly is no test of the power of either Americans or Filipinos to govern themselves. Mr. LeRoy shows overwhelmingly that we are not doing justice there so far, and he attributes the trouble to an evil of which there is no immediate prospect that we shall free ourselves, the same race prejudice which has made it hitherto impossible to secure a working solution of the negro problem in our own land. This problem is discussed with vigor in another article, by Andrew Sledd. Mr. Sledd presents a severe indictment of the cruelty of lynching, tearing into tatters the argument that it has its origin in the outraged feelings of the better classes who too often come to its defence. The article is a good corrective to false opinions likely to be instilled into the reader by portions of Thomas Dixon's novel, 'The Leopard's Spots.'

—When the Fates crossed the early ambition of Professor Gildersleeve to be a man of letters, a possible source of almost boundless literary delight was, we will not say *quenched*, but so hedged about as to be practically inaccessible, except to the favored few. Readers of the *American Journal of Philology* will readily say of its genial editor, as Cicero said of Bruttius, *Non est enim seiunctus iocus a philologia.* The steady vein of kindly humor, the flashes of wit, pervading his critical remarks published regularly under the heading of "Brief Mention," have brought more delight into the life of many a weary scholar than could be gained from the strained efforts of a whole library of professional "humorists." Even when he considers it necessary to administer severe critical punishment, the victim must often be forced to smile at the form of the blow which fells him, as when Herr Drerup's ungracious depreciation of Professor Goodwin calls forth the crushing rejoinder that Goodwin's name "had been familiar to German scholars long before Herr Engelbert Drerup was dry behind the ears." Even the narrow limits of a Latin Grammar could not squeeze all the humor out of the veteran philologian's statements. To readers of the *American Journal of Philology*, therefore, it will be a real pleasure to learn that Professor Gildersleeve begins with the present issue the publication of a series of papers entitled "Problems in Greek Syntax." His competence to deal scientifically with such problems has been so long and so often demonstrated that he can safely brave, as a younger man might not, any danger of the serious application of his own humorous maxim that "no true grammarian has any right to be readable." An unreadable essay from his pen, or a dull lecture from his lips, is unthinkable to any one who has had any opportunity to know of his work. No man who reads him will ever worry over the loss of time spent upon the study of Greek.

—'Upland Game Birds,' by Edwyn Sandys (Macmillan), the second volume of the American Sportsman's Library, is a full account of its subject as well as of some foreign species that have been introduced into this country. It includes, besides gallinaceous game birds, the upland plover, the golden plover, the woodcock, cranes, and the mourning dove; and it describes their feeding and breeding habits, their range, and the best methods of hunting them. Few writers have hunted so great a variety of game birds in so many parts of the country as Mr. Sandys has, and the information and advice that he gives are exhaustive and trustworthy. The chapter on the quail is excellent work, full of invaluable directions for the man who would bag this "king of game birds." It even tells him how to get the better of a shooting companion in various situations afield; and though the author hastens to condemn sharp practice and to explain that he is only warning the novice against it, yet the tone of this part of the chapter seems out of harmony with the spirit of good fellowship that pervades much of the book. There is an elaborate chapter on the prairie hen, which Eastern men about to try "chickens" for the first time will do well to study. Mr. Sandys relates many entertaining incidents of his hunting experience. His keenness of observation and quickness in seizing an opportunity make him a clever hunter, and, as his stories show, he is an excellent shot. He has considerable fluency in description, and writes in a free, somewhat unconventional style; indeed, he now and then uses expressions which, suited perhaps to the exigencies of the hunting field, are yet hardly picturesque enough to call for publication. A chapter by Mr. T. S. Van Dyke describes the quail and grouse of the Pacific Coast, and shows how difficult it is to hunt them successfully.

—In writing a history of Scotland for the Cambridge Historical Series (Macmillan), Prof. P. H. Brown makes his second volume embrace the period between the accession of Mary Stuart and the Revolution of 1689. From the preface to the first volume we inferred that the work would eventually be brought down to the date of the legislative union, if indeed it did not, like Sir Henry Craik's 'Century of Scottish History,' extend to recent times. There is no preface to the second volume, nor are we able to gather from the public announcement that the narrative will be carried forward to either the eighteenth or the nineteenth century. We hope, however, to see the conclusion of a work which, if left at the overthrow of James II. and VII., will omit many of the most striking episodes in Scottish annals. It is not that Professor Brown writes or strives to write picturesquely. His pages, even when he is dealing with Mary, Darnley, and Bothwell, are colorless; but because he is learned, dispassionate, and direct, his version of those events which have given rise to so much romance is the more sure to be worth having. Viewed by itself, the second volume of Professor Brown's history is, as every sketch of Scottish history from 1542 to 1689 must be, an account of religious feud and mutual persecution. Of its two main topics the first is "The Religious Revolution," the second "The Crown and the Kirk." To steer an even course between Romanists and Protestants, between Episcopalians and Covenanters, can be no easy matter for one who has been born and bred in Scotland. Professor Brown is enabled to avoid many a dilemma by reducing his own comment to a minimum, but he can also lay claim to the merit of disinterestedness. Nor is he unduly swayed by feelings of patriotism, although he is willing to defend his countrymen from the unjust charge of having sold their king. His comment upon the action of the Scots towards Charles I. in 1646 runs thus: "That the coincidence of the payment of arrears should be malevolently construed by party feeling was in the nature of things: calmly viewed in the light of actual facts, the conduct of the Scots bears no such construction." These two volumes of Professor Brown form a most useful compendium of Scottish history to the accession of William and Mary.

—A notable discussion of the Flinders Petrie Papyri, in relation to Platonic text criticism, came before the Oxford Philological Society recently in a paper by Professor Burnet of St. Andrews. He adverted to the bitter and fruitless controversy, in the course of which some scholars had made a determined onslaught on the authority of one of the oldest of extant MSS., the Clark MS., while others, feeling that philology risked losing all scientific precision if such views were to prevail, were betrayed into equal acrimony against the Papyri. Without specifying the details of the controversy, Professor Burnet urged that "no such thing existed as a critical apparatus to the 'Phædo' " which could form the basis of a reasonable comparison between the Petrie Papyrus fragments and what should be called our MS. traditions. To fix this latter we required not the reading of one MS., however good; but, "so far as is possible," our standard should be "the common archetype of all our MSS." Nor should we neglect the "indirect tradition," chiefly accessible through casual quotations made by writers such as Iamblichus and Stobæus. Those who used the edition of Schanz for the text of the 'Phædo' too often forgot, he feared, that all Platonic students, Schanz included, had "completely altered their views" as to the history of the Platonic text of that dialogue. The Clark MS. was taken by Schanz as primarily infallible: where it erred, he corrected it from any MS., however derived, that helped him out. This very frequently chanced to be a MS. written for Cardinal Bessarion, which Schanz freely used to patch the rents of the Clark MS. At least two neglected MSS., one in Venice and one in Vienna, must be brought into line, Professor Burnet maintained, before we can have the data necessary for establishing our MS. tradition. This he had done for the Venice MS. in his edition of the 'Phædo,' and was now in a position to do for the Vienna MS., thanks to the great courtesy of Professor Král. With the coöperation of his pupils he had now a full critical apparatus for all the fragments of the 'Phædo' contained in the Petrie Papyrus.

—This he laid before the Society in print, thus enabling his hearers to note the variations of the Clark (B), the Venice (T), and the Vienna (W) MSS. along with the full text of the Papyrus fragments. His apparatus contained also the "indirect tradition," wherever it was available and of use. Inferences drawn against the Clark MS. because of its manifest errors, often corrected by Schanz from Bessarion's MS., were quickly shown not to hold good of its

archetype, *i. e.*, the common original of (B), (T), and (W). Else, why were all the readings which the papyrus shared with Bessarion's MS. to be found in (T), the Venetian MS., while most of them were also in (W), the Vienna MS.? Plainly their absence from the Clark MS. was a mere accident. Thus the divergence between the Papyrus and our MS. tradition was, he maintained, very much diminished, and Cobet's theory of the sole authority of the Clark MS. was proved to be fundamentally unsound without in the least detracting from the authority of its archetype. The freshness and fulness of Professor Burnet's treatment of Platonic textual criticism evidenced by these few extracts from his paper shows how fortunate American scholars must account it that he has now in his hands, for ultimate publication, the notes on the scholia of the Clark MS. so laboriously made by the late Prof. F. D. Allen, during the year which he spent at Oxford. These our lamented compatriot left unpublished only because he did not live to do the similar work which he had definitely in mind on the Venetian MS. (T). This work Professor Burnet, so far as he has not done it already, is about to do in connection with his edition of the Platonic text partially issued by the Clarendon Press.

## THE AMERICAN FUR TRADE IN THE FAR WEST.

*The American Fur Trade in the Far West:* A History of the Pioneer Trading-Posts and Early Fur Companies of the Missouri Valley and the Rocky Mountains, and of the Overland Commerce with Santa Fé. By Hiram Martin Chittenden, Captain Corps of Engineers, U. S. A. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1902. Three volumes, pp. xxiv + 1,029. Maps and illustrations.

The first commercial foundations of New England were codfish, and St. Louis was still more decidedly founded on fur. The fur trade, however, though a leading industry from the start, was largely local till 1806. In that year the return of Capt. Lewis from the Pacific, without losing a man from a party of more than thirty, during three years, among tribes which had been considered hostile, and with tidings of the most coveted furs throughout the transcontinental routes, was the beginning of a boom in fur trading which, though chronicled as moribund in 1843, is still very much alive (p. 109).

Self-centred individual traders at once ventured very far and came back rich in beaver. The American Fur Company, the first one organized, within two years of its birth had established a post 2,824 miles up the great river, at the three forks where it first gets its name Missouri. The ample proposition which hope makes in all designs, here as elsewhere failed in the promised largeness, yet the association lasted twenty-five years and was the grandest corporation for the quarter of a century. The organization, including every trader of distinction in St. Louis, excluded outside partners and, unfortunately, John Jacob Astor, who would have given the financial backing-up which, when troubles came in battalions, was a vital necessity for winning profitable results. They were too sure of success to succeed.

Though the Missouri front door was thus shut, the New York capitalist, besides doubling his fur business in the sphere of the Great Lakes, resolved to penetrate the central fur-bearing fastnesses single-handed, and that from both the East and the West. Accordingly, he enrolled a band of overlanders larger than that which Jefferson had sent under Lewis. These partisans, following in the track of Lewis, made a forced march to the Pacific more swiftly than that Columbus of the Columbia could. At the mouth of the great river of the West, these adventurers combined with as large a party of Astor's men in a ship which he had dispatched round Cape Horn. Astor's purpose was that an annual ship from New York should supply the wants of Astoria, take on board the furs from Columbia valley posts, add to them others from Russians in Alaska, with whom the Tsar had allowed him to trade, pass on to China, the best of all fur markets, and come home full-freighted with the most salable Celestial spoils, *spolia vere opima.*

The end would have crowned this world-wide work but for the war of 1812. Notwithstanding this catastrophe, ultimate triumph must have been sure had not Astor's wisdom proved, in one particular, egregious folly. On both land and sea expeditions his officers and men had been selected from those most capable and experienced in Canadian companies, and hence proved to be very largely British subjects. Consequently, when the war came, none served Astor but constrained things whose hearts were absent. His interests were sacrificed, and Astoria was unconditionally surrendered, both financially and politically, when Americans could and would have held that fort, and thus all Oregon, against all comers. "The great purpose of the enterprise, the skill with which it was planned, the far-reaching relation which it bore to the future of the United States, and the loss of life and property in the attempt to carry it out, were worthy of a better fate" (p. 238).

Astor's faith in fur never failed nor flagged. He enlarged his operations, bought out the Mackinaw Company, soon had a thousand salaried officials, and became lord paramount on the upper Mississippi. In 1819 he legally established his legal right to bring his Canadians up the Missouri—that is, labor better and withal cheaper than he could hire in the States. In 1821 he induced Congress to abolish national factories among the Indians, which had been ruinous to private enterprises, and the next year he fixed his headquarters in St. Louis. Several corporations and a host of persons adventuring from that base had accumulated more or less of wealth, yet their prosperity was seldom lasting. A brief run of ill luck had been a killing frost to many a consummate flower of hope. Astor, after all, entered this arena among many competitors. One of them, Ashley, drew a greater prize than Astor ever grasped at a single swoop, and then relinquished the field of fur for matrimony and politics. But the more others accumulated, the more sanguine grew the invader from the North. His compulsive course knew no retiring ebb. He purchased both a St. Louis company of long standing and a new firm which Boston men had set up, disarmed others by mergers and consolidations; and, as in other oppositions, the longest purse was sure to win. The company to which Ashley, after a checkered four years with a lucrative close, gave place, ended four years of similar alternations by selling out to mountaineers—the so-called experts in reaping fur harvests in the Rocky Mountains. These men, within another Presidential term, had set successful traps in every highland fastness of fur-bearers, but had been so overreached by the lowland city merchants, from whom came inevitably the tools of their trade, that they were then swallowed by Astor's anaconda. What an imperial autocrat he became is shadowed forth by his bust on a grand medal that was stamped and circulated for buncombe among the Indians. This token or totem—officially styled an "ornament," to dodge accusations of lese-majesty—easily supplemented the effigies of kings and presidents which previously had been current fetishes as signs of sovereignty. The obverse legend was "President of the American Fur Company." The reverse, beneath significant emblems, bore the mysterious capitals U. M. O., which were interpreted "Upper Missouri Outfit."

But this monarch, sagacious from afar of furs failing to his hunters, as whales failed to Nantucket sailors—and of silk hats which roused ominous conjectures about future markets—in 1834, when his years were more than three-score and ten, resigned his Western empire for a consideration to Chouteau & Co. His American Fur Company, under these heirs, lasted thirty years longer. The new firm, who undertook to keep liquor out of the Indian country, were so reinforced by national functionaries that they successfully outlived all competing lines. Bridger, easily the preëminent mountaineer, remained in charge of one of their extensive outfits till he built the fort which still bears his name, on a water which flows into the Pacific, as a way-station for emigrants. The year was 1843, a date which marks the termination of the fur trade as described in these volumes.

The trade in furs, as thus concentrated within four decades, will seem to many too small a matter to be spread over a thousand pages. Such, however, cannot be the sober second thought of thorough readers, who must lay down the book asking for more words regarding a necessary and critical stage in our history, both pathfinding and epoch-making—preparative for domestic expansion and trans-Pacific relations—and not without influences on both. The subject has never before been treated in its entirety, and it is here dealt with by Capt. Chittenden so well that, as to all prominent features, his volumes must be a finality. His whole career has accomplished him for the work. One of the first three cadets who were graduated from West Point in 1884, his stations ever since in Government service have been in the West, except that, in the Spanish war, he was chief engineer of the Fourth Army Corps. During the last decade he has been much in the Yellowstone Park, of which he is now in charge, and concerning which the best octavo ever published is his writing. His main function, however, has been superintending reservoirs and other expedients for improving the navigation of that Missouri which was from first to last the "head-centre" of the industry which fills his book. This river, in all its length of 2,945 miles, and in many of its ramifica-

tions, has come under his inspection, both in his tour of duty and in his labor of love. His headquarters, whether in the National Park, in St. Louis, or in Sioux City, are coigns of vantage. While posted in the last place, he designed and had in charge the erection of the Floyd obelisk, the most exact reproduction of the Karnak model. He has had in hand all known printed books on his theme, including "that very unusual treasure," the adventures of the Prince of Wied, the only reliable authority concerning the earliest period. This rare and admirable production has yielded many quotations, and some engravings earlier than Catlin's and drawn by the Prince's artist. Many details he has gleaned from trans-Mississippi newspapers, which exist each only in a single file and have never before been scrutinized. Manuscripts, also, which have come down from fur-trade principals and subordinates, have now for the first time been detected and examined. Critical judgments, whether of authors or of facts and possible fables, are numerous, and disclose research, judicial fairness, and love of truth.

To explain the bearings and characteristic peculiarities of the fur trade is the author's first endeavor. Then follows the narrative of events in chronological order. This section, which forms the bulk of the work, and this only, will be read by those who care nothing for side-lights. But others will not neglect the division where contemporary events of influence on fur business are passed in review. The Captain's Dedication is, in part, "In honor of the forgotten heroes who first explored our great unknown, bearing the standard of peaceful commerce," etc. Therefore, the romantic biographical series could not be spared. While every monograph is easy reading, pathetic or sympathetic, none is so thrilling as that of a sort of Stonewall Jackson, who appears more than thirty times in the body of the book. This hero was one O. Smith, whose Christian name, Jedidiah, befitted his nature better than can be felt without referring to II. Samuel, xii:25. The final division is a survey of the world "out West," its orography, fauna, flora, and native tribes, such as no scientist could write without long and loving personal observation. The appendix presents eight documents of illustrative value, never before gathered together and in part hitherto unprinted.

We cannot emphasize enough the national importance of this elaborate work. No one can pass it by on the other side who seeks to understand the rise and progress of Americanism in the larger half of our territory.

## MORE LISZT LETTERS.

*Franz Liszt's Briefe an die Fürstin Carolyne Sayn-Wittgenstein.* Vols. III. and IV. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

Franz Liszt died on July 31, 1886. His last letter to the Princess Wittgenstein is dated July 6 of the same year. The first he addressed to her bears the date of February, 1847. Thus his correspondence with the Princess covers nearly forty years, and the sum total of it makes 1,566 printed pages, without her answers. One sometimes longs to see those answers; not so much because Liszt refers to them as "superb and sublime," for that may be merely the hyperbolic language of a friend; but because she knew more about Liszt and his compositions than any one else, and often referred to them in her letters in a way to call for his modest protests. "What a remarkable woman!" Baron von Liebig once said to Liszt. "I have never met her like! In one hour she can squeeze out of the wisest and wittiest savant all there is in him." She certainly must have done much, by her enthusiastic encouragement, to stimulate Liszt's creative powers during all the years when the professional world was so bitterly hostile to his compositions. But if she had done nothing but cause him to write these letters, she would have earned the lasting gratitude of the musical world. She constantly urged him to write more about his work and his inmost thoughts, and it is no doubt largely owing to this that his letters become more and more interesting, the last volume being the most absorbing of the four.

If the letters of the Princess are ever printed, they will probably fill more volumes than Liszt's, for she was a most voluminous writer. Her great work was a treatise 'Des Causes Intérieures de la Faiblesse Extérieure de l'Église,' in twenty volumes. This she finished shortly before her death, not quite seven months after Liszt's. There are frequent references to it in these letters. Once he hints that she would have done better to divide one of the volumes into two; they contained nearly 1,000 pages each! On another occasion he refers to the work as her *stupendo libro*, and compares its glowing descriptions to the paintings of Makart and Breughel. Still, he was probably not much in sympathy with it, and promises, "since you ask it," not to "speak about it any more." In a letter he tries to calm her suspicion that he is not interested in her book, but adds: "In truth, I know nothing about politics or religion; hence three-fourths of your work is beyond my comprehension." Some of the chapters, it appears, were printed anonymously and incurred the warning censure of the Index; whereupon Liszt wrote that he would have gladly spent the rest of his life in prison or in a hospital to save her this painful experience; and he exhorts her to submit patiently to the Church. He was all his life a devout Catholic, yet several of his letters indicate that he was as liberal in religious as in musical matters, reading the works of Renan and David Strauss with as much relish as those of the orthodox writers.

Of his liberality in matters musical these letters afford many new illustrations. He knew that several prominent musicians, notably Joachim, Rubinstein, and Berlioz, all of whom he had befriended, expressed their disapproval of his compositions with quite unnecessary insistence and bitterness; yet this did not in the least change his feelings towards them personally, or prevent him from expressing his admiration of their works. When Joachim was to give a concert in Venice, Liszt wrote: "I prefer not to come across Joachim, who has behaved in a more than singular manner towards me." A few days later he wrote from Buda-Pesth: "Joachim, whom I ever regard as the greatest master of the violin, will play here next week. I shall applaud him with pleasure." Some weeks later he had the satisfaction of writing that he had dined with Joachim, and that friendly relations had been reëstablished after a break of twenty years. Géza Zichy, he adds, afterwards told him that Joachim had confided to him that he felt himself at fault in his attitude towards Liszt. "Cela m'est une satisfaction tacite."

While fully cognizant of Rubinstein's shortcomings, Liszt sincerely admired him both as pianist and as composer, and remained on the friendliest terms with him. "Son talent," he declares, "est complet et d'une étonnante vigeur et opulence." He refers to Rubinstein's plan of going to America to earn $50,000 in order that he might have leisure to devote a few years to uninterrupted composition. Rubinstein's plan to "composer la Bible" interested him at first; but subsequently he came to the conclusion that Handel and Mendelssohn had exhausted the possibilities in this line, and left little for the *épigones* to say. The fact that Rubinstein had bitterly reproached certain women for their Liszt and Wagner enthusiasm Liszt treats almost as a joke rather than as an offence; and he cordially wishes Rubinstein "an operatic success as great as that which he enjoys as a pianist." As regards Berlioz, Liszt points out that, outside of the "new German" party (of which Liszt was the leader), Berlioz had, in 1868, few adherents. Liszt did everything he could for him in Germany, whereas Berlioz belonged to a clique of Parisian critics who held that Liszt subverted all the laws of harmony, rhythm, and melody. The so-called "Wagner-Liszt-Berlioz" school can hardly be called a happy family. Liszt alone liked both of his colleagues; Wagner liked Liszt as a composer, but he had no use for Berlioz, and Berlioz detested both Liszt and Wagner. It is doubtless to the spiteful remarks on Wagner in Berlioz's private correspondence that Liszt alludes when he writes: "Our illustrious and too embittered [*enaméré*] friend does not profit by the posthumous appearance of his letters. His name, Hector, did not bring him good luck —Achilles Wagner having come out as winner in the field of contemporary music-drama."

The principal opponent of Liszt, in the days of his youth, was the pianist Thalberg; but even him he bore no grudge, and actually subscribed a hundred francs towards his statue in Naples! "My heart is absolutely ignorant of all hatred," he writes in one letter; and in another he emphasizes the fact that he feels himself becoming more and more *selbstlos*—more interested in others than in himself. He is constantly vowing that he will never again play the piano in public or in private. In Vienna he once said to a hostess: "Put me out of doors, madam, but don't put me at the piano!" and he repeatedly commends Rossini and others for their tact in not asking him to play. Yet, while he did not earn one franc with his piano during the last thirty-eight years of his life, we constantly find him volunteering to play in public for some charitable or artistic purpose; and to the end of his life he continued to play for his pupils and to spend hours at the piano perusing MSS. sent him by young composers in quest of his advice and encouragement.

In the summer of 1880, Hans von Bülow exercised, as Liszt puts it, "une sorte de terrorisme" over about twenty of Liszt's pupils, whom he informed bluntly that only three or four of them were either prepared

or worthy to take lessons of him. Bülow, though sometimes generous, had none of Liszt's amiability. Liszt recalls the notice Bülow had pasted over his door: "In the morning not to be disturbed; in the afternoon not in"; also, his quarrel with the manager of the Berlin Opera, which he referred to as the "Circus Hülsen," with subsequent apology to the proprietor of a circus in Berlin; also his pun about the "Spontinische Sümpfe" (Marshes), and, apropos of a certain tenor, the "Schweineritter" (Schwanenritter) Lohengrin. Bülow did know how to hate, the Jews above all. Liszt also was accused of having expressed decided opinions on this subject, but he denies it in his letters. He fully realized that "the Jews constitute at present the decisive majority in music, here and everywhere. Nothing surprising in this—they rule the two greatest Powers in the world, the Bourse and the Press."

There is, of course, a good deal about Wagner in these letters, and about the Bayreuth festivals of 1876 and 1882. Again and again Liszt calls attention triumphantly to Wagner's growing popularity and success, and again and again he repeats his conviction that the "Ring of the Nibelung" is the crowning art work of the century. During the preliminary rehearsals of 1875 for the first Bayreuth festival, Wagner gathered 150 of his friends about him in his house and made a speech, "the leading idea of which was that music had the mission of regenerating and vivifying all the arts of the century." Another interesting incident, heretofore overlooked by the biographers, is noted by Liszt—a reading given by Wagner at Minister Schleinitz's, in Berlin, at which Moltke and nearly the whole of the diplomatic corps were present. Bismarck, it seems, visited Wagner, who, however, received no invitation from the imperial family. Subsequently the Emperor atoned for this by attending the Bayreuth festival. With all his adoration of Wagner, Liszt was not blind to his foibles and eccentricities. "What singular folly," he wrote to the Princess in 1868, with reference to Wagner, "to wish to fill the whole world with himself—with the result that he only makes himself more and more discontented and melancholy." One of his retorts in defence of Wagner may also be cited. He was never afraid to speak his mind in face of royalty, and when Queen Olga of Würtemberg said to him that, in the opinion of the most learned professors of æsthetics, the "Ring des Nibelungen" was absurd and impossible of performance, he replied that infallibility was not an attribute of professors.

In the last volume there are many references to the biography which Lina Ramann had undertaken to write. Liszt did all he could to facilitate her task; but he constantly urged her to reduce the story of his life to a minimum, and to give most of her space to his works. In these his interest was maintained to the end, though he speaks with excessive modesty of their worth. He grew tired of life years before the end came. He suffered the penalty of fame in the large sacrifices of time called for—"je m'irrite souvent de pâtir des misères qu'inflige la célébrité," as he puts it—and he had not Wagner's courage or indifference to the world to bury himself, as his friend did, in Switzerland. To the last year his home was tripartite—Rome, Weimar, and Budapest—and the frequent journeys became more and more fatiguing. He always disliked to be questioned regarding his health; but he does not hesitate to inform the Princess of his growing *tædium vitæ*. This chord is first struck in 1877, nearly a decade before the end. "Without wishing to complain, I often suffer from existence—my body has retained its health, my mind has not." Four years later: "Without being blasé, I am extremely tired of life." Instead of congratulating his son-in-law, Ollivier, on the advent of a child, he wrote: "You know what sad thoughts infants give me—their future is exposed to so many unpleasant chances." After Wagner's death: "You know my gloomy views on life—to die seems simpler than to live." And once more, in 1885, "Ma fatigue de vivre est extrême." He had written to the Princess, as early as 1869, that he wanted a simple funeral—not like Rossini's—no music, no parade, no discourse; and he asked that his epitaph should be: "Et habitabunt recti cum vultu tuo." These words were inscribed on his tomb at Bayreuth.

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*A Study of the Ethics of Spinoza.* By Harold H. Joachim. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1901. 8vo, pp. 316.

For the Cartesians and the intellect of Continental Europe at the time Spinoza wrote, geometry, as presented in the first book of Euclid's Elements, was the very exemplar of what science should aim at being. From our modern point of view, geometry is a triumph of instinctive good sense; but it is not entitled to be called a positive science, since it makes no critical examination of the truth of its assumptions. Its abridged style of exposition will answer for a subject where an almost unerring instinct guides us; but in itself that style is utterly vicious as not half setting forth the thought. In all this, Spinoza felt himself obliged to imitate Euclid in order to maintain his pretensions to science. His philosophy was deep, out of the common ways of thinking, and intelligible only from peculiar points of view; so that it would have been difficult enough to understand had it been ever so lucidly presented. Clothed, as it is, in the garb of Euclid, the 'Ethic' is one of the most enigmatical books that ever were written. The most curious circumstance about it is that a logical writing which Spinoza left unfinished at his death, shows that the Euclidean form of the 'Ethic' was utterly untrue to the author's own way of thinking. Those assumptions which, when stated as definitions and axioms, seem to come from nowhere, bursting upon us like bolts out of the blue, had really been subjected by Spinoza to the critical examination of a sort of inductive logic.

The 'Ethic Demonstrated in Geometrical Order' appeared posthumously in 1677. It had been ready for the press since 1675, and had been seen by some of Spinoza's inmost friends in earlier forms at least ten years before. Attacks upon it began promptly upon its publication, if not earlier. For half a generation they were plentiful. This was the period of its ill-fame, during which good Thomas Moore could exclaim, "So, then, wood, mire, lead, and dung are God!" and when Toland invented the inappropriate word *pantheist* on purpose to describe its author. Long before the middle of the eighteenth century it had come to be regarded as settled that Spinoza had merely developed a few ideas that had been thrown out by Descartes, and that his notions had been definitively exploded. This opinion received something of a shock when, in 1780, Lessing declared himself a Spinozist, although mistakenly; and an interesting discussion of Lessing's supposed Spinozism followed between F. H. Jacobi and Moses Mendelssohn. Then, Herder confessed to a sort of Spinozism, as later did Goethe. The system could not, after such events, well sink back into obscurity. About 1816 H. C. W. Sigwart began that more careful and critical study of what Spinoza really did mean to which many writers have contributed in a fuller and fuller stream of literature to this day, until the study may now almost take rank as a special branch of science, Spinozology. Certainly, the last word about it has not yet been said. Perhaps the problem is insoluble. At any rate, beyond a certain point, any opinion that can at present be put forth must rank as a merely personal one. In 1852, an important book by Spinoza was brought to light, together with many significant letters. Since then, the data of the problem remain unaugmented.

The present work consists of a commentary upon the 'Ethic' based upon a very careful and well-considered study of the whole of the writings of Spinoza, together with those of the cream of his commentators, some two dozen in number, not, however, including several that were well worthy of attention, such as the book of Berendt and Friedländer, that of Höffding, and one or two extremely important papers in the journals. In the reviewer's opinion, some of the interpretations of Mr. Joachim are entirely inadmissible; yet the book will be esteemed by all students of Spinoza. For beginners in the study, it has one particular merit, that of recognizing the accidental character of the geometrical form of the 'Ethic,' and, in the main, ignoring that form in the exposition. To go into further particulars about the truth of the rendering of Spinoza's thought would only be setting one unproved opinion against another.

We will venture, however, upon one remark, which is overlooked by Mr. Joachim and most of the other commentators. It is that, educated in Holland when he was, the notions of philosophy which Spinoza first received, and which, in the main, form the bed-rock upon which he built, naturally would come, and it is easy to see that they did come, from the Dutch reformed peripatetics of that time, Burgersdyk, Heereboord, and the others. There is no trace in Spinoza of any direct acquaintance with mediæval scholasticism. The Dutch Aristotelians were influenced to a considerable, but limited, extent by scholastics. This bed-rock of conceptions was overlaid in Spinoza's mind by pretty wide philosophical reading. The influence of Bruno, Descartes, Hobbes, for example, is plainly discernible. But the main features of his philosophy are consistent with Aristotelianism slightly modified, and not at all so with the other doctrines which subsequently influenced him.

There is no philosopher of whom there is more quite unprofitable study than Spinoza. In order to study any philosophy with due profit, it is necessary to understand it;

and, in order to understand it, it is necessary to begin by placing one's self in the state of mind of the author at the beginning of his speculations and follow out the course of his thoughts. We ought not to say that there is no good at all in pursuing philosophical reflections with a book open before us which we do not understand; but in order to study the works of a given philosopher with the profit that they may afford, there is no other way than that we describe. First of all, then, in order to study Spinoza with profit, it is requisite to soak one's mind in the general way of thinking of the Dutch Aristotelians, and this will be far from being in itself the valueless study which our Cartesian prepossessions (for such still prevail) lead us to imagine it to be. But all those philosophers wrote in Latin, and their works are untranslated. Next, it will be indispensable, in order to understand Spinoza, to take minute account of all his writings, the rest of which are not composed in the enigmatical style of the 'Ethic.' One of these writings is in Dutch, the rest in Latin. Under these circumstances, the fact that some half-dozen English translations, partial translations, and paraphrases of the 'Ethic' are in circulation (one, at least, in a second edition), while none of the other necessary aids are extant in English, is sufficient proof that the 'Ethic' is chiefly read by numbers of persons who never penetrate the Euclidean husk to reach the real meat of the book beneath. The truth is, it is the style that attracts readers to the book, the style of Euclid. To an unprepared student who cannot control his curiosity about the book and is determined to dip into it, we would say, At least, take Mr. Joachim's book along with Spinoza's text; and remember that even then, in the opinion of the majority of Spinozologists, you are only making a moderate approach to the true philosophy of Spinoza.

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*Gabriele Rossetti:* A Versified Autobiography. Translated and Supplemented by William Michael Rossetti. London: Sands; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The bulk of literature about the Rossettis bids fair to equal that about Stevenson; and possibly posterity may be puzzled to understand the taste of a generation which required so much of either. In his book on his father Mr. W. M. Rossetti seems to have exhausted the family revelations, until the time shall come for his own letters and diaries to be printed.

Gabriele Rossetti, the father of Maria, Christina, Dante Gabriel, and William, deserved and has received some biographical memorial in Italian; we doubt whether any one, unless he be a blind worshipper of the Rossetti cult, will urge that a similar memorial was needed in English. In Italy the elder Rossetti first made a name as an improvisatore. When the Carbonari revolution broke out in Naples in 1820, he became its "Tyrtæus," and when it was suppressed he escaped death by flight, and spent the last thirty years of his life in honorable exile in England, dying in London in 1854 at the age of seventy-one. For many years, until his health failed, he was Professor of Italian in London University. Dante students remember him as the author of some astonishing theories of the hidden meaning of the 'Divine Comedy,' theories compared with which the late Ignatius Donnelly's aberrations in Shakspere criticism seem tame. As his semi-public life, his poetry, and his prose works were all Italian, the only excuse for presenting an English biography of him is that his remarkable children belong among the makers of Victorian literature or painting.

The versified autobiography which forms the core of the present volume was written in rhymed sextets a few years before their author died. Mr. Rossetti has translated them into a rhymeless doggerel which he calls blank verse. In the original they may have charm; the translation is a weary task for even a long-suffering reader—how weary, a few specimens will show. Here is how Rossetti records his appointment as professor:

"Stately an University had risen
In this enormous capital of the realm:
And now the Council, from whose midst emerged
Such ample learning sacred and profane,
Offered me of its own accord the chair
Allotted to Italian literature."

Again, he tells us of his wife,

"That she both speaks and writes three high-prized tongues,
Which rank 'mong Europe's choicest and most rich;
And, when their authors she was studying,
She culled the flower of the three literatures."

He spares no details of his bodily infirmities, *e. g.:*

"Worn down and down by bronchial sufferings,
From January until September increased,
I yet, exhaling in my verse my woes,
Nurtured my mind with patriotic thoughts."

The filial piety which could translate several thousand lines of this sort certainly deserves the palm; but is there not such a thing as filial discretion? The portrait which Gabriele Rossetti draws of himself shows us a kindly, virtuous, domestic man, who mistakes his fluency and versatility for genius, regards his literary performances with great complacency, and bears his exile patiently, but not without the self-consciousness common to most banished patriots. Fortunately, the son spares us some parts of the autobiography, filling the gaps thus left by pages of interesting prose which, with the many footnotes, relieve the dreary text. The poet's references to Italian, and especially to Neapolitan, political events, and to his contemporaries who took part in them, afford an excuse for much elucidation of semi-historical value. We cannot but feel that had Mr. Rossetti given a prose abstract of the autobiography, he could have preserved whatever is of interest in it and spared us its banalities, which, in his blank verse, become intolerable.

The rest of the book contains several letters from Gabriele Rossetti to his wife and to Charles Lyell; letters from Seymour Kirkup and Mazzini; and six of his own poems. The domestic letters have a few references to the since famous children, and disclose the straits in which the family lived. Those to Lyell, the translator of Dante's 'Canzoniere,' deal chiefly with Dante. Lyell gave sympathetic attention to Rossetti's theory of the hidden purpose of Dante's works; perhaps he accepted it. What that theory was, Rossetti himself states in a nutshell as follows:

"It is impossible to continue without exhibiting the most intimate mysteries of the sect, seeing that the entire poem of Dante, all the lyrics of Petrarca, almost all the works of Boccaccio, and, in fine, all the old writings of that class, are nothing else than *downright doctrine and practice of the Freemasons*, in the strictest acceptation of the word. Such was the Gay Science, such the Platonic love, such the sect of the Templars, and that of the Paulicians. . . . But it is dangerous to consign the work to the public, and the chief danger is this: The demonstration cannot be *rightly* founded, so as to defy confutation, without citing in confirmation the writings of St. Paul and those of St. John."

For prudence' sake, Rossetti refrains from doing this, and so "is compelled to stop short at the effects, and leave the cause unexplained, which makes less visible and tangible the reality of the assumption."

This was in 1832; by 1836 he had discovered that "Origen and Tertullian, as well as Synesius, Bishop of Cyrene," and "especially Swedenborg," had used his patent mystic key. By 1840 he got confirmation from Raphael's sonnets, from Pico della Mirandola, Molza, St. Bernard, Cecco d'Ascoli, etc. "Oh, how much can be gathered from the Latin writings of Poliziano!" he exclaims; far more than even from those of Tasso." The present writer, not being a Freemason, can merely add; "What could be simpler?"

The letters from Seymour Kirkup have permanent value, because they describe the discovery, due principally to Kirkup, of Giotto's portrait of Dante in the Bargello. Kirkup sent Rossetti a tracing of the fresco made immediately after it was uncovered, before the inevitable restorer—against whose whole tribe he inveighs bitterly—had time to injure it. The eleven letters from Mazzini to Rossetti have slight significance, but the twelfth, addressed to a fellow-conspirator, "Corso," and signed "Strozzi," has much interest as an example of the mingled zeal and reasoning with which Mazzini infused his ideas into his followers. The six poems at the end show Rossetti at his best. He was not a great poet, but no one can deny that he was, in spite of effusiveness which now seems somewhat out of taste, a worthy patriot. As such, he did real service to the Italian cause by living an honorable life in England.

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*Horæ Latinæ:* Studies in Synonyms and Syntax, by the late Robert Ogilvie, M.A., LL.D., edited by Alexander Souter, M.A. With a memoir by Joseph Ogilvie, M.A., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. Pp. xviii, 339.

In the last twenty years Latin lexicography has been a subject of growing interest, but relatively little attention has been paid to the synonyms in the Latin language. To treat the subject well requires wide reading, careful observation, and, above all, delicate discrimination, for it is not given to every one to detect the finer shades of meaning in words; and the difficulty of the task is increased by the fact that writers, even good writers, are sometimes negligent or inconsistent, and disagree in usage one with another. Often one word is used instead of another merely for the sake of variety, and so the sharp lines of demarcation are blurred. Undoubtedly, the word *mortalis* connotes something different from *homo*, and its sphere of usage is restricted, but Sallust used *multi mortales* for *multi homines* mainly for alliterative effect. One must constantly be on one's guard against too broad generalizations, and the subjective element must be held in check. The late

Dr. Ogilvie, with a long educational experience, seems to have pursued the subject of synonyms *con amore* and with great independence, and the results seem to justify the opinion of his brother, that he had exceptional qualifications for the undertaking. Unhappily, he was not permitted to see his work through the press, or give to it the finishing touch. The editing, however, has been skilfully done by Mr. Alexander Souter, a pupil of the great Ciceronian scholar, Professor J. S. Reid, and the only British authority engaged upon the 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ.'

"The principal object of the work," as stated in the editor's Explanatory Note, "is to aid the composer of Latin prose in selecting the proper equivalents of about 500 English expressions." The arrangement of these English expressions is alphabetical from *An* to *Younger*, but there follows an index of the Latin words treated. Cicero, as was to be expected, is the writer most drawn upon for illustration, but there are abundant quotations from Plautus, Terence, Cæsar, Nepos, Sallust, Livy, Virgil, Horace, and some from other writers, often with apt translations which admirably set forth the point at issue. Incidentally syntax comes up for consideration, as, for example, under *If*, where the various forms of conditions are passed in review, and under *Do not*, where reference is made to the American contributions to the subject of prohibitions by Hale, Elmer, Bennett, and Clement. This latter article was rewritten by the editor and is not altogether satisfactory. Etymologies are only rarely introduced, and were perhaps better omitted entirely. The connection of *causa* (earlier *caussa*) with *caveo* is doubtful; still more so that of *vesci* with *vivere*. No attempt is made to give all the possible expressions that may be used. Thus, under *Die*, only the verbs *mori*, *demori*, and *emori* are differentiated; under *Entreat*, only *orare* and *exorare*. *Fluvius* is distinguished from *flumen* and *amnis*, but it is not noticed that Cæsar and some other writers avoid *fluvius* entirely, while Livy is the first prose writer to make frequent use of *amnis*. It is true that *flumen* is used if the sense is metaphorical, as, *flumen orationis*, *flumen verborum*. Cicero, as Ogilvie states, uses *vis* (not *flumen*) *lacrimarum* for 'a flood of tears,' but, on the other hand, Virgil (Aen. i., 465) has *largoque umectat flumine voltum*. Space forbids our giving examples to show the author's keen discrimination and fit phrasing of distinctions.

We may note a few omissions or errors. Under *About* no mention is made of *circa* with numerals, although it is so used by Livy. The statement that "*ad, about, up to the number of* (=*fere*) is often used adverbially (not in Cicero)," is wrong; see *pro Cluentio* 110, "cum annos ad quinquaginta natus esset." The distinction between *ultra* and *sua sponte* is clearly made, but it should be stated that the order *sponte sua*, at first poetical, is used by Livy, by Augustus in the Monumentum Ancyranum, and by later prose writers. Whether Cicero used it *pro Sestio* 47 (cited by Ogilvie) is, perhaps, doubtful. Under *Build*, the phrase *viam munire* should be cited; under *Face*, some idiomatic uses of *os;* under *Grief*, the phrase *minuere luctum*. On p. 281, where *quondam*, *olim* and *aliquando* are discussed, the use of *olim* (='once upon a time') in story-telling should be mentioned, as *e. g.*, in Horace Sat. II. 6, 79 "Olim rusticus urbanum murem mus paupere fertur accepisse cavo." On p. 161 the plural *libertates* is said to occur only in Plautus and Tacitus (A. 15 55), but it occurs also in the Digest.

Much pains has been taken by the editor in verifying citations, and the Latin orthography is excellent; so, too, the typography in general, but it is irritating to find now and then an editor's name apparently forming part of a Latin sentence, as on page 152, where we read, as an example of *nescire:* "L.2.2.3 M. Müller nescire Tarquinios privatos vivere."

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*Highways and Byways in Hertfordshire.* By H. W. Tompkins, F.R.Hist.S. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The latest volume of the "Highways and Byways" series deals with a county little known to tourists. But though it is not a "show" county, no other in England is more fertile; probably no other has so large an acreage of wheat in proportion to its size; and if the British farmer can be said to flourish anywhere, he should flourish in Hertfordshire. It is not a county rich in literary associations, but its lovers, though few, have been select, and it is thickly strewn with memories of one whom Mr. Swinburne called the "best beloved of English authors." Canon Ainger says: "All through his life Hertfordshire was seldom far from Charles Lamb's thoughts, and never from his heart." He lived to see the old hall of Blakesware—the "Blakesmoor" of the essay—pulled down and "reduced to an antiquity." But he had himself immortalized it in 'Dream Children':

"When I told how good she was to all her grandchildren, having us to the great house in the holidays, where I in particular used to spend many hours by myself, in gazing upon the old busts of the Twelve Cæsars, that had been Emperors of Rome, till the old marble heads would seem to live again, or I be turned into marble with them; how I never could be tired with roaming about that huge mansion, with its vast empty rooms, with their worn-out hangings, fluttering tapestry, and carved oaken panels, with the gilding almost rubbed out, . . . strolling about among the old melancholy-looking yew trees, or the firs, and picking up the red berries, and the fir apples. . . . I had more pleasure in these busy-idle diversions than in all the sweet flavors of peaches, nectarines, oranges, and such like common baits of children."

In yet another part of "that fine corn country" lay the farmhouse of which Lamb said: "The oldest thing I remember is Mackery End." The farm itself still stands almost as in Elia's day, and Mr. Tompkins believes that it is a place of pilgrimage for pious literary Americans. The quaint houses and old churches of the county abound in antiquities concerning which Mr. Tompkins gives much curious information. All who read his pages will note, and some will highly appreciate, his knowledge and love of birds and their habits; they receive fully as much attention as the other inhabitants of those quiet villages. The villagers themselves, in spite of their nearness to London, have been little affected by modern civilization, as may be seen from the following anecdote of John Gilpin's Ware:

"Some years ago there stood upon this spot an old thatched wayside inn, kept by a man named Clibbons. Now Clibbons was wont to increase his income by nefarious practices. He went regularly to Hertford market to sell cakes, which was well enough; but I am sorry to say that he added to his cake-selling a worse occupation. He used to frequent the busiest inns in the town, and listen furtively to the farmers and other country folk as they chatted over their ale. When he heard that George Turmut or Jack Shorthorn had taken a good round sum for their beasts, he would waylay them as they were returning home and ease them of their money. Folks at Ware Side tell me that in the garden of the 'Fox' there was formerly a small cave in which Clibbons carefully hid his ill-gotten cash, and when danger threatened would hide there himself.

"One day, as he was returning from market in a very ill humor, he met a farmer between Widford and Ware Side. He was about to rob the farmer when a third party came up; the farmer shouted that he was likely to be murdered, and the stranger shot the cakeman on the spot. Acting on the good old adage that it is useless to cry over spilt milk, the farmer placed the body of Clibbons in his own cart, and drove it to the 'Fox,' where he was met upon the threshold by the cakeman's wife, who said she knew her man was dead an hour ago, for she had received a token from another world. I doubt whether anybody, man or woman, who has not had much personal talk with the older folk in our more quiet villages, is aware how superstitious such persons often are even in the present day. If the candle burns down in a peculiar manner, and the tallow assumes the form of a winding sheet, there is death at the door. If you have warts, you had better steal a piece of beef and bury it, and as the beef decays the warts will disappear. There are still old women who believe that their infirmities would be healed by the royal touch, and bemoan their inability to receive it; there are still old men who believe that if the horseshoe fell from their doorway in the night, sorrow would come in the morning" (p. 335).

Mr. Tompkins made his tour on foot, and, to judge from his experience, Hertfordshire is an ideal country for a walking tour; the roads are good, and comfortable, old-fashioned coaching inns abound. Knebworth, the home of Bulwer Lytton, inspires the writer with reminiscences of Dickens, Douglass Jerrold, Mark Lemon, and others of the coterie that used to assemble there in the days of the novelist.

The illustrations, by Mr. Griggs, are up to the standard set by Mr. Pennell and Mr. Hugh Thomson in the earlier volumes of the series. The studies of trees are especially good, and give an excellent idea of the leafy lanes of Hertfordshire. The volume is furnished with a map of the author's route, and an index. As a literary supplement to Baedeker, the tourist would find the book a useful and entertaining item in his luggage. One fault, or rather two, we have to find with the whole series. The books are printed on heavy sized paper, presumably for the sake of the illustrations—a serious drawback for a traveller's guide. Moreover, the binding is too weak for the weight of the volumes; that which we have just considered is already unstitched after a single reading, and we have encountered others of the series in the same plight. Strong binding and light weight would seem to be essentials for books of this class.

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*Garden-Craft, Old and New.* By John D. Sedding. John Lane. Pp. xxvi, 213.

The present revival of the old-fashioned formal garden is due in large measure to John Sedding. His 'Garden-Craft,' printed in 1892, was the first book of which the dominant note was praise of the old way of gardening. It was a gentle book, full of love for the half-forgotten beauty of an

earlier time. It was the voice of a poet telling of the joy that he had found in going back to a manner long despised and often bitterly rejected. The book was promptly attacked by W. Robinson, author of 'The English Flower Garden,' upon whom formality in a garden has the maddening effect of red upon a bull. Rushing into print, he proceeded to characterize poor Sedding's exquisite imaginings as "drivel." Perhaps his ire was not entirely without cause, for, before his 'Garden Design and Architects' Gardens' came from the press, Blomfield's 'The Formal Garden in England' had appeared, and some of the things in it were enough to anger the mildest of landscapists. Blomfield slashed back at Robinson in the caustic preface to his second edition, and so the battles of the styles went on merrily enough.

But Sedding was not the man to enjoy polemics. He was, before all else, an artist, and his untimely death, just before the appearance of his book, deprived England of one who, by both promise and performance, held a unique position among her architects. Of the man himself, his indomitable gayety, his deep kindliness, his all-pervading love of art, of his work and those high qualities that so easily distinguished it from the work of others, we may read in a memoir written by one of his dearest friends and included in this book. Whether it is the character of Sedding as revealed by the memoir, or whether it is Sedding's thoughts on gardening, that most deeply interest us, it would be hard to say. Suffice it that he approaches his subject in no narrow frame of mind. He is as ready to see and acknowledge the good in the landscape style as in the formal, and indeed he ends his book with a chapter "In Praise of Both." Yet he accomplished the thing he started out to do. He showed us how much of beauty we are losing by closing our eyes to the merits of the garden of our forefathers, and how small was our angle of vision when we refused to see good in any method but that of the attempted imitation of nature.

'Garden-Craft' has to-day a far wider circle of sympathetic readers than it had when it first appeared. Since it has for some time been out of print, and since it is a book that improves the oftener it is read, the new edition is very welcome.

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*The Ancient Ruins of Rhodesia* (Monomotapæ Imperium). By R. N. Hall and W. G. Neal. With more than seventy illustrations, maps, and plans. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xxvii, 396.

The existence of ancient ruins in South Africa was made known in our time by an American finding in 1868 a cyclopean wall in the forest near his hut. Though several other similar structures were found by travellers drawn to the place by his discovery, yet until recently there had been no systematic search for these remains of a bygone age. In 1895 two mining experts, W. G. Neal and G. Johnson, under a grant from the British South Africa Company, began the work of methodic exploration. The results of their investigations at the end of 1900 were, that, in a region one hundred thousand square miles in extent, south of the Zambesi, there are more than five hundred groups of ancient ruins. They are of towns, covering one to two square miles, villages and forts; the best preserved buildings being massive walls and conical towers of granite blocks laid without mortar, and displaying five different styles of ornamentation, including the chevron and dentelle. Along the banks of the streams are innumerable holes for crushing quartz with stone hammers, and small piles of quartz lying beside them; and in the cemented floors of the walled buildings are smelting-furnaces, the linings covered with specks of gold. In one district the hillsides are elaborately terraced for cultivation, irrigation being provided by artificial canals in use at the present day. There are also indications of roads lined with forts converging on the port of Sofala, where in 1505 the Portuguese found two Arab dhows laden with gold for export. A slight examination of the vast mass of débris which covers the country has brought to light, among many other things, gold ornaments, tools, fragments of crucibles and blow-pipes, soapstone beams surmounted by carved birds and phallic emblems. Thus far, however, no burial-places have been found, only some fifty human skeletons—and no inscriptions! Though these vanished peoples have left no written records to tell us of their history, the Sabæan remains of southern Arabia show such a marked similarity to the most ancient ruins as to leave no doubt as to the Asiatic origin of the earliest comers. In the second period there are distinct traces of the Phœnicians.

It is evident, reasoning from human analogy, that this land has passed through the same experience which we are now witnessing in the Transvaal. Within the last twenty years the Rand has been occupied by a multitude of goldseekers who have digged mines, built towns, and constructed roads to the sea for the transport of their gold and supplies. So, possibly, in 3000 B. C., an Asiatic Livingstone thrilled his countrymen with the story of his adventures in a far southern land, and showed specimens of the abundant gold he had found in it. The success of the men who, inspired by his tale, sought this prehistoric El Dorado, led many more to follow their example. At length some monarch sent out a host of soldiers and slaves, it may be, and took possession of the land, built towns, forts, and highways, and made the mining industry a state enterprise.

The account of a mining engineer of a single district recently surveyed by him will give some idea of what these enterprising Asiatics accomplished: "I saw at least one hundred and fifty square miles of country composed of kopjes ranging in height from one hundred to four hundred feet, literally covered on their slopes with these stone terraces, and the valleys literally strewn with the ruins of the ancient dwellings of a former teeming population." In that district alone he estimates the amount of "manipulated ground" —that is, ground of which the "loose stones, earth, débris, etc., have been shifted and placed into position, and carried up steep hills often hundreds of feet high" —at "something like 261,733,750 tons!" These facts, as well as the depths at which the earliest ruins are in some instances buried, show that the occupation of the land by the miners must have lasted for centuries. What brought it to a close we can only conjecture, though it was evidently not the exhaustion of the gold. Possibly the decay of the distant parent state loosened the bond connecting it with its colony and made communication difficult and dangerous, and so occasioned the withdrawal of garrisons and the gradual homecoming of the alien population. The actual end may have followed upon an uprising of the slaves or the raid of a savage tribe.

The authors of this volume modestly disclaim possession of the learning essential to presenting a theory of their own as to the origin and history of the people who have left such substantial testimony to their presence in South Africa. Their task is simply to exhibit the known facts, and they leave scholars to interpret them, though they incline to the view advocated by Prof. A. H. Keane that Rhodesia, the Monomotapa of the Middle Ages, was the land from whence came the gold which, in the days of Solomon, was "at Jerusalem as plenteous as stones." According to this theory, Tarshish, from which the ships in those days came once in three years, was Sofala, and Ophir was the distributing emporium on the south coast of Arabia. A brief statement is given by Mr. R. N. Hall of the speculations of the different archæologists who have studied the subject, together with such historical references as throw light upon it. He has also collated and arranged the results of Mr. Neal's five years' researches and those of all other explorers, including the "investigations by many leading Rhodesians, who have long devoted considerable time to the study of this fascinating subject."

A particular description of the nearly two hundred groups of ruins which have been examined is prefaced by an account of the Great Zimbabwe, the most ancient as well as the first discovered. From a careful scrutiny of the numerous "finds," they have been able to show with almost startling distinctness the methods of the miners and goldsmiths. The ore-bearing quartz was taken from the mines to the nearest water, where it was crushed and washed. The dust was then carried to the capital town of the district, for it is in these places only that furnaces, crucibles and blowpipes are to be found; and from there the gold was transported by the fortified roads to the sea. The most important contribution to our knowledge, however, is the demonstration, by the different architectural styles and building methods, of the four periods into which this ancient occupation of the land must be divided. The vivid realization of the facts of which this work is a complete treasury is greatly helped by numerous maps, plans, and pictures of the principal ruins and the most interesting objects discovered in them. Altogether a profound impression is made of the enterprise, intelligence, and courage of these gold-seekers, the earliest of whom may have been contemporaries of the builders of the pyramids. Their civilization must have been of a high standard even when compared with our own, while their buildings, the walls of which go down to rock formation and are sometimes fifteen feet thick, are far more substantial than ours. Their mysterious fate, too, provokes the wonder whether their history "will repeat itself" in the Transvaal. These ruins certainly make it conceivable

that, in some far-distant age, men may search in the mounds that will mark the site of Johannesburg for evidence of the origin and history of the miners and builders of the nineteenth century.

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*The Life of John William Walshe, F.S.A.* Edited, with an introduction, by Montgomery Carmichael. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The uninitiated reader will find reason for doubts as to the nature of the literary product which confronts him here. The opening chapters are so full of realistic detail that the elaborate apparatus of the Introduction seems not needed to support the pretence, or confirm the impression, of biographic veracity. Those which follow introduce a liberal element of romance; but, before the middle of the book is reached, edification and instruction abound in measure suited only to a tract. The sensitive child of a stupid and brutal father, after woful experience at home, in a Dotheboys Hall, and in a counting-house, flees at eighteen to Italy, where he falls at once into the arms of a phenomenal English scholar. Thenceforth all is roseate, except for the hero's self-macerations, mental and physical. The blessing of Heaven and of the Church rests upon a land of grateful peasants, beneficent landlords, pure and tender-hearted priests, and confessors so wise and disinterested that they find no vocation to holy orders in the most gifted and wealthy laymen.

In this idyllic scene carnalities are merely the background, and external events have little place; we are invited to contemplate the growth of the hero's character and his exemplary habits as a student. "His own intimate life was that of a holy person of the Middle Ages in word, thought, and deed"; in later years he "was subject to ecstasies or rapts." Yet his superior intellect was singularly well furnished and systematically exercised. Heraldry, which seems here to be a peculiarly Catholic science, had done a good deal for him in youth; and Latin, which was his delight as a boy, is, of course, the only adequate tongue alike for study and for devotion. "Logic and scholastic philosophy kept him sane in his views." The Church, be it remembered, has the only accurate logic and all the methodized knowledge that is of any value; as for the world without, it lies in folly no less than in wickedness. The "literary and scientific men" of England are a surprisingly ignorant set: "the wisest of them did not know the difference between a monk and a friar, or a martyr and a confessor, or an amice and an amess," etc. (see pp. 221-2).

As all this falls naturally under the heading, "Important if True," it is as well to know that John William Walshe, F.S.A., who "was well known to scholars as perhaps the greatest living authority on matters Franciscan," and who "died on the 2d July, 1900, aged sixty-three, at Assisi, in Umbria," is but the product of Mr. Carmichael's busy brain. To what extent his author shared the views of this alleged memoir, supposed to be written by the subject's son, since also deceased—views for which he twice humorously in notes evades responsibility—or whether he is throughout smiling over the mystification, it were considering too curiously to inquire. In either case he, as literary executor of his mythical friend, has yet to publish the thirty-four volumes of Notes on Franciscan and other topics, with numerous other MSS., and (after twenty years), the "Recollections" and Diary on which the present sketch is based.

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*Antarctica.* By Edwin Swift Balch. Philadelphia: Press of Allen, Lane & Scott. 1902. Charts. Pp. 230.

The object of the author of this important monograph is twofold—to give a complete guide to the literature and cartography of the South Polar region, and to show that chief among its explorers is an American. Mr. Balch divides his work into three periods, the first beginning with the voyage of Amerigo Vespucci in 1502, though he refers to the conjectures of the ancients, especially of the Chaldæan Seleukos, B. C. 170-125, as to the existence of a southern continent. It closes with the voyage in 1775 which gave to Capt. James Cook "the second place among antarctic explorers." The next and most important period includes the remarkable achievement of Capt. Nathaniel B. Palmer, a Connecticut sealer, who, in the sloop *Hero*, "but little rising forty tons," in 1821 discovered a group of islands which a Russian navigator, Bellingshausen, in gratitude for services rendered him by the Yankee skipper, as well as in admiration for his exploits, has called Palmer Archipelago. The U. S. Exploring Expedition in 1838-42, under the command of Lieut. Charles Wilkes, appropriately closes the review. "No finer achievement" than this voyage, says our author, "has been accomplished in the annals of the Arctic or of the Antarctic. With unsuitable, improperly equipped ships, amid icebergs, gales, snowstorms, and fogs, Wilkes followed an unknown coast line for over fifteen hundred miles." Emphasis is laid upon this because indications are not wanting of a disposition to ignore the claim of Wilkes to the honor of being the first to discover the Antarctic Continent. For instance, the name Wilkes Land given to this coast, though to be found in the *Times* Atlas, has no place on the chart in the Encyclopædia Britannica or in the latest edition of Chambers's Encyclopædia.

Mr. Balch briefly records what has been accomplished in the last fifty years, and closes with a reference to the English, German, and Swedish expeditions now engaged in the exploration of the Antarctic region. He adds to each of his statements a note giving his authority, and some idea of his painstaking labor may be formed from the fact that these are more than three hundred in number, and that the index includes some five hundred proper names. To his accuracy we can bear this testimony, that, after a somewhat careful examination, only one typographical error has been detected, the misspelling of Stieler on p. 164. Among the curious bits of information scattered here and there through the work is the statement "that there is no apparent record of any woman having passed beyond 60° south latitude." There are reproductions of portions of two old charts, and one by the author showing the latest discoveries.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An English Girl in Paris. John Lane. $1.50.
Bérard, Victor. Les Phéniciens et l'Odyssée, Tome I. Paris: Armand Colin. 25 fr.
Birrell, Augustine. William Hazlitt. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan. 75 cents.
Clarke, J. T., Bacon, F. H., and Koldewey, Robert. Expedition of the Archæological Institute of America, Part I.; Investigations at Assos. Cambridge (Mass.): Archæological Institute of America.
Ellis, E. S., and Horne, C. F. The Story of the Greatest Nations. Sixteen parts. Francis R. Niglutsch. 25 cents per part.
Emerton, J. H. The Common Spiders of the United States. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gray, L. H. Indo-Iranian Phonology, with Special Reference to the Middle and New Indo-Iranian Languages. Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $3.
Halsey, F. W. The Pioneers of Unadilla Village. Unadilla (N. Y.): Published by the Author.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology, Vol. XIII. Longmans, Green & Co.
Hervey, W. A. Unter vier Augen, von Ludwig Fulda; Der Prozess, von Roderick Benedix. H. Holt & Co. 35 cents.
Huener, F. M. Rossetti: A Critical Essay on his Art. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Jenkyns, Henry. British Rule and Jurisdiction beyond the Seas. Henry Frowde. 15s.
Jokái, Maurus. Told by the Death's Head. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.50.
Kenny, C. S. Outlines of Criminal Law. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Lang, H. R. Cancioneiro Gallego-Castellano. (Yale Bicentennial Publications.) London: Edward Arnold; New York: Scribners. $3.
Marvin, F. R. The Last Words (Real and Traditional) of Distinguished Men and Women. New ed. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Norris, W. E. The Credit of the County. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Pain, Barry. The One Before. Scribners. $1.25.
Potter, M. A. Sohrab and Rustem. London: David Nutt. 6s.
Richards, Laura E. Mrs. Tree. Boston: Dana Estes & Co. 75 cents.
Saussaye, P. D. C. de la. The Religion of the Teutons. Ginn & Co.
Seignobos, Charles. History of the Roman People. H. Holt & Co.
Sparroy, Wilfrid. Persian Children of the Royal Family. John Lane.
Tarr, R. S., and McMurry, F. M. A Complete Geography. Macmillan. $1.
Under Sunny Skies. (Youth's Companion Series.) Ginn & Co.
Velvin, Ellen. Rataplan, a Rogue Elephant. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.25.
Ward, B. R. Notes on Fortifications. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Wilmotte, Maurice. La Belgique Morale et Politique (1830-1900). Paris: Armand Colin. 3fr. 50.
Young, C. A. Manual of Astronomy. Ginn & Co. $2.25.

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# The Nation

VOL. LXXV—NO. 1933. THURSDAY, JULY 17, 1902. PRICE TEN CENTS.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY* 17, 1902.

## The Week.

Senator Burton of Kansas explicitly confirmed, in his speech last week at Topeka, the suspicion that the Republican leaders in the Senate did not really wish to pass the Cuban Reciprocity Bill. "They came to us," he asserts, "and encouraged us to keep up the fight." We do not see how Senator Aldrich can pass this challenge by in silence. Was he playing a double game? Did he deceive the President? Was it dread that the Sugar Trust's differential might be stricken off which led the Senatorial managers secretly to encourage the "insurgents" to persist? It is a woful tale of Republican insincerity and trickery upon which Senator Burton puts the seal of authenticity. If his assertions remain uncontradicted, we have an unparalleled case of party betrayal, and of deliberate and calculated cheating and humiliation of the President. If there is to be no punishment for such duplicity, then the blackest political crimes may hope to go unwhipped. Already, we observe, those Republican newspapers which were saying two weeks ago that the people would rebuke the Republican recreants at the polls, are changing their tone, as of course they were bound to, and remarking that the issue will be, after all, whether the policies for which the Republican party stands shall be "wrecked." But how if your chief wreckers are in that party? How can a party be trusted to keep any pledge if it would not redeem its pledge to Cuba? The real issue, we should say, is whether a party shall or shall not be made to smart for acting in what its own President has affirmed to be a dishonorable manner. Will the people renew a vote of confidence in confessed double-dealers?

---

Since Senator Burton took issue with the President on the question of Cuban reciprocity, it has been alleged by Mr. Burton's rivals in Kansas that the President has "turned him down" more than once in the matter of offices. It was specifically stated that the President refused to appoint Foley, Wiggam, and Richter, who had been recommended by the Senator, because of the latter's attitude towards him. Here is Mr. Burton's full and complete refutation of the charge:

> "President Roosevelt told me months ago that he would not appoint Mr. Foley, and I said I would give him another name for appointment before Congress adjourned, which I did, and the President appointed him. *Mr. Wiggam was not my appointee. That was solely the patronage of Congressman Miller, and the Indian Territory marshalship* [which was given to Mr. Richter] *was solely the patronage of the President himself.*"

The sentences which we have italicized present a graphic picture of the way in which appointments are made by Representatives, Senators, and occasionally the President—for Mr. Burton admits that once in a while the President "solely" exercises the power intrusted to him by the Constitution.

---

Reports that the propertied classes in Cuba are at once to organize for annexation may be ill founded, but there can be no doubt that business and industry in the island are in a bad way. The *Diario de la Marina* of July 8 declares that the news which it gets from the country, and the events recorded in the regional press, "could not be more alarming or disheartening." Thousands of laborers, it asserts, are out of work, and with no prospect of getting any. Many are even suffering from hunger. Two thousand workmen recently left Manzanillo to go to Mexico in search of employment. Sugar mills are being abandoned and preparations for the next crop abandoned, on many plantations, in despair. This is the testimony, be it remembered, of an impartial newspaper, which knows nothing of party politics in Cuba, and has no interest except that of stating the facts. It is a mournful account of American stewardship in the island. We shall not soon see another American President inviting his fellow-countrymen to glory over their unexampled generosity to Cuba. Let us charitably hope that it is to hide its own shame that the Jingo press has lately taken to abusing the Cubans, telling them that their request that we remove our coal from Havana is a mere "bluff," and asserting that we need a naval station there and will have it, whether they like it or not.

---

The *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent presents the apology of the Roosevelt Administration for the postponement of the President's campaign against Trusts until after the adjournment of Congress. It simply comes to this, that Mr. Roosevelt all along had wanted such legislation as he earnestly advocated in his speech at Pittsburgh three days after the Senators and Representatives who might have enacted it had left Washington, but that he followed the advice of Attorney-General Knox to see what could be done with the present so-called Sherman Anti-Trust Law before asking for anything more. Accordingly, the apology proceeds, the prosecutions of the Northern Securities Company and the Beef Trust were started largely with the idea of giving Mr Knox points for the supplementary legislation which it was thought, some weeks ago, might be needed, and which both the President and the Attorney-General became convinced was demanded. This conclusion having been reached, the measure required will be carefully framed during the recess, and then "an anti-Trust bill will go through Congress at its next session by a practically unanimous Republican party vote, if by no other. This is the Administration programme," announces the well-informed correspondent.

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One serious defect in this apology is the fact that the next session of Congress will be the short one, with much less than ninety days of working time, and with more to do in the line of ordinary legislation than can be well done. Another difficulty about the Administration's defence of its silence on the Trust issue until after Congress had adjourned, is found in the character of the promise now given that the action which was concededly needed before the last session ended will be taken at the next session. "An anti-Trust bill," we are now assured, "will go through Congress at its next session with a practically unanimous vote." How does the country know this will be done? Why, because "this is the Administration programme." If the Roosevelt Administration had not yet encountered Congress, the nation might be ready to accept such a guarantee. But people remember that the Administration had a "programme" on a most vital issue when Congress met last December. It was set forth by the President in these pungent words:

> "I most earnestly ask your attention to the wisdom—indeed, to the vital need—of providing for a substantial reduction in the tariff duties on Cuban imports into the United States. . . . We are bound by every consideration of honor and expediency to pass commercial measures in the interest of her material well-being."

People also remember that Congress adjourned without having carried out this "Administration programme." What assurance can the President give that the same Congress will be any more tractable when another "Administration programme" is sent from the White House to the Capitol next winter?

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Representative Griggs, Chairman of the Democratic Congressional Committee, loses no time in reminding the Republicans and President Roosevelt how open to ridicule they will be for suddenly discovering that there is need of Federal legislation against Trusts. Do they want to make the campaign one huge joke? Or is their anti-Trust demonstration merely a passing feint? Mr. Griggs puts the case pungently. While actually in session, with Congress in their complete control, the Republicans did not lift a

finger, did not even peep or mutter, against the Trusts. On the contrary, they applied their fine brute majority to voting down every proposal of the Democrats really to do something to restrain and punish monopolies. How, then, can it be taken as other than pure farce, or the coolest impudence, for the Republicans to go about the country declaring that it is necessary to keep them in power in order to curb the Trusts? The question will be thrown in President Roosevelt's face with every speech he makes. He will be asked to state whether the whole thing is a sham, whether he has flung himself into the movement with the rash enthusiasm of youthful ignorance, or whether he has maturely considered it and is in the fight to stay. Now we beg to assure him again that the only way in which he can make his sincerity and determination entirely clear in this business is frankly to say that he stands ready to see the tariff breastworks of the Trusts levelled to the ground. If he does not mean to fight as one that beateth the air, that is the blow he must be prepared to deliver.

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Missouri halts the movement for Democratic reorganization upon the basis of ignoring the Kansas City platform of 1900 and taking a fresh start, which was begun in Indiana and continued its advance in Illinois. The regular State convention of the party does not meet until July 22, but a special convention was held at Springfield last week to nominate three candidates for the Supreme Court. The reorganizers wanted to remit all matters pertaining to State and National affairs to the later convention, and have no more platform now than an endorsement of the Democratic Governor and other State officials; and the majority of the Committee on Resolutions so reported. But a Bryanite promptly moved to amend by adding a resolution that "we, the Democrats of Missouri, in convention assembled, do hereby endorse the principles of the Democratic party as enunciated in the National Democratic platform of 1900 in Kansas City"; and, after a lively discussion, this was carried by the overwhelming vote of 501 to 199. It is significant that all but four of the 122 delegates from the city of St. Louis were against clinging to the silver folly any longer, but most of the farmers remained faithful to Bryanism. There is reason to fear that this tendency prevails among many Democrats in rural districts at the South and in the further West, and the existence of such a sentiment is a serious obstacle to harmony in the party.

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It was all very well for Congress to get rid of the currency difficulty in the Philippines by shelving it, but that does not help matters in Manila. Not only merchants, but army officers and teachers and other civilian employees, are left at the mercy of a fluctuating exchange which makes them unable to tell in advance what the net product of their salaries will be. Secretary Root is said to be overwhelmed with remonstrances from business men in the Philippines, and protests from school-teachers, all dwelling on the mischief of the present financial chaos in the archipelago. The two houses of Congress could not agree on a remedy, and so, with a sigh of relief, decided to apply none. But how imperatively one is needed, every Manila mail which reaches the War Department testifies afresh. Many of the teachers write that they will be forced to resign and return home unless they can be assured of getting full value for their wages. They at least will be ready, in the far-off Philippines, to believe that "the wisdom of Congress" diminishes directly as the square of the distance. That is a principle which the whole history of colonization has established almost mathematically.

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Gen. Chaffee's relief, after two years of service as commanding general in the Philippines, comes as a surprise. It is at his own request, however, and, as the latest Manila reports have represented him as being worn out by his heavy responsibilities, he has evidently had all the tropical service good for him. He will probably be able to report by September 30 the total pacification of the islands. Both Gens. Otis and MacArthur have asserted their claims to the exclusive use of the title of conqueror, but it goes almost without saying that Gen. Chaffee's régime has been the most successful from the military point of view. Essentially a soldier, and not a diplomat, Gen. Chaffee has stuck to his work with great grit, and—marvellous as it seems—we cannot recall that he has made a foolish speech or given out a "sensational" interview during the entire period. He has trusted his subordinates and given them a free hand. When the Waller case was brought to his attention, he was quick to take it up, and his comment upon it reveals a man of humane instincts. While slow to begin social relations with the Filipinos, he did finally follow the lead of the Civil Commission in trying to get at the leading natives of Manila. Like all his predecessors, he has frequently erred for lack of personal information as to what was going on among his troops. His ignorance of the water cure, if it was ignorance, is a case in point, for he could have stopped it at any time had he so desired.

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Lieut. A. J. Dougherty, Twenty-eighth Infantry, has written a valuable letter from the Philippines to the *Army and Navy Journal* in defence of the present "dry" or temperance canteen. "Of the many who loudly condemn the canteen without beer, I do not know one who has given it an honest trial," he declares. He then proceeds to give his experiences with a "dry canteen" which he organized for his company last March, in a town which contains half-a-dozen native rum-shops and a saloon run by an American "civilizer." From January 15 to March 15 forty-five soldiers were tried for drunkenness. In the two months following the establishment of the "dry" post exchange by Lieut. Dougherty, only two men similarly offended. In view of these facts, he thinks that the present system should be given a fair trial, and not be generally condemned because of individual prejudices. It is interesting to note that Lieut. Dougherty disposes of still another argument of those who would give the soldier Government beer. The profits of his exchange were $367.10, while there was $169 worth of stock on hand at the end of the period mentioned, although the canteen was started without any capital. Henceforth it will be difficult to appeal for the beer canteen on the ground of the extra luxuries and comforts it earns for the soldier, as compared with the temperance exchange.

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President Schurman spoke a fit word on "Education in the Philippines" in his address before the National Education Association at Minneapolis on Thursday last. Confident of the capacity of the Filipinos to receive and profit by the best that the Occident can teach them, he went on to say that we could not pretend to be carrying to them education unless it included instruction in American political philosophy. This, as Mr. Schurman pointed out, is something all our own. It has asserted the value of liberty in and of itself. It has glorified a self-governing democracy as the broadest-based, and so the safest and most stable, form of government. It has preached national independence as the right and blessing of every people. Now, is it to be supposed that we Americans can educate the Filipinos without imparting to them these fundamental political doctrines? Can we teach them applied mechanics and withhold from them applied freedom? The questions answer themselves. If we are sincere in our professed desire to educate the Filipinos, we must hold up before ourselves, and before them, the goal of an independent Philippine republic. It is because President Schurman believes in Filipino education that he believes also in Filipino independence as its sure consummation. Aspiration for independence will certainly not be diminished by education.

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The Agricultural Department's estimate of crop conditions, published on Thursday afternoon, shows that the dangers to the various harvests are by no

means past, and will not be for two months yet. But the first and most serious of them—the blighting of the crop in the early stages of its growth—has been passed successfully. This is precisely the week when, a year ago, it became known that the growing corn was seriously damaged. It is true that the hot wave continued for weeks after this period; it was not, in fact, until the 20th of August that the devastating drought in the Missouri valley was finally broken. But, with corn, the point of interest is that conditions are such already as to preclude entirely any general harm from drought. Meantime, the average condition of the crop, with a largely increased acreage, appears to indicate a corn yield not only running a billion bushels beyond 1901, but exceeding all other corn crops in our history. Probably there will be some impairment later on, but hardly such as to upset expectations badly. Wheat, on the other hand, does not make as good a showing as last year. Early drought in the winter-wheat belt cut down prospects at the start, and some decrease in the Northwestern acreage added its effect; so that the probable yield is a full 100,000,000 bushels less than in 1901. It should be added, however, that last year's wheat crop was abnormally large—a fact which did very much to offset the bad results of the corn-crop failure. Except for the huge production of last year, and one or two others equally exceptional, the indicated wheat yield for 1902 is greater than any actually harvested in the past.

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Why should a change in the English premiership seem so much more important than one in the French? Why does Mr. Balfour succeeding Lord Salisbury win from us an attention which we never thought of giving to M. Combes when he replaced Waldeck-Rousseau? Something, of course, must be allowed for the interest which we take in the politics of a nation of our own blood and speech, and which, in the nature of the case, must be more vivid than that we feel in the public life of any other European country. But, beyond all this, we see in England a party system of government, still in full vigor, under which the party leadership stands for a solid and continuing representation of the people in a way quite impossible in France. There we have factions and "groups," instead of parties—or, if there are parties, they present themselves as if resolved into their ultimate and discordant atoms. The result is that the customary French premiership has too much the air of an ephemeral success in temporarily harmonizing conflicting interests. In this there is no promise of stability, and little of real power even for the day. Premiers come and go. But the English Government strikes its roots deeper. Its chief is such through representing and controlling stronger and more enduring political forces than a French Prime Minister ever feels at his back. Mr. Balfour may not be in his own person a more attractive or puissant figure than M. Combes; but he cannot but appear so, because of the body of English liberty, slowly broadening down from precedent to precedent, of which he is the product.

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Now that the war in South Africa is over, the English are beginning to take a different attitude about the achievements of their army, and to maintain that no other troops could have done so well. Comparisons unfavorable to the German army appear here and there. At Tientsin and Pekin, it is declared, the Anglo-Indian contingent proved far more mobile than the Germans, and showed "a more soldierly grasp of the exigencies of the case." A German general is cited, too, as stating his belief that no other nation could have done as well, so that there is a general feeling of jubilation in English military circles, despite the fact that Gen. Buller has at last publicly revealed himself as the totally incompetent officer he proved to be at Colenso in 1899. A similar feeling was noticeable in this country in 1898 at the close of the war with Spain. Of course, we blundered and wasted human lives in our death-camps, but, after all, we licked the Spaniards, was the cry. In England this change of feeling is ominous for the reform of the army. Possibly the Cabinet change may give Lord Roberts the occasion for retirement, and Lord Kitchener the opportunity, as commander-in-chief, to put through some of the reforms he has at heart. So far there have been few signs, indeed, of any serious movement towards a reorganization, and there has never been much confidence in Mr. Broderick's ability to overcome the enormous social influence which makes for a continuance of the present order of things military.

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The Emperor William is a realist among statesmen. He frankly recognizes power, whether it present itself to him in the form of a pedigree or a check-book. With Cecil Rhodes he met as with a fellow-monarch; he scandalized his own nobility by taking the rich ship-owner, Herr Ballin, off with him on his private yacht; so why should he not receive Mr. Morgan at Berlin with the honors usually reserved for royalty? That gentleman's countrymen have watched his European progress with mixed emotions. The kowtowing, or else the panic, which has marked his descent on various foreign shores, stirs their sense of the ridiculous, if it also flatters their national pride. If they could only forget their own frightened shrieks about him in 1893, they could laugh quite heartily at the agitated foreigners who are in such a state of dread lest he buy up all of their property, at three or four times what it is worth. This American invader must certainly seem a new type of Western democracy to the royalties who entertain him. Instead of clapping Cæsar's self upon the back and calling him "Old Hoss," the new style of "strong-limbed Goth" from over the seas takes his imperial attentions as the most natural thing in the world, and returns from Sans-Souci to eat, with the utmost *sang froid*, his "Salade, Steel Trust." But we observe that the German press is agog with wonder what *coup* Mr. Morgan will spring next.

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The retirement from office of the Prussian Minister, Herr von Thielen, who for eleven years has been head of the Bureau of Public Works, has called forth praise for his achievements even from political opponents. Having had twenty-seven years' experience on the Prussian railroads before becoming a member of the Council of Ministers, it was expected that the railway system particularly would benefit by his incumbency, and public opinion was not disappointed. Since 1891, the mileage has been increased 28 per cent., eighty millions of dollars have been spent on new and old stations, new and more powerful locomotives and more comfortable cars have been introduced, as well as additional safeguards in the way of air-brakes and electric block signals. Some few changes were effected in passenger and freight rates, and experiments made with a view to the use of electricity as motive power for long-distance traffic. Although himself slow to move in matters affecting wages and personnel, Herr von Thielen's incumbency has been distinguished by an increase in pay of some of the employees and a shortening of the hours of others. It is noteworthy, however, that the latter changes were in part due to a series of bad accidents attributed in many instances to overworked employees. None the less, this record of improvements is noteworthy in a state which is naturally extremely conservative and apt to be far behind private companies in the development of its lines. It has even been claimed for it that its trains are, on the whole, faster than our American ones; a contention which has been completely demolished by Mr. G. G. Tunell in the last *Journal of Political Economy*. Gen. Budde, the new Minister of Public Works, is a distinguished retired officer, who gained much knowledge of railroading while attached to the General Staff. He is also considered a canal expert, is a man of great energy, and, although only a little more than fifty, has had experience in the Prussian Chamber, and, since his retirement, has been head of a private ordnance and ammunition factory. Much is expected from his appointment, which has, in some circles, however, given rise to a fear that the Emperor means to still further "militarize" the Government.

*JINGOISM AND THE RIGHTS OF NATIONS.*

The cause of Right in its contest with Might has evidently been weakened for the time by the inroads which science and criticism have made on religious belief. Not that Jingoism is without a religion. It seems that religion of some kind is necessary to all. Flag-worship is the religion of the Jingo, and the presence of the flag constitutes right, and is the warrant for all that is done under it. The other day at Boston a ragman was fined twenty dollars for desecrating the flag by wrapping up rags in it, and the patriotic policeman who arrested him was presented with an honorary medal. What could a Catholic have done more in a case of desecration of the Host?

Of the influence of the growing belief that Might makes Right in international questions we have an incidental illustration in Mr. Norman's 'All the Russias,' a very interesting book and one of high literary merit. Mr. Norman vividly depicts the state of the Russian Empire—the unfettered, limitless, absolute rule of one man over his fellows; a Holy Synod whose God-given task it is to coerce or cajole into orthodoxy; a metropolitan society lapped in every luxury, esteeming manners more highly than morals; a vast and roadless country where settlements are to distances like fly-specks to window-panes, where the conveniences, the comforts, and often the decencies of civilization may be sought in vain outside the towns, where entire villages are the prey of hideous disease; a peasantry lodged in dilapidated hovels, living in dirt and inexpressibly verminous, generally given to drunkenness, seven-tenths of them illiterate, and sometimes the victims of most revolting superstitions. Add to this a conscription which tears the youths from their homes to be made food for the cannon in the service of an insatiable ambition; add also the inevitable consequences—the wild heavings of discontent repressed by the Cossack's cruel whip, student rebellions, nihilism with its dynamite bombs, and huge state prisons with their mysteries of horrors.

"I only desire here," says Mr. Norman, summing up, "to make clear the two great characteristics of the Russian social fabric, without an appreciation of which no Russian question or prospect can be intelligently judged—autocracy, the semi-divine, unquestioned, unbounded authority, at the top; its counterpart, illiterate, superstitious, brute-like dependence and automatonism, at the bottom."

On the other hand, Mr. Norman describes Finland, annexed by the fortunes of war and territorial rapine to Russia, but still preserving by treaty a partial autonomy, a Constitution with a Diet, and political rights of its own. Finland is a country, naturally barren, which intelligent and strenuous industry has made fertile. The character of the Finn is attractive. "Within his hard shell there is a tender kernel of romance and playfulness and song." He is temperate, the sale of alcohol in any shape or form being absolutely prohibited outside the towns. Finland is a land of schools. Except upon the eastern frontier, which is still backward, everybody can read and write. Out of every hundred of the entire population, something like twenty-three are at school. Out of a population of 2,380,000, there are 2,600 university students. Learned societies flourish. The country is prosperous, the public debt is small, and every penny has been incurred for construction of railroads.

But Russia now seeks to swallow Finland and deprive the Finns of their local nationality and their Constitutional privileges. Mr. Norman's judgment as to the rights of the question seems clear. "There is no doubt whatever," he says, "the contention of the Finns is right and that of the Russians wrong." "When Finland," he adds, "was taken from Sweden and annexed to Russia in 1809, the Czar Alexander I. conferred upon it, and conferred willingly and from conviction of the expediency of the act, a distinct autonomy, and that autonomy has been confirmed by the coronation declaration of each succeeding Czar." We might suppose, then, that Mr. Norman would give judgment emphatically in favor of the Finn, and would speak with indignation and sorrow of the attempt to merge a free, noble, and progressive nationality in the dead expanse of Russian slavery. Not so:

"To be quite frank," he says, "the charge of violation of the Finnish Constitution is met by one simple consideration. As a matter of plain fact, there is in human affairs of this kind no such thing as finality. Or, rather, the only final thing is *force majeure*—imperative national self-interest. Before that, all promises are air, and all treaties are black marks on white paper. I put this brutally (foreseeing the consequences), but there is no use in mincing words. Every student of history, politics, or diplomacy knows it to be the simple truth; and every country, not Russia alone, affords examples in proof. Germany broke her promises to Denmark. France broke her promises about Madagascar. To come nearer home, England has repeatedly pledged herself to evacuate Egypt, and the United States was solemnly pledged to grant complete independence to Cuba. None of these pledges seems likely to be kept. Therefore, if it is, in the judgment of Russia, an imperative condition of her national prosperity or security that her relations with Finland should be fundamentally altered, she will only be following the ordinary line of historical and modern precedents by breaking her promises and tearing up her pledges. I do not defend the principle—I state the fact. 'Pity 'tis, 'tis true.' "

If Mr. Norman, a man of honor, does not defend the principle, he practically ratifies it as one of general application. It would apply to the relations of other great Powers with small nationalities, as well as to those of Russia with Finland; to the relations of Germany with Denmark and Holland, and to those of France with Belgium and Switzerland. It has just been applied to the relations of the British Empire with the two little South African Republics. Against its application in the case last mentioned, the Boer has fought heroically, so as to make predatory Powers beware, rendering thereby a lasting service to the cause of national independence.

"In conclusion," says Mr. Norman, "there is one more consideration which those who raise the loudest cries of illegality would do well to ponder. Russia, as one of her leading statesmen remarked to me, might, with perfect ease and safety and in all the odor of perfect legality, absorb the whole of Finland next month, and wipe it off the map as a separate entity. This would be the simple process: First, she announces that she withdraws from all protection over Finland, and grants to the former grand duchy absolute and complete national independence. Then, as the presence of an independent and possibly hostile state upon her exposed frontier would be obviously incompatible with her national security, she marches an army corps into Finland and annexes the country—lock, stock, and barrel. White to play—mate in two moves. There would be a huge outcry, but anybody who knows anything of contemporary Europe, knows that not a finger would be raised to stop her. And I do not see an American fleet steaming up the Baltic. Thus Russia could get all she wants, and infinitely more than she is asking, without transgressing for an instant or by a hair's breadth that sacred formal legality in which laws and lawyers often perpetrate injustice everywhere."

Had such a scheme of territorial spoliation under pretence of political necessity been devised by an Italian politician in the fifteenth century and recorded with approbation by Machiavelli, it would seem characteristic of that age. But here we have it endorsed by an English Liberal M.P. in the twentieth century as a perfectly natural method of circumventing the plain dictates of international morality, styled by him "that sacred formal legality in which laws and lawyers often perpetrate injustice everywhere." That the technicalities of law do sometimes, perhaps inevitably, work injustice, may be true; but the lawyers do not mean to do injustice, nor do honest men speak of it with levity as a clever application of the principle of *force majeure*.

In another part of the book Mr. Norman speaks of Skobeleff's massacre of the Turkomans, who, by his own account of them, must have been decidedly superior to the muzhiks and more full of promise for humanity:

"For two years Skobeleff made his preparations, and on January 1, 1881, he delivered his first attack upon this Turkoman stronghold [Geok Tepe] with 8,000 troops and more than fifty guns. Inside was the flower of the Turkoman race, with 7,000 women and children. Their felt tents were set on fire by petroleum bombs, artillery rained shell and shrapnel on them, gradually the trenches drew nearer; but they fought with a desperation which kept the Russians at bay for three weeks, and on more than one occasion they routed the invaders in a hand-to-hand struggle, and slashed them to death in their own trenches, leaving Russian heads and limbs scattered about. But the inevitable end came, and the slaughter of every male left in the fortress, and, after it, that terrible Cossack pursuit of flying men and women for ten miles."

"Opinions differ," says Mr. Norman,

"as to this part of the struggle." But he leaves his readers in no doubt as to the side to which his opinion leans. "If you would strike only once and thus be more merciful in the end, you must strike hard—was Skobeleff's motto in dealing with Orientals, as it has been that of all who have understood the Eastern character." There follows a playful allusion to the scarcity of bridegrooms for Turkoman brides consequent on the massacre.

Timur is, in Mr. Norman's estimation, "the mighty conqueror, one of the world's greatest dead." The epithets are well bestowed if devastation and massacre, both on the most hideous scale, are to be taken as proofs of greatness. The erection of triumphal pyramids of heads was Timur's particular fancy. On the ruins of Bagdad he erected a pyramid of ninety thousand. Covering a plain with children and seeing them trampled to death by his cavalry was another of his diversions. The great Jingo founded nothing permanent except the buildings of Samarcand—colossal, but, if we may judge from Mr. Norman's photographs, devoid of art.

How far will Jingoism go and how long will it last? Will it prevail, as some Jingoes seem to hope, till all the small nationalities have been absorbed by great predatory Powers? The answer to this and some other critical questions must greatly depend on the elaboration of a more settled basis for morality.

## *FINLAND'S LATEST TROUBLES.*

For some months past the news from Finland has been of a disquieting character. The accounts of the riots in Helsingfors in April last were undoubtedly much exaggerated, particularly in the European press, but the cause—the calling out of the first army recruits conscripted under the law of July 12, 1901—continues to arouse universal ill feeling. According to the latest reports, between 70 and 80 per cent. of those designated for military service have failed to present themselves. Naturally there has been and is much anxiety throughout Finland as to the course the Russian authorities will take to punish the recalcitrants for what is undoubtedly a national protest against legislation plainly contrary to the Constitution of Finland. Fortunately, the only action on the part of the St. Petersburg authorities thus far announced, the appointment of an assistant to the Governor-General, bears on its face some evidence that a milder policy towards the unfortunate Finns is under consideration.

The law of July 12, 1901, which has caused the existing crisis, is but another step in the Russianizing of Finland which has gone on so rapidly under the present Czar. Prior to the so-called reforms of last year, the organization of the Finnish troops was, on the whole, a pretty satisfactory one from the military point of view. Moreover, the policy by which Finns served next to and under their countrymen appealed particularly to a people whose Constitutional privileges are disappearing one by one. This has all been done away with, and the conscripts are now to be forced into Russian regiments, while the old organizations have been mustered out for all time. Since the Finns differ from the Russians in religion, habits, and customs of life, and speak a language of their own, it is much as if Hindus were forced to serve in Anglo-Saxon regiments. It is not surprising that, under these circumstances, the few Finns who have responded to the call have been hooted and jeered and regarded as cowards or traitors in more places than one.

But, more important than this and than the doubling of the quota required from Finland, is the fact that the law itself has been forced upon the country regardless of its Constitutional prerogatives. The first proposals for the Russianizing of the army in Finland were laid before the lower house of Parliament in 1899, and were rejected. At the same time some changes were made in the directions desired, which would, it was thought, appease the War Office. This did not, however, prove to be the case, and the Governor-General, Bobrikoff, succeeded, with the aid of the Czar, in forcing the present decree upon the people without the consent of Parliament. The first result was an immediate protest by half a million citizens in the shape of an address to the Czar, in which it was maintained that the decree could not be regarded as a legal enactment. There was also a petition for a return to the Constitutional method of enacting such laws. No attention whatsoever was paid to this appeal, and Bobrikoff set himself in hot haste to the disbandment of the troops, regardless of the consequences, personal and financial, to officers and men. The local recruiting boards having declined to act further, the general conscription commissions were empowered to select the new men needed—another unconstitutional action which fanned the growing flames of resentment.

So bitter was the feeling in Helsingfors that on the 17th of April only 56 of the city's 860 conscripts presented themselves in the presence of a large and ugly crowd, which protested, by word and deed, against their appearance. It was not difficult for the Governor of the province to find an excuse to let loose without warning a squadron of Cossacks upon the indignant people. These hated foreigners did not hesitate to ride down and beat men, women, and children wherever they could overtake them. For these valiant services they were publicly highly praised by Governor-General Bobrikoff. An indignant protest to the Czar from the city fathers has met the same fate as the petition mentioned above.

Nobody can foretell what the outcome will be. There are still those who expect better days for Finland, despite the evident desire of Bobrikoff and his followers to destroy every vestige of popular government and wipe out every evidence of a separate nationality. The optimists base their hopes upon the resolute moral opposition of the entire people to the present Russian policy, and upon the hope that some day the Czar will see through the tissue of misstatements and falsehoods which now prevents his hearing and seeing the truth about Finland. Those who feel thus have taken fresh courage at the appointment, as assistant to the Governor-General, of Privy Councillor von Dietrich, hitherto president of a St. Petersburg court, and noted for his unusual knowledge of the law. When he assumes office this month, it is thought that he will represent a milder policy than that lately pursued, or at least a determination to Russianize Finland by Constitutional methods.

As Finland's case now stands, it is still another impressive object-lesson as to the folly of attempting to destroy nationalities by force. Poland was finally wiped off the map in 1868, yet the hope of a national existence has never died out among Poles. So strong is it in Polish Russia that the Government has had to appropriate large sums of money for a campaign to keep its own influence from waning, and has begun a clever policy with a view to dividing the Poles among themselves. In Austria-Hungary, the strife of the various nationalities is the story of each day. In South Africa, by permitting the use of the Dutch language in schools and courts, by declining to suspend the Cape Colony Constitution, by praise of their quondam enemies, and by liberal financial assistance, the English seem to have begun upon a far-sighted policy. For the United States in the Philippines there is but one proper action—the building up and welding together of the Philippine nation, that it may go its own way at an early day.

## *SALISBURY AND BALFOUR.*

The personal interest which attaches to the Marquis of Salisbury, whose long-expected retirement is now an accomplished fact, is almost greater than the political. His public prominence for so many years served to exhibit in a strong light those qualities of private character which make the man a more fascinating study than the statesman. The real problem of his official career is, how such a personality as his—so proud, so aloof, so disdainful of the tendencies of his age, especially of its democratic

tendencies; no orator, no organizer; consistently a retired student by choice, and ever a reserved *grand seigneur* in a day of chattering familiarity—how such a man could have been leader of a great party in a great democracy for nearly a quarter of a century.

Lord Salisbury's natural tastes would have held him in the still air of delightful studies where his youth, as a younger son, was passed. Rosebery has given us one of his own boyhood's memories in recounting a glimpse he had at Hatfield House of "a tall bookish figure" stealing out of the library with a volume in his hand. It was Lord Robert Cecil. He was in his element as student, writer, *Saturday Reviewer;* and it was apparently only his unexpected accession to the headship of the family that made him turn his thoughts to public affairs. The Cecils had been a ruling house in England for three hundred years, and he took up that tradition with the title. It was, indeed, as a kind of hereditary ruler that he ever bore himself. No aristocrat could have hated and despised "popular movements" more than he did. One of his earliest speeches in the Commons breathed a sort of Coriolanus feeling as respects "the people." He was opposing a bill to remove the tax on newspapers, and "could it be maintained," asked Lord Robert, "that the people would learn anything from newspapers?" It was this lordly air of a Cecil that he carried into official life throughout. He had unquestionably great powers. It is probably not true that Bismarck said of him that he was a lath painted to look like iron; but if he did, it was a most mistaken characterization. The real metal was there. How he impressed so cool a head as Jowett may be seen in a letter of the latter's to Sir R. B. D. Morier:

> "Salisbury," he wrote, "is a man of great ability and perhaps even genius, but impulsive, forgetting one day what he did the day before, and imprudent to the last degree without being aware of his imprudence. He will settle off his own bat things of which he knows nothing, and is very reckless of consequences."

Salisbury's cynicism, his air of entire detachment from all that interested his fellow-men, his scorn for "people's tribunes"—if he disliked Gladstone, he loathed Chamberlain—would have made his leadership of the Conservative party for two decades a hopeless puzzle, unless those unprepossessing qualities had been overbalanced, as they were, by commanding parts. Proud as he was with a kind of mediæval pride, he was yet a thorough Englishman in submitting to the inevitable in politics, and in playing the game through without going off in a fit of the sulks. When Disraeli "dished the Whigs" in 1867, by outbidding them in an enlargement of the franchise, Salisbury (Lord Cranborne, as he then was) rated his leader openly, and accused him of being a traitor to Conservative principles; but he himself lived to pass, as Premier, an Irish land bill more radical than any that Mr. Gladstone ever fathered, and to be denounced in turn as a swallower of his own words and a renegade. Even, however, with this ability reluctantly to compromise, he carried into domestic legislation, as a rule, a spirit of "haughty unwisdom"—to borrow a felicitous phrase used of him by John Bright in 1878. He made himself a necessary man to his party, but it never followed him with enthusiasm, and always lived in fear lest one of his "blazing indiscretions" should bring political disaster upon it.

It was in foreign affairs that Lord Salisbury left his deepest mark. "I feel," wrote Lord Lytton to him in 1878, when he first went to the Foreign Office, "that you are destined to be one of England's greatest Foreign Ministers." There was, of course, a dash of "Lucile" exuberance in this, but Salisbury's great achievements in foreign affairs have been admitted even by his enemies. Bright said of him that he "left his unwisdom for home consumption"; and the series of international agreements on vexed questions which he concluded in his last term of office—with Germany, with France, with the United States, with Japan—would alone be enough to establish his fame. It was perhaps as much his misfortune as his fault that the burden of years and of personal sorrow should have induced him to leave the negotiations with the Transvaal in 1899 in the hands of an astute and too little scrupulous Colonial Secretary. It is impossible, at any rate, to believe that if Lord Salisbury had kept his grasp upon that affair, he would have allowed a causeless war to mar a premiership which otherwise would have associated his name in history with many notable victories of peace.

His predestined successor in the Conservative leadership was Mr. Balfour. As long ago as 1891, Mr. Bryce predicted in these columns that Balfour would become Prime Minister if he lived. It was not simply that he belonged to one of the great families—he is Lord Salisbury's nephew—but that his intellectual and moral qualities had marked him out for the succession. He has, or assumes, a languid manner; and his uncle's cynicism, often unfeeling, has descended to him in the form of witty and good-humored sarcasm. He is no orator, though a very able speaker; his mind being analytic, and his most powerful speeches being a merciless dissection of the arguments of others. In exposition he is less happy; and, as leader of the House of Commons, he has often shown great vacillation, and even something that looked like ignorance of the matter in hand—the pending Education Bill, for example—in piloting bills through the troubled waters of debate. He is reputed to be averse to hard work, though this may be only a result of a studied intellectual superciliousness, which Tories like, and an unwillingness to sit out tedious discussions in the House. As an administrator, his talent is all to be proved, if we except his Irish Secretaryship, where his rôle was mainly the simple one of repression, not administration. Yet he impressed Mr. Bryce eleven years ago as having "a fund of self-reliance and composure equal to any emergency."

He will have to draw upon it at once. His succession to the premiership is natural and easy; but to maintain himself there will require powers greater than any he has yet displayed. Already we see, in the resignation of the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that there are serious differences and embittered factions in the Conservative party. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's prompt throwing up of his office will be interpreted as a result of Prime Minister Balfour's having to choose between him and Chamberlain, and having thrown himself into the arms of the latter. Chamberlain is undoubtedly the more influential political leader, but is a dangerous man for Balfour to tie to. In any case, extensive party readjustments are inevitable, and a dissolution of Parliament cannot be long delayed. An exciting political period in England will be too soon upon us to make prophecy about it at this time seem anything but an unusually gratuitous blunder. Enough to-day to note the passing of one great figure in English public life, and the accession of a Premier of fine gifts and high character, who is a good friend of the United States, and a statesman whose rise by sheer ability makes one hope that he will be level with the great opportunities now before him.

## *PRICES AND THE INCREASING GOLD SUPPLY.*

The active resumption of gold-mining in the Transvaal, with the probability that before many months South Africa will again be enlarging the annual gold supply at the rate of three years ago, has revived in many quarters discussion of the effect which this increase in the world's output may have on commercial prices. So far as regards the gold supply itself, the position is rather curious. By the estimates of our mint, the world's gold production reached its maximum in 1899. Before the Boer war broke out in October of that year, the Transvaal was producing gold at the rate of some $80,000,000 annually. During 1900 and 1901, its yearly production was cut down by the war blockade to less than eight millions annually. Had production in other quarters of the globe remained stationary, the world's yearly supply would have decreased correspondingly. In the United States, however, the annual gold production increased $8,000,000 in 1900, and a million more in 1901. Canada produced $6,500,000 more in 1900

than in the year preceding, and while Australia's output decreased slightly, India's increased; the net result being a world's production in 1900 only $51,500,000 below 1899, with the difference even less marked in 1901.

In other words, resumption of its maximum output by the Transvaal—expected by the close of the present year—should immediately raise the world's annual supply to a figure beyond any recorded. Furthermore, it is believed by many experts that the Transvaal's annual production will be increased, in the next few years, as rapidly as it was in the three years before the war began—within which time its yearly output expanded from 2,280,000 ounces to 4,295,000. It is natural, in the face of such expectations, that the question should again be asked, what influence such additions to the world's supplies may have on the outside markets.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu discusses the question in a recent number of the *Économiste Français*. Briefly to sum up his article, he holds that in twenty-five years the stock of gold which he estimates to exist in the world to-day will be doubled. But as against the conceivable results of such expansion, he points out the rapid increase in population of the various states and the still more rapid increase in trade activity. The new nations, such as Japan, which are adapting their trade to modern business methods, are suggested as a moderating influence, and the countries which now use paper money, but which may convert their currencies, are finally brought into the problem. In short, M. Leroy-Beaulieu does not look for anything like a serious disturbance of the world's markets as a consequence of the coming increase in gold production.

The assumption on which the argument is based, that so great a ratio of increase is at hand, will probably be disputed in many quarters. We shall not undertake now to argue the highly technical question as to the existing stock of gold. For the present, it is enough to know that the ratio of annual increase is likely to pass beyond all precedent. That of itself is a phenomenon worthy of study as to its possible results. M. Leroy-Beaulieu undertakes to trace the course of action of the new gold supply on trade. It falls first into the hands of people employed about the mines and of capitalists interested in them. Through them it influences, first, the demand for luxuries; second, the volume of bank reserves; and, third, the inquiry for investment securities. Then, but more slowly, its influence, in his judgment, passes into other and remoter quarters. In general, this analysis conforms to that employed by Professor Cairnes in examining the movement and effects of the new gold produced in Australia and California, half a century ago. Professor Cairnes laid more stress on the displacement of labor in other industries, through the larger inducements of mining, and less on the question of bank reserves. This is natural, because he wrote in the day of the individual worker at a "claim," before the time of the cyanide process and the Kaffir "boy," and because the later economies in bank credits, based wholly or partly on cash reserves, have raised the banking phase of the question to more conspicuous importance.

The argument from increased reserves in banking institutions is inviting at first sight, because the money market is in the habit of drawing its own quick inferences from an increase or decrease in the reserve of a given institution. The situation of the present day, however, presents a rather striking offset to this influence, in the shape of expanded capitalizations. Nowhere is this phenomenon more notable than in the gold-mining industry itself, which is nowadays commonly capitalized, recapitalized, and at last overcapitalized. A dozen Transvaal companies mentioned in the London mining manuals, most of whose properties did not exist a few years ago, have to-day a total market valuation not far from $500,000,000, and they by no means measure the full capitalization of the Rand. Even if we suppose all the new gold to flow directly into the market where these securities are floated, and to stay there, this huge expansion of fixed capital still remains for the enlarged reserves to support. But, as M. Leroy-Beaulieu points out, and as the trade statistics show, the gold is not all retained.

In so far as the paper wealth derived from the sale of such overcapitalized enterprises adds to the purchasing power of the original owner or promoter, a new demand for luxuries and necessaries is no doubt created. But in this regard precisely the same is true of an owner or promoter—for instance, in the steel trade—who has sold at an excessive valuation to a Trust. This sort of demand, which is as plainly visible in America to-day as it was in England during the régime of the "Kaffir" magnates, does beyond question stimulate trade demand and emphasize the appearance of prosperity. Whether its contribution to prosperity is permanent, however, is quite another question. The fact that every such period of exaltation, even when accompanied by an unprecedented increase in the gold supply, results, as in 1857, in excessive bubble-blowing and eventually in severe reaction, provides one answer to the question.

## *A STORY OF ACHIEVEMENT.*

Charles Eliot, landscape architect, was "a lover of nature and of his kind, who trained himself for a new profession, practised it happily, and through it wrought much good." Such is the characterization in the recent volume devoted to his life, edited by his father, President Eliot of Harvard University. The book is an interesting story of achievement.

Born in 1859, Charles Eliot as a boy enjoyed every advantage of home, school, and travel, but was handicapped by a frail body and occasional illness. When a college senior, he suffered so much from indigestion, palpitation of the heart, headache, and low spirits that his father suggested postponing graduation; nevertheless, by husbanding his strength he pulled through. So reserved was he that to most of his classmates he was known only by sight. He left college, still in the dark as to a profession; and in groping his way to light he was helped less by his formal education than by his play. In boyhood he had been kept as much as possible in the open air, had explored on foot and on horseback every rod of country about Cambridge, had cruised along the New England coast and camped at Mount Desert. Thus he early developed an indelible memory for details of woodland, meadow, and watercourse. As might have been expected, he had a keen enthusiasm for outdoor life and a delicate appreciation of the beauty of scenery. Moreover, through keeping the log-books of his cruises and writing journals and letters, he had acquired a style that was concise, exact, and vivid; in the management of camping and sailing parties he had shown considerable executive ability. Relying on such tastes and faculties, he decided, in the September following graduation, to enter a profession then hardly recognized in the United States—that of landscape architect.

Preparation was difficult, for no school could offer him instruction. He spent eight months in the Harvard Department of Agriculture and Horticulture, two years and a half as apprentice to Frederick Law Olmsted in Brookline, and a year in Europe. From this training he gained knowledge, but not confidence: from Nice he wrote, "In dealing with men I am nowhere. . . . I know myself to be ill-made, . . . an unbaked loaf in the human bread-batch." His father tried to encourage him by replying, "Such dealings as you have thus far had with boys and men you have conducted suitably. . . . Where other men work eight hours a day, you must be content with five. . . . Take comfort in the thought that you can have a life of moderate labor." Despite misgivings and the discouragement of facing an ignorant and indifferent public, Mr. Eliot began independent practice in Boston in 1886; succeeded so well that in 1893 he became a partner of the Olmsteds, the principal landscape firm in the country; and advanced steadily till his death in 1897.

Here the record would end had he been nothing but a highly capable land-

scape architect. He was, however, penetrated by a conviction that recreation grounds are essential to the physical and moral health of cities. Having discovered his power, he plucked up heart, threw off ill health, and started to persuade first Boston, then Massachusetts, and the whole United States to procure sites for parks while land was cheap. He wrote for the press; he addressed meetings and testified at hearings; he organized latent opinion; and he inspired many minds and wills with the faith that moves Legislatures. His was the animating spirit of the Trustees of Public Reservations and of the Metropolitan Park Commission, whose labors between 1892 and 1902 opened in and near Boston 9,248 acres of land and water and 23.6 miles of parkway. Through this splendid enterprise he has taught America its most striking lesson in the importance of breathing-places. The work has been a model for similar undertakings elsewhere—notably, in this vicinity, the Essex County Park system of New Jersey; and his personal services were required by a number of cities, including New York. All this is the accomplishment of a man who was cut off at thirty-seven.

This signal success is no mystery. He had amassed knowledge; he was gifted with the artistic sense of fitness and proportion; he was a clear and vigorous writer, a persuasive speaker; but, above all, he was bred in the tradition of public service. His ancestors on both sides had been useful in their day. He had seen his father happy as President of Harvard and moulder of the educational system of the country, earning a fraction of the salary that equal skill and energy would have commanded in law, in railroading, in manufacturing, or in business. In a college theme Charles Eliot had defined success as "the attainment of a sufficient competency, combined with the largest amount of usefulness to one's fellow-men." At the close of his first year of practice he said in a letter, "I enjoy the work and it suits me—and this is more to me than money-making." His talents, he felt, were for the profit of the community as well as for himself. The open secret is that he was able to win confidence, rally adherents, and achieve large results, because he was expert, unbiassed, and unselfish.

His reward was exceeding great; he beheld his influence extending through an ever widening circle, his beneficent visions becoming realities. His imagination, that foresaw in scattered swamp and stream, fen and fell, a possible unity, order, and beauty, must also have foreseen that for generations to come every one whose eye rests upon a new Eden, every convalescent breathing strength in our parks, every man and woman provided with healthful recreation, every child lured from the misery and vice of the streets, will owe gratitude to him for wisely directing a great popular impulse.

## A FRENCHMAN'S DIARY IN OUR CIVIL-WAR TIME.—I.*

September 13, 1864.—Wendell Phillips came to spend the day with us at Weymouth, Mass. He is, after Garrison, the most important representative of the abolitionists. I am told he is the foremost orator in the United States. His voice is pleasant and possesses much charm. His face, which is very noble, has fineness and distinction. Though his hair is already gray and his forehead bald, his general appearance is still youthful. Phillips is an agreeable talker, unpretending, with none of the affectations of a famous man.

At the present moment a serious dissension separates him from Garrison in respect to the reëlection of Mr. Lincoln. Phillips, in opposition to the Administration, is advocating Frémont, who has not the slightest chance of being elected President. This mistake shuts him out from a political career from which his abolition sentiments have hitherto debarred him, but upon which he might now have embarked, with the prestige of his immense talent, could he have been satisfied with the concessions made by Mr. Lincoln to the principles of the abolition school. When Garrison declared himself satisfied, and proclaimed his confidence in Lincoln, it is a pity that Wendell Phillips wasted himself in bitter and fruitless attacks on an Administration which, with all its momentary errors and shortcomings, has forwarded the emancipation idea beyond all precedent. The foresight, moderation, and elevation of view of the statesman have been wanting in the eloquent orator and apostle; and in the present crisis his marvellous qualities have turned against him and made his unreasonable opposition more illogical.

"I believe," said I to him, "that Mr. Lincoln will be reëlected. It is seldom that executive power is changed during a war."

"Yes," he answered, "but Lincoln's reelection will make our task dreadfully heavy. We have got nothing from him except by pressure. We have constantly to be pushing him from behind."

September 15.—Visited Charles Sumner in Boston.† A tiny house in Hancock Street, over the hill which is crowned by the State House. Sumner received me in a small room whose walls were covered with engravings, mostly by Nanteuil. A resident of the Sandwich Islands was engaged in explaining to him the condition of the archipelago. In comes Mr. Wilson, like Sumner, a Senator from Massachusetts; homely in manner, of practical good sense, ardent patriotism, and great integrity. He has been to Maine. Mr. Lincoln has the full sympathy of the masses. It would be useless to try to oppose him; he has found a place in the heart of the nation. Wilson asks Sumner if, at the Republican Convention about to assemble at Worcester, he approves of proposing Edward Everett for Presidential elector. In the election of 1860, Everett was a Democratic Vice-Presidential candidate. When the war broke out, his patriotism rose superior to the strife of parties; or, rather, he no longer knew more than two parties, the friends and the foes of the Union. He will vote for Mr. Lincoln and support his Government, as he has been doing for three years. Sumner declares that Everett must be put on the Republican ticket, and is glad to see his name among Lincoln's partisans.

I walked with Sumner to the State House, where we viewed the archives; to the Public Library, and to Faneuil Hall. We dined at the Union Club, and afterwards drove to Cambridge. Old college buildings of red brick. Washington's headquarters during the siege of Boston.

September 16.—To Worcester, to attend the Massachusetts Republican Convention, by a special train carrying 1,625 delegates. The meeting was in Mechanics' Hall, and Alexander H. Bullock of Boston was chosen presiding officer. Everett was appointed Presidential elector by acclamation; Andrew likewise was nominated for Governor. The resolutions were for the continuance of the war, the abolition of slavery, and the reëlection of Lincoln. A fine speech from Mr. Bullock of Worcester. The assembly was orderly though numerous—plain folks deliberating sagely and maturely; serious; helping on the triumph of a cause which has nothing to offer to most of them, and which they serve voluntarily and disinterestedly. The parties are well organized; without organization the electorate in a democratic country is but dust, and the politician is as necessary to parties as the officer to armies.

September 17.—Visited Josiah Quincy at Quincy. His father, lately deceased at 92, witnessed the War of Independence.

September 21.—Called on Ticknor, who has a fine house overlooking the Common. I found him, much aged, in his library. He has no doubt that the North will prevail over the South, and thinks Lincoln will be reëlected. His uneasiness is for the future. The Union will be reëstablished, but will the love of it be renewed in the conquered States? He gives me some interesting details concerning the credit of the country, the States, and the municipalities. In the evening, dining at Edward Everett's, I was presented to Longfellow, who speaks French with great ease. A fine head, long, white, flowing hair, gray beard somewhat bushy, very mild and sparkling eye, extremely sympathetic countenance. It was, as he remarked with a sigh to Charles Sumner, the first time in three years that he had put on white gloves. (He lost his wife three years ago in very harrowing circumstances.) Mr. Everett also introduced me to Charles G. Loring, a Boston lawyer, who has written on international law; to John G. Palfrey, author of a history of New England, an agreeable and vivacious man; to Mr. Hooper, a member of Congress and a skilled financier; to Mr. Haven, a bank president; to Mr. Harper, a clever young lawyer. Lyulph Stanley, a tour-

*M. Auguste Laugel, the dean of the *Nation's* foreign correspondents—his connection with this journal having extended to the present time from the first volume and almost from the first number—has kindly permitted us to publish these extracts from his American diary. M. and Mme. Laugel left Liverpool in the *Scotia* on August 27, 1864, arriving in New York on September 7. Mme. Laugel was revisiting her mother, Mrs. Maria Weston Chapman, one of the pillars of the anti-slavery movement and the future biographer of Harriet Martineau. Hence the diary opens at Weymouth, Mass. The English version is our own.—[Ed. Nation.

†Sumner had met the Laugels in Paris in the spring of 1857. He records in his diary dining with them on May 14, in company with Tocqueville.

ist like myself, was also of the party. Mr. Everett spoke to me of General Lafayette, whose salon he had frequented in 1818. He is familiar with French affairs.

I had to leave rather early, to attend a wedding at Mr. John Forbes's at Milton Hill. The bride and groom were to set off the next day for Burlington, Iowa. I saw a number of young and gracious faces.

September 24.—With Sumner I called on Garrison at the office of the Anti-Slavery Society. His spectacled face was known to me from photographs: a head quite bald, with a fringe of hair behind; features spare and without pronounced character. He received me like an old acquaintance, with much affection and good will. There is nothing timid in his manner. He expresses himself quietly, simply, like a man who knows exactly what he would say, with none of the affectations common to those who belong to a sect or coterie. "Our sole, our most cherished desire," he remarked to me, "is to disappear, to become of no use, to dissolve our Society. We think we cannot yet do this because the slaves are not all freed; but we are approaching the goal." What noble language! And I felt it to be absolutely sincere. "Nunc dimittis, Domine, servum tuum."

We talked of a recent speech of Seward's at Auburn, in which the orator intimated that all the so-called war measures would cease to have effect on the termination of the war. "Seward," said Garrison, "has always been fond of ambiguity; but this declaration has no importance—it is a truism. Plainly, the war ended, everything returns to the usual order; but what is done is done, and nothing can undo it. I have entire confidence in Mr. Lincoln's honesty; his honor is involved in his fidelity to his Emancipation Proclamation. No doubt he has always affirmed that beside his power there is another, that of the Supreme Court. Should this court some day succeed in depriving the Proclamation of all efficacy, Mr. Lincoln would not be to blame for it; but I have no such apprehension. Be assured that slavery has been stabbed to the heart, and nothing can restore it to life."

September 25.—Dined in the evening at the Boston Literary Club. Longfellow, Emerson, and Agassiz, who are members of it, were absent. The diners were Oliver Wendell Holmes, James Russell Lowell, E. P. Whipple, Judge Hoar of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts, Charles Eliot Norton, Dr. Hedge (a Unitarian clergyman), Dr. Estes Howe of Cambridge. Holmes, author of 'The Autocrat of the Breakfast-table,' 'The Professor at the Breakfast-table,' etc., possesses an abundance of wit of the finest quality. Lowell opened a discussion on points of grammar, with an eye to literary purism—an odd pretension on the part of the author of the 'Biglow Papers.'

September 26.—Left for Newport, where we enjoyed the hospitality of Mr. Sam Ward. Calls from Mr. and Mrs. George Bancroft and Mrs. Julia Ward Howe. Bancroft has written the history of the foundation of the United States. His face is spare and grimacing. When he talks, you forget its little peculiarity. His conversation was upon State rights and was very patriotic. Mrs. Howe is the muse of Boston—a muse already mother of several charming young girls and still charming herself, although somewhat thin and pale; delicate, intellectual, refined; inclined, like all true poets, to lofty philosophic views; with some affectation, not without its charm; much distinction of manner and of carriage.

October 1.—Called on Edmund Quincy at Dedham; on Mr. Charles G. Loring at Beverly, whose fine trees skirt the seashore, and include magnificent pines and maples. Mr. Loring is seventy years old. A son of his is a colonel in the army.

October 12. — Niagara. . . . Chicago. Called on Gen. Hooker, for whom I had a letter from the Comte de Paris. The talk was upon the war, the Confederates' advantages from the military point of view, the condition of parties. On leaving the regular army, Hooker was for ten years a farmer in California. Walker tempted him with the offer of command of an expedition to Nicaragua, a fine opportunity for carving out an empire. He was frightened by the word "filibuster" and declined. A good deal of the farmer is still visible in the General: he has neither beard nor moustache; a keen eye; a frank sort of character.

October 18.—La Crosse, Wisconsin. The difficulty of navigating the Mississippi at the present moment prevents my going to St. Paul. Here for the first time I have a sight of Indians, four men in red blankets, a woman, and a child, about a great wood fire on the bank of the river. The woman was wholly concealed in a wretched gray cloak; the men were bareheaded, and their thick, stringy black hair, blown about by the wind, almost covered their sombre countenances. At a distance four steamboats showed the white lines of their upper works. La Crosse, despite its shops along the bluff, its warehouses, its elevator, has a poverty-stricken and forlorn aspect. We begin to feel ourselves beyond the pale of civilization. In the evening, in the lower hall of the tavern, about the red-hot stove, I observe silent groups of wild-looking men, and now first the faces of those adventurers common in the Mississippi and Missouri valleys, with unkempt beards, dirty garments, shawls in which the men wrap themselves, poncho-fashion; broad-brimmed hats jammed over their eyes.

Quincy, Illinois.—The town gas suddenly goes out; everybody aroused. Missouri invaded by General Price, causing great uneasiness in southern Illinois, Missouri, and Kansas.

I descend the Mississippi on the *Sucker State*. A Methodist farmer in discussion with a Universalist lady, who thinks herself too perfect to be damned, insists on damnation. Some talk about Kansas with a young man from that State who is reading Tocqueville in an English translation borrowed from the Leavenworth public library. As we approached Alton, I made a sketch of the bluff surmounted by a large building, the State prison. An innocent-faced young man watched my drawing. With some diffidence and very politely, he said: "You do that so quickly, sir, that I want to ask the favor of a copy." "Very gladly," I answered, and proceeded to duplicate the sketch for his benefit. "Now," said I, "may I ask what interest you had in it?" He blushed to his ears as he replied: "I was once in jail up there." I forebore to ask for what cause. At the present time, Confederate prisoners are kept at Alton.

St. Louis, Lindall House.—Call from Mr. William G. Eliot, Unitarian minister, a native of Massachusetts, but for many years settled in St. Louis. He relates the history of Missouri from the beginning of the war.

## SIR LESLIE STEPHEN, K.C.B.

LONDON, July 1, 1902.

Among all the coronation honors, none has been greeted with such universal and unfeigned satisfaction as the knighthood conferred upon Leslie Stephen. The grounds of this general approval are well worth notice, for they throw great light on the characteristics of an author of acknowledged distinction.

Sir Leslie Stephen's most obvious claim to honor is that he is a most eminent "man of letters," and that men of letters, in the sense in which that term used to be used, are rare in modern England. Of literary men—that is to say, of able writers who can express their thoughts with clearness and often with point in reviews, in magazines, or in newspapers—we have enough and to spare. There never was an age in which so many more or less educated persons could express themselves in print with ease, fluency, and correctness. These ready writers are not to be despised; to their labors we owe the existence of high-class newspapers and of interesting magazines; but though here and there a true man of letters makes it his profession to write in the newspapers, such a man is apt to show, even in his best work, how hard it is for him to maintain a high standard, either of thought or of expression, while he is occupied as a matter of business in supplying lively articles to ephemeral periodicals. As a matter of fact, the most solid contributions even to our magazines proceed from men who may have done literary work of a high character, but to whom letters are an incidental occupation of a life devoted to public or to professional aims.

The contrast between writers such as (to take eminent examples) Mr. Bryce or Mr. Morley, and the pure men of letters, of whom Sir Leslie Stephen is the representative, is marked and noticeable. No one, either in England or in America, will doubt that both the authors I have named have produced work of high worth and of great importance, but it is extremely difficult to think of either Mr. Bryce or Mr. Morley as primarily devoted to literature. We all know that either of them might have achieved, and have, indeed, actually gained, a high place in the world of letters, and some critics may regret that both these distinguished writers have not devoted themselves wholly to literature, but, in fact, they have not taken this course. They have become immersed in the public life of England. Their literary work has probably both gained and lost thereby; but what is certain is, that whenever the day comes, which one hopes is far distant, for summing up their career in some new edition of the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' as much will be said about their political conduct and principles as about their contribution to the world of books. The reason why this is worth noticing is that the men whose names I have recalled are, in this matter, but types of a very large class. The literature of modern England is to a great extent created by men to whom writing is an incidental occupation. With such

writers Leslie Stephen stands in marked contrast. The difference is illustrated by a comparison with his eminent brother. Whether, indeed, the literary output of Sir J. F. Stephen's or of Sir Leslie Stephen's labors is the larger in amount, it would be difficult to ascertain and rash to pronounce. What is certain is, that Sir J. F. Stephen's great powers were devoted in the main to the study and elucidation of the law, and to the attainment of hardly won but well-deserved professional success, while Sir Leslie Stephen has devoted his equally marked and rarer powers to literature. The one was an admirable specimen of a philosophic lawyer and vigorous controversialist; the other is the very type of a man of letters.

There is, however, a little danger that this expression, which has an Old-World flavor, may mislead my readers. Our author is devoted to literature, but this assuredly does not mean that the object of his writing is, or ever has been, the production of literary works which shall be monuments of their composer's skill in the use of language. It is one thing to be devoted to letters, it is quite another thing and a far less noble thing to be the worshipper of style. Consider for a moment all that a true devotion to literature really means, and what the qualities are which you have a right to demand from your man of letters. Of these the most salient though not the most important is a keen interest in all that concerns literature and writers. The exquisite 'Hours in a Library'; the biographies of Johnson, of Swift, and of George Eliot, as well as the scores of lives which our author has contributed to the 'Dictionary of National Biography'; that Dictionary itself, of which he planned the design and laid the foundation—all show the possession of that enthusiasm for letters which you find in men so different as Johnson, as Gibbon, as Macaulay, and is the note of the man to whom literature is the appropriate sphere of his intellectual activity.

Then, again, in the perfect man of letters, one looks for that complete independence or detachment of mind which makes him shun the bias due to the competition for professional success or the vehement participation in the conflicts of public life. From this kind of bias, which constantly takes from the apparently abstract theories of English thinkers a good deal of the perfect sincerity with which such speculations ought to be marked, our author is absolutely free. Every word he has written has the ring of absolute truthfulness. This, however, is in great part due, not to the mere absence of bias, but to that zeal for the propagation of truth without which the labors of the mere man of letters will appear to most of us to be of very little value. In this matter Sir Leslie Stephen stands preëminent among the men of his day. During the thirty years and more which have passed since he began publication, the 'Essays on Free Thinking and Plain Speaking,' the 'History of English Thought in the XVIIIth Century,' the 'Science of Ethics,' 'An Agnostic's Apology,' 'Social Rights and Duties,' and the 'English Utilitarians' each afford evidence of Leslie Stephen's devoted ardor in the promotion of truthfulness both in speech and in thought.

But our author is much more than a typical man of letters; he is distinguished among men of letters by combining two characters which in England have always gained the interest and the respect of the great public: he is at once a charming biographer and an impressive moralist. Of his charm as a biographer there is no need to say much—it is known to every man throughout England and the United States who has read the 'Hours in a Library,' or who reads month by month the exquisite sketches which will sooner or later allow us to enjoy another hour in the best-chosen of libraries. Of his weight as a moralist there is more reason to speak, because, though every one who has the least real interest in ethical speculation must be acquainted with Stephen's 'English Thought in the Eighteenth Century' and his 'Science of Ethics,' there are, it must be admitted, many so-called intelligent readers who may have been deterred from studying these two treatises by the idea (which is true) that they deal, and deal conscientiously, with moral questions of difficulty; and also by the notion (which is unfounded) that Stephen's moral theories are abstract, over-refined, or incomprehensible. The plain truth is, that the biographer and the moralist play into one another's hands. No one finds it difficult to follow our author's biographical studies, yet they are filled with acute criticisms and philosophic speculation. His more abstract works, on the other hand, are to a great extent biographies. 'English Thought in the Eighteenth Century' is a most admirable monograph on a most difficult subject, but it does not deal with abstractions. With extraordinary skill it mingles the history of thinkers with an analysis or criticism of their thoughts. The same remark holds good of the 'English Utilitarians.' Nowhere can you obtain better lives of Bentham, of James Mill, and of John Mill, but nowhere can you also obtain a more searching and subtle criticism or a more valuable appreciation of Benthamite Utilitarianism. The 'Science of Ethics' is, indeed, in form more abstract, but in its substance it in reality exhibits the remarkable and happy connection between biography and ethics which is the peculiar and most valuable characteristic of Stephen's moral teaching.

His intense and thoroughgoing desire to arrive at true conclusions on the fundamental principles of morality gives a speculative interest to the pictures and analysis of character which belong to biography of the best kind. His immense knowledge of the actual lives of men guards him against that abstract, and therefore unreal, way of looking at things which is the special weakness of systematic thinkers; it supplies, indeed, a good deal of that sort of knowledge which some writers have gained from large acquaintance with affairs or from mixing with the world, and is often lacking in teachers who have studied books more than men. John Mill, for one, would assuredly have gained a good deal from that wide knowledge of the lives and feelings of men who had lived and played their part in the world, which gives a tone of reality to even the most abstract of Stephen's speculative works. It is this quality, at any rate, combined with his subtle and playful humor, that makes Sir Leslie Stephen a moralist in the sense in which our grandfathers applied the word to Dr. Johnson. The Lexicographer and the creator of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' had this at least in common: they were conscious of the humor of life even when they took a somewhat depressed view of human nature; they each knew and felt that morality was not an abstract science, but a body of rules which ought to conform to the nature of man; they each corrected moral speculation by interest in biography. If it were not for Boswell's 'Life of Johnson,' it may be doubted whether the sage would be known to modern readers by any of his prose works except the 'Lives of the Poets.' Of Sir Leslie Stephen's moral speculations, one may be allowed to think more highly, as far as their abstract value goes, than of Dr. Johnson's moral dogmas; but it is at least conceivable that Stephen's ethical doctrines, which have already produced a very considerable effect, may be best remembered a century hence because of their close connection with biographies which can hardly lose their charm.

However this may be, his latest work, 'George Eliot,' which itself deserves a special notice, illustrates to the full the fact on which it is my object to insist, that biography, criticism, and moral doctrine are so blended together in all our author's pages that he is, to many English readers, as was Johnson to the men of the eighteenth century, the best of biographers as well as the weightiest of moralists. To such readers and pupils, who are numbered by thousands, it gives profound satisfaction that the honors bestowed by the King make it clear that England appreciates living merit, and that, as regards Sir Leslie Stephen, we need not wait to

> "See nations, slowly wise and meanly just,
> To buried merit raise the tardy bust."

AN OBSERVER.

## THE NATIONAL POET OF GREECE.

ZAKYNTHOS, June 18, 1902.

On Saturday, the 15th of June, was ended in the pretty island of Zakynthos a proud and glorious triduum of feasts commemorating Dionysios Solomós, the national poet of Greece. Solomós was twenty-three years of age when, in 1821, the war for freedom began in Greece. The Zakynthians were at that time British subjects, for since 1809 Zakynthos had been under English protection and rule. They nevertheless fraternally sympathized with the Greek patriots, and many of them crossed over to the mainland and personally participated in the long struggle against the Turks. In word and sympathy Solomós was of all Zakynthians the most fervid champion of the Hellenic cause. It seems inexplicably strange that, during the seven exciting years of the war, he never once determined to take his gun and join in the hot combat.

Zakynthos was a Venetian possession for more than three hundred years, up to 1797. Under the influence of this protracted foreign control, the nobles, who constituted the highest class of Zakynthians, became out-and-out Italian in many of their habits and in language. All Ionian culture was Italian. Young Solomós at the age of ten years was sent off to Italy to be educated. Ten years later he came back to Zakynthos with a good knowledge of Italian language and literature and a lawyer's diploma from the University of Pavia. While yet a student in Italy he had begun to compose in

Italian verse, and these first short poems of his were so sweet and artistic that one of his friends and teachers, the learned priest Santo Rossi, who, like many other Italians of that time, regarded Monti as the favorite poet of Italy, used, in his enthusiastic admiration for the young poet from Zakynthos, frequently to exclaim: "Greco, tu farai dimenticare il nostro Monti." If, following the example of his townman Ugo Foscolo, our poet had permanently established himself in Italy, the enthusiastic hopes of Rossi and his other friends might possibly have come true.

After his return home he continued to compose successfully in Italian. These poems, just like many of those which he wrote in his later years, were not primarily intended for publication, and a good number of them have been lost. But, in spite of the beauty of his Italian compositions, his fame rests entirely on what he wrote in Greek. In the year 1822 Spiridion Trikoupes, the noted historian and patriot, on the occasion of a visit to Zakynthos, heard Solomós read one of his Italian poems, "La Prima Messa." Trikoupes warmly exhorted him to cultivate his native language and to write in Greek, and thereby to assist in encouraging and inspiring the men who were engaged in the desperate fight for freedom. The poet accepted the patriot's advice, and began to study the Greek language. But he never thoroughly mastered it, and one of the peculiarities of his Greek poems, if not also one of their attractions, is a certain precipitous inaccuracy of expression. He had no correct knowledge of ancient Greek, for he had studied the classical writers not in their original tongue but in Italian translations. He fell in love with the popular ballads and klephtic songs of the people, and became persuaded that the language in which these unpretentious compositions were clothed was the best linguistic medium for the Greeks of his day.

In Greek, his first poem of note was his pæan to Liberty. Whatever virtues his other poems may possess, it is this hymn which created his fame and sustains it. It was written in May, 1823. Before it was printed and published, Trikoupes read it in manuscript, and, elated by its sublime patriotism, carried it to Byron, who then lay dying in Missolonghi, intending to read it to the great Philhellene; but he did not arrive in time. The "Hymn to Lberty," as soon as published, became widely known. Attempts have been made to translate it into most of the languages of Europe, but always with ill success. Many of the strophes are absolutely untranslatable on account of their strange language and strange thought. At least two versions, inaccurate and insipid, have appeared in English; the earlier of these was the work of Charles Brinsley Sheridan. It appeared among his 'Songs of Greece,' which he published in London in 1825. The first two stanzas are rendered thus:

Yes! I know thee by the lightning
Of thy tyrant-slaying glaive,
By thine awful glances bright'ning
As thou gazest on the brave.

Kindle from our country's ashes,
Liberty! thy sacred fire—
Many a Spartan sabre clashes,
Breathe on one Tyrtæan lyre!

The second version was made and published in 1858 by a Zakynthian, Georgios Kanáles, who lived long in America, and was known to many of our literary men of the first half of the nineteenth century. It begins as follows:

By thy falchion's edge tremendous,
By thy glance that measures earth,
By thy thoughts and works stupendous,
Freedom! well I know thy worth!

Welcome to thy new existence,
Ancient spirit of the free,
While thy modern sons' resistance
Breaks the yoke of tyranny.

In 1828 Solomós left Zakynthos and went to live in Kerkyra, the capital city of the Ionian State. Here he died in 1857. Among his friends and admirers at Kerkyra the warmest and truest was Mánzaros the musician and composer. Four years after the poet's death Mánzaros received from Bozzaris, a member of King Otho's Cabinet, a request to compose a march which should awake new earnestness in Greece, and especially in the army. Mánzaros complied by setting Solomós's Hymn to music. Three years after this, when a Danish prince whom the Powers had chosen to be the successor of Otho, as King of Greece, landed at Kerkyra (which, with the rest of the Ionian State of the Seven Isles, had just been added to his dominions), he heard the march and was so much pleased with it as to declare that the music of the first two strophes ought to be adopted as the "national air" of Greece. His wish became law, and this "Hymn to Liberty," with the first two strophes of Mánzaros's music, is now the official National Song of Greece. Mánzaros's music to the following strophes has been lost.

Besides other poems of a patriotic nature, such as the "Death of Byron," fragments of a hymn to Marco Bozzaris, "Missolonghi, or the Freemen Besieged," the "Destruction of Psara," he wrote a number of short poems, most of them beautiful and touching—some of them, like his "Lampros," too weird for art; many of them merely disjointed members of some unfinished masterpiece. During his lifetime his poems were never collected. After his death his admirers were disappointed at not finding among his papers the manuscripts of different poems which they had reason to believe he had written but had never published. Suspicion was aroused that these manuscripts had been stolen. It is quite probable, however, that the poems in question were never finished, but merely planned. There was a slight hope that, on the occasion of these Zakynthian feasts, some hidden manuscripts would be brought to light. But as yet no such revelation has taken place.

In 1865 his relations and townsmen of Zakynthos disinterred his remains, which had been buried in Kerkyra, brought them back to his native island, and reinterred them in front of the Venetian Cathedral of Saint Mark. The spot is marked by a pedestal surmounted by a bust of the poet. But, to demonstrate their love for him, the Zakynthians determined to erect a new monument to his memory, and to unveil it on the hundredth anniversary of his birth. The anniversary, however, fell in the year 1898, while Greece was still pale and exhausted from the shame which the war of 1897 had brought upon her. Under such circumstances, even the light-hearted Zakynthians could not inaugurate days of rejoicing, and the celebration of the anniversary was postponed to the present year.

The statue was unveiled on the evening of June 13, the first of the festive days. It is made of fine Pentelic marble, by Broutos, an Athenian sculptor. The poet is represented as standing. In his left hand he holds the manuscript of his poems. His right is uplifted, indicating that he is about to speak. This attitude recalls the fact that he used to take delight in reciting his poems to his friends. On his head he wears a crown of laurel leaves. The statue has been placed close to the harbor, and faces towards the sea, looking over to the mountains of the Peloponnesus and towards heroic Missolonghi. The second day was one of pleasure and amusement. At noon the guests of the city were entertained at a dinner given in the open air near the house where Solomós wrote the "Hymn to Liberty." In the afternoon thousands of people, natives and visitors, gathered to this same place and enjoyed themselves in one of those peculiar picnics known here as a "panegyris." In the evening a gala representation was given in the theatre by an Italian troupe which was called from Smyrna for the occasion.

The third and last day was the most soul-stirring of all. In the forenoon the invited guests assembled in the theatre, and Lampros, the most noted of all Athenian orators of to-day, spoke the praises of the poet, comparing him with Simonides of old. Professor Mistriótes, an enthusiastic Hellenist, read a critical and interpretative analysis of the hymn. Tabouláres, one of the best tragic actors on the Greek stage, recited portions of the Hymn and of other works of the poet. And Márgares relieved the monotony of unbroken solemnity by reading the poet's comic and satyric composition called "The Physicians' Consultation." In the afternoon the scene of celebration was transferred to the piazza in front of the Church of Saint Mark, where stands the monument over the poet's remains. Representatives of the University at Athens, of different patriotic and learned societies, of various communities, and of several noted personages gathered round the monument, and, with appropriate addresses, placed magnificent wreaths on the tomb. The most affecting moment was when Nikoláras, a Greek from the island of Psara, came forward with a wreath from his native island. Psara produced tremendous naval heroes in the war for independence, but her villages were burned to ashes, and most of her surviving inhabitants sought homes elsewhere after the war was over, for Psara was not included within the territory which the Powers decided to admit to freedom. The wreath from Psara was made from wild thyme and other mountain plants, so as to recall the unapproachably sublime lines of Solomós which he wrote when Psara was destroyed. He represents Fame as "wandering over the lone hills of the island and thinking about the deeds of the glorious pallikárs. She wears on her head a wreath made from a few herbs, the only vestige of life in that desolated land."

Throughout all Greece a lively interest was manifested in the celebration in Zakynthos. The journals everywhere devoted most of their space to topics relating to the poet and to the island. The *Panathenæa* devoted an entire number exclusively to the life of the poet and to his poetry. Telegrams and letters of congratulatory participation came to the managing com-

mittee from all quarters of the Hellenic world. The inhabitants of Kerkyra, where the poet spent the latter half of his life, placed a commemorative inscription on the wall of the house which he used to occupy. Only one man was notably absent who should have been present, the King.

Literary men in Greece are divided into two antagonistic schools as regards the phase of language which ought to be employed by writers. Some prefer the archaistic "katharevousa," which bears a remarkable outward resemblance to the language of ancient Greek prose of the later period, while others, known as the demoticists, prefer the types of language which are common among the uneducated classes. But both schools unite in admiration of the poems of Solomós. The demoticists have full reason for doing so, because Solomós always composed his Greek poems in a language similar to the demotic, and often uttered bitter words against those who preferred the older forms. On the other hand, the purists make a very proper distinction between literature and language, and love Solomós for his thoughts and patriotism and poetry, in spite of his language. On the occasion of this anniversary, individuals from each school have seized the opportunity of fulminating anathemas against the other. DANIEL QUINN.

# Correspondence.

## AMERICAN SCHOLARSHIPS AT OXFORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to offer a few observations on the article, "American Scholarships at Oxford," which appeared in the *Nation* of June 12.

(1.) The carrying out the provisions of Mr. Rhodes's will depends almost wholly on the wisdom and the discretion of the trustees. There is, it is submitted, little doubt that (probably under the sanction of the Chancery Division of the High Court) they can frame any scheme which broadly gives effect to the spirit of his will.

(2.) To any one who knows Oxford, and especially to any one who has watched with interest the careers—often the very successful careers—of American students at the University, it is certain that Mr. Schiller's view is substantially correct, and that the students from America who will derive most advantage from the Rhodes scholarships are men who have taken degrees at American universities, and are prepared to pursue courses of "post-graduate," or, as Mr. Schiller prefers to call it, "graduate" study.

(3.) It is much to be desired that every holder of a Rhodes scholarship should, if possible, receive it on the terms of pursuing a definite branch of study, *e. g.*, law, theology, or the like. The reasons for this are twofold. The first is, that the scholars will be thereby saved from waste of time and of effort. The second is, that if the professors and teachers in a particular faculty know for certain that as many as even ten students will arrive yearly seeking for advanced instruction in the subjects of that faculty, *e. g.*, law, they will be able to arrange and provide additional courses of instruction meeting the special wants of such students.

(4.) I most cordially join in the hopes formed by Mr. Schiller that the arrival of students from America, the colonies, and from Germany may give a new and additional stimulus to learning and teaching in Oxford. Of one thing I am quite certain, that American students of capacity and character may count upon the warmest welcome in the University and (what under our system is even of more consequence) in the Colleges of Oxford. A. V. DICEY.

OXFORD, July 1, 1902.

## LOUISIANA SAVED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am a citizen of Louisiana, and am also a Democrat; therefore, your criticism of the Louisiana Legislature and Schley interested me greatly. I wish to commend every word you said, but should like to add that, had you waited a week, you would have had no need to make the criticism, for our Governor, Mr. Heard, has had the good sense to veto the bill. Furthermore, to show you how easily our legislatures are influenced, both the Senate and the House sustained Heard's veto without a dissenting voice!

Sincerely, WILLIAM KERNAN DART.

BAY ST. LOUIS, MISS., July 12, 1902.

## A LONGFELLOW COINCIDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the Table-Talk of America's best-beloved poet is printed the following sentence:

"When we reflect that all the aspects of nature, all the emotions of the soul, and all the events of life, have been the subjects of poetry for hundreds and thousands of years, we can hardly wonder that there should be so many resemblances and coincidences of expression among poets, but rather that they are not more numerous and more striking."

These words of Longfellow were recalled to my mind recently, as I chanced upon two lines in an old English homily which form an almost exact parallel to a portion of the "Psalm of Life." The lines occur in the sermon "In Caput Jejunii" ("for Ash-Wednesday"), which stands twelfth in the series of Aelfric's "Lives of Saints," edited for the Early English Text Society by Rev. W. W. Skeat; they are numbered 26 and 27 (vol. i., p. 262), and run as follows:

"Forthan the thu eart dust, and to duste gewendst.
Nis this na gesæd be manna sawlum."

A literal translation of these words into Modern English gives: "For that thou art dust and to dust turnest; this is not said of men's souls"; which inevitably suggests the familiar

"Dust thou art, to dust returnest,
Was not spoken of the soul."

In this age, when the pursuit of literary sources has achieved the dignity of a science—I often wonder that the poets do not rise and beg to be slain outright with that good old bludgeon, the now-disused cry of "Plagiarism"—the first impulse is to say "Post hoc, ergo propter hoc"; but, remembering the dictum quoted at the head of this letter, it is much safer to say "coincidence." It is, in fact, almost demonstrable that the poet's lips had had no draught from the old monk's well. It is true that, in the spring of 1838, Longfellow was studying Anglo-Saxon literature, and that an essay from his pen upon that subject was written in April and published in the *North American Review* for July of that year; and that the "Psalm," which appeared in the *Knickerbocker Magazine* for October, 1838, was written on the morning of July 26 of the same year. But this homily was at that time resting safe in the obscurity of the British Museum and of the libraries at Cambridge University; it was never printed until 1885; and we have not the least reason for thinking that Longfellow's somewhat superficial study of Old English ever led him to much browsing among Anglo-Saxon manuscripts.

It may not be out of place, in closing, to recall the first draft of this stanza of the "Psalm," as given in the Rev. Samuel Longfellow's Life of his brother; from this it will be seen that it was only by a second impulse that the poet's words came into line with those of Aelfric:

"Life is glorious. Life is earnest,
Cannot pass in smoke away.
Dust alone to dust returneth,
But thy soul cannot decay."

FRANK H. CHASE.

HAVERHILL, MASS.

## ANTON TCHEKHOFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Fortnightly Review* for July contains an article on Anton Tchekhoff, "a writer still living and still young, whose achievements are to-day creating a greater clamor of mingled rapture and repulsion than even [Gorky's] *Tchelkash* and *Konovaloff*."

It is gratifying to note that English criticism has at last discovered Tchekhoff, Russia's greatest short-story writer, whose literary career began in 1879, and whose works have long been translated into German and French. Mr. Long's criticism of Tchekhoff's works, however, can hardly be considered a fair estimate of the great Russian's many-sided literary physiognomy, for, strange to say, the greatest of Tchekhoff's masterpieces, such as 'The Peasants,' 'The Incased Man,' 'In the Ravine,' are not even mentioned in the article. Nor does Mr. Long do justice to Tchekhoff's plays, which have for several years occupied the most conspicuous place on the Russian stage.

Mr. Long is wrong when he says that "Ivanoff" and "Tchaika" are the only two plays of Tchekhoff's put upon the stage. "The Bear" and "The Proposal" have been produced repeatedly for the past ten or twelve years with the greatest success, while Tchekhoff's latest, and perhaps best, drama, "The Three Sisters," published last year in the *Russkaya Misl*, has attracted more attention than any other play produced of late in the leading theatres of Russia. HERMAN BERNSTEIN.

NEW YORK, July 13, 1902.

# Notes.

Among the fall publications of D. Appleton & Co., few will be welcomed more warmly or widely than a volume of additional letters from Charles Darwin. This firm further announces 'The Work of Wall Street,' by Sereno S. Pratt; and 'The Autobiography of a Convict.'

Professor McMaster's Life of Daniel Webster will shortly be issued by the Century

Company, who will, in the autumn, add to their "Thumb-Nail Series" Pascal's 'Thoughts,' Sheridan's 'The Rivals,' with an introduction by Joseph Jefferson; and Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' with an introduction by E. C. Stedman.

Little, Brown & Co. have undertaken the first collective edition of Samuel Lover's works in six volumes, with an introduction by James Jeffrey Roche; and a series of volumes from the elder Dumas's travel sketches, beginning with 'The Speronare,' descriptive of a Mediterranean trip, embracing Sicily. The translator is Miss Wormeley.

It is a noteworthy coincidence that the completion of Gregory's 'Text Kritik des Neuen Testaments' is to be followed immediately by an entirely new and independent attempt on a grand scale to restore the oldest forms of the New Testament books. This is the work of Professor von Soden of the University of Berlin. 'Die Schriften des Neuen Testaments' will make two volumes, one of "Untersuchungen," containing all the preliminary researches on manuscripts, history of text, etc.; and the second, "Text mit vollständigem Apparat," containing the actual results. Von Soden's investigations are anything but the continuation of the Tischendorf, Weiss, Tregelles and Westcott-Hort methods, which were substantially the same in principle. He returns rather to old methods, but with new material; and on the basis of the 2,328 codices—454 more than Gregory examined—which he himself in repeated journeys to the Orient has studied, he has, among other things, come to the conclusion that the Vaticanus and the Sinaiticus, together with allied manuscripts, which hitherto have generally been accorded a decisive voice in settling a variant, represent only one type of text recension. Von Soden has traced the connection of all these manuscripts with the two text types current in the Middle Ages, in addition to which he has discovered also other individual text forms. The whole promises to be the most independent work done in this line for decades. Alexander Duncker (H. von Carnop) is the New York publisher.

R. Swain Gifford, N.A., contributes a brief introduction to 'Color Problems,' by Emily Noyes Vanderpoel (Longmans), in which he confesses that "the study of color from the scientific side has very little attraction for the layman, and it is even difficult for a painter to get out of such study much that will help him in his work." He might have gone further, and indicated the fact that the painter of pictures, dealing as he does with much-broken and constantly varied tints, indescribable and unclassifiable, finds it necessary to rely absolutely on instinct and such empirical knowledge as practice gives him, and that the theory of color is not, at present, able to give him any real help whatever. The decorator, who deals more in flat and uniform tones, may, however, learn some things from the scientist. Even to him the reason of things, most interesting to science, is of no value; but the facts may be usefully formulated. To such workmen the many well-executed plates of this volume may afford more assistance than would the relatively brief and bald text. The numerous pieces of quantitative analysis of color schemes from historic examples of ornament are especially interesting.

Mr. Cecil Headlam's 'Peter Vischer,' in the Bell-Macmillan "Great Craftsmen" series, should properly have been entitled 'The Vischers,' for it deals with three generations of that family—Hermann Vischer, the father of Peter; Peter Vischer; and Peter Vischer's five sons, most of whom died before their father. The work of the sons is almost inextricably confused with Peter's, but, so far as it can be disentangled, it would seem that Peter the younger was the greatest artist of the family. If he did the Nuremberg "Praying Madonna," which Mr. Headlam is inclined, though cautiously, to attribute to him, he was so great an artist as to deserve a place in the "Great Masters" series rather than in its companion; indeed, some of his undoubted works, such as the plaquette of "Orpheus and Eurydice" in the Berlin Museum, would almost entitle him to that honor. It is, however, such great pieces of craftsmanship as the shrine of St. Sebald that will more surely immortalize this family of bronze-workers than any single work of sculpture, even the much-admired "King Arthur." Their career covered the transition from Gothic to Renaissance art, and the only point in which we are inclined to differ from Mr. Headlam is his assumption that the later development of their style was in all respects an improvement. It seems to us that the Italianate forms of the Rathaus Railing, in so far as that work can be judged from the drawings of it which survive, are, though beautiful, less idiomatic of the material and less marked by the racial characteristics of the workmen than are those of their earlier manner; and we own to a certain sympathy with the Fugger heirs in their disappointment and in their repudiation of the work. The change was inevitable; and the Vischers showed their artistic quality in their eagerness to make it; but it marked the beginning of the end of German art.

There is nothing new to say of the useful little "Riverside Art Series" (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), save to note the addition of Van Dyck to the artists treated of.

The Bohemia Guild of the Industrial Art League (Chicago) publishes a book, by Oscar Lovell Triggs, Ph.D., most misleadingly entitled 'Chapters in the Arts and Crafts Movement.' There is really nothing in it about arts and crafts, but a great deal about Socialism. Those who are interested in the modern revival of craftsmanship as an artistic phenomenon will find nothing in this handsomely printed volume to their purpose; but those who may be interested to know how men like William Morris and Walter Crane came to believe that a social revolution is necessary before art shall again become a living force, may find there what they want.

The third edition of Prof. William P. Mason's 'Water Supply' (John Wiley & Sons) is brought down to date by a recompilation, including some recent data. The chapters on chemical and bacteriological examination of water have been omitted. As the subject is "considered principally from a sanitary standpoint," this omission seems an important one. A curious error reappears on page 253. The paragraph attributed to Mr. Tweeddale is from Mr. C. C. Vermeule's report on water supply, published by the Geological Survey of New Jersey.

Prof. A. A. Atkinson's 'Electrical and Magnetical Calculations' (D. Van Nostrand Co.) is clear, concise, and thoroughly well thought out. Any young man who is interested in the application of electricity and is fortunate enough to procure this little volume at an early period of his studies, will find he gets more service out of it per page than from almost any other on his shelves.

The John Brown papers deposited by Gov. Wise in the State Library of Virginia in 1860 were long lost sight of, and only accidentally came to light in a search made for another purpose by the present State Librarian in December, 1901. Mr. Scott began publication of them, or rather of his introduction, in the April number of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography*, and now in the July issue finishes his preliminary matter (including dismissal of the myth of Frederick the Great's presenting a sword to Washington), and opens with Col. Lee's report of his attack on the engine-house at Harper's Ferry. There is no letter from John Brown in the collection; many written to him, to Gov. Wise, to the Sheriff of Jefferson County, Va., to the clerk of court at Charlestown, to Andrew Hunter, etc., etc. It is doubtless too soon to judge, but we apprehend that Mr. Scott's "conservative estimate" of a market value for the papers of $5,000 to $10,000 "in a community where John Brown is held in higher esteem than he is in Virginia," will not be justified in the sequel.

Labrador, judging from the report of the Brown-Harvard expedition in 1900 by its leader, Prof. E. B. Delabarre, published in the Bulletin of the Geographical Society of Philadelphia, is an inviting field for the explorer, the student of nature, and the lover of wild scenery. In the extreme northeast the highest mountains on the Atlantic Coast rise sheer from land-locked bays, which rival, if they do not surpass, the beauty of the Norwegian fiords. The greater part of the peninsula is practically unknown, while the geologist, Dr. R. A. Daly, asserts that, from the lack of forest and soil-cap, the interpretation of the structure and history of the earth's crust is there possible with a remarkable degree of rapidity and amount of assured detail. The expedition, six in number, sailed northward some seven hundred miles, stopping at twenty-eight places for geological research and the collection of specimens of the flora of the region. Two of the members accomplished the almost unprecedented feat for white men of making the last hundred miles by land. A favorable account is given of the Eskimos, notwithstanding the fact of their increasing demoralization, due to their practical slavery to the traders, "who charge outrageous prices for supplies, and give small returns for fish and furs." Efforts are being made to counteract this evil by the establishment of coöperative stores by the branch of the Mission to Deep Sea Fishermen, which maintains two hospitals on shore and a hospital steamer. Lists of plants and birds collected and observed are appended to the report, whose attractiveness is increased by some fine photographs.

The salient feature of the Consular Reports for June is the illustrated description of the new electric railway at Berlin by our Consul-General, F. H. Mason. In one important respect it is far superior to

our street railways, "in the artistic beauty, the architectural charm and sense of fitness, which the German constructors have imparted to the stations, the bridges, and even the ordinary overhead viaduct sections." When it passes through a public square, "it is on solid and artistically designed masonry," and the stations are not as with us mere sheds; no two are alike, and each is "specially designed to fit not only the requirements of traffic at that point, but the adjacent buildings as well—the architectural framework in which it is set." Though this implies increased cost of construction, yet the way fares are but two and one-half cents, the through fares three and three-quarter cents. In reviewing the outlook for our export trade with Germany, Mr. Mason writes that the Americanization of certain industries has nearly destroyed the demand for American machinery and manufactured products. The cheap shoe is almost the only important article in which the German manufacturer cannot compete with us. The hope for the future lies in novelties and food products, especially cheese, for which there is a "fine field, hitherto almost uncultivated." Our interest in forestry should be quickened by the fact that, according to the latest statistics, the state forests of Saxony, besides their indirect benefit to the country, yield a direct annual profit to the Government of $2,240,000.

The Proceedings of the Anglo-Russian Literary Society (Imperial Institute Road, London, S. W.) for the first quarter of 1902 show that this worthy organization, intended to promote the study of the Russian language and literature, and also friendly relations between Great Britain and Russia, is still in active operation and doing most excellent work. A long paper on the Russian poet Miakoff, born in 1821, and made President of the Board of Foreign Censorship in 1881, shows that he was one of the few Russian authors whose life was not clouded by storms and trials. The full edition of his works was published in St. Petersburg in 1888, with a German translation at Leipzig in 1901. Several of Miakoff's poems are here presented in English. Another paper treats of "Two Anglo-Russian Philanthropists" who greatly aided in the reform of Russian prisons. "To visit Christ in the dungeon" meant, in old Russian custom, to send a member of the imperial family to the prison, who arranged the release of a debtor. A half-dozen other papers on fresh themes, with reviews of books, seem to show that this journal is a necessity to all who wish to keep informed as to the inner life of the Russians.

There are few countries, perhaps, in which slavery is a matter of sex. Korea, however, is a kingdom in which only women are still kept in involuntary servitude. For certain services done without a regular compact, certain kinds of servant boys are called "common slaves," though they are not really such; but women slaves are still bought and sold. In the *Korean Review* for April, besides papers on "The Status of Woman," there is a very valuable one on "Slavery in Korea." A woman may become a slave in four ways—through poverty, or debt; because of attainder of treason in the head of the house of which, as wife, daughter, sister, or servant, she is a member; or by the death of a slave woman (her daughter or "seed slave" being compelled to take her place); or through voluntary entrance into servitude. The writer asserts there is "not a single male slave in all the realm of his Majesty, the Emperor of Ta-Han." Since 1895 the punishment of wives or daughters for their hubsands' or fathers' sake has been done away with—a great step in judicial ethics. There is a good Rip Van Winkle story, a variant, which, besides being of submarine location, explains also the name of the "Monastery of the Ocean Seal." With other valuable lore and information, there are chapters on Korean history, and a merciless exposure of the slovenly inaccuracies of Mr. Alfred Stead, who spent a few days in Seoul, and was there probably "stuffed" by some old resident, who enjoyed taking in the rapid-transit traveller.

In *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number five, Prof. Th. Fischer directs attention to the condition, unparalleled in Europe, of the people of Apulia in southeastern Italy. Though mainly agriculturists, and increasing in number, they live, not on their farms or in villages, but in large towns separated from each other by extensive uninhabited tracts. In the daytime the towns are absolutely deserted by the men, who are at work in fields, orchards, or vineyards sometimes two or three hours distant. This occasions, among other evils, great poverty; the most an able-bodied peasant can earn, even with the aid of his wife, is from $80 to $100 a year. The cause, so far as it is due to natural and not inherited conditions, is the scarcity of water. To some districts all the drinking-water is brought by rail. The problem for the Government to solve is whether, by the construction of large reservoirs, the people can be induced to live on the land they cultivate.

The women contingent in French higher educational institutions does not yet attain the proportions that prevail in Germany. While in the latter country, out of some thirty-two thousand students, a little over two thousand are women, in France, out of a total of 30,370 found in the institutions of this grade, exclusive of technical colleges, the total number of women is 1,084. Of these, 673 are natives, and 311 foreigners; 412 women are students of medicine, 21 of law, 360 of philosophy and pedagogy, 43 of mathematics and the natural sciences, and 73 of pharmacy.

The ministerial decree ordering that foreign terms be eliminated from German textbooks for schools as rapidly as possible, is being systematically carried out. Lately it has been decided that Geometry shall in the future be called *Raumlehre; Physik* is to be supplanted by *Naturkunde*, etc. As yet no German equivalent for Chemistry has been found.

The Royal Society's Catalogue of Scientific Papers, volume 12 (supplementary volume), has been issued. In it are catalogued the most important articles which appeared from 1880 to 1883 in upwards of 350 periodicals and Transactions of societies not previously indexed. A few modifications of the method used in compiling the previous volumes have been introduced, notably the omission, in most cases, of references to mere abstracts of papers. It is announced that the Catalogue for 1883-1900, and the classified index to the first twelve volumes, are in preparation. With the publication of these volumes, the undertaking for which the Royal Society assumed the sole responsibility comes to an end. The work of cataloguing scientific papers for 1901 and onward is in the hands of an international organization, through which scientific institutions of various countries will coöperate in the preparation of an International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, arranged under authors and subjects; the subject catalogues appearing as separate volumes.

Dr. Florentino Ameghino has been appointed director of the National Museum of Buenos Aires as successor to the late Prof. Charles Berg. The Museum has been reorganized, and six sections—geology and mineralogy, palæontology, botany, zoölogy, anthropology, and biology—have been established. This new organization and the approaching removal to more suitable quarters will, it is hoped, enable the Museum to extend its field of research, and to publish the results of investigations more frequently. The seventh volume of *Anales* will soon be issued.

The Rijks Ethnographical Museum at Leyden (situated within a stone's throw of the Pilgrim Fathers' former residence, and across the Rapenburg Canal, where was the Commandery, which Miles Standish probably visited) has one of the best collections in the world of articles of every sort illustrating humanity in Asia, primitive America, and Insulinde or Island India. The report of the director, Dr. Schmeltz, for 1901 shows unusual richness in the Japanese and Korean departments, though the Dutch dominions also are well represented. The plates illustrating the important additions revealing the art of Japan and of Upper Laos in Siam, are reproduced with spirit and elegance. In the purely anthropological department we notice the finding of some teeth and a bone (tibia) of the famous Pithecanthropus, who, or which, may turn out to be the "missing link," and whose statue at Paris (chiefly gypsum) attracted so much attention, as being an instance of the scientific use of the imagination.

In the forty-first annual convention of the Swiss Gymnasium (or College) Teachers the special discussion was on the pronunciation of the letters *c* and *t* in Latin. It was demonstrated to general satisfaction that in the classical period of the Latin, *i. e.*, in the first Christian century, these letters were always pronounced like *k* and *t*, and not like *z* before *e*, *i*, and *y*, and the demand was made that the original pronunciation of such words as *natio* and *Cicero* be restored. This has actually been already done in Bern, Basel, and elsewhere. It was, however, also shown that, as early as the time of Charlemagne, the softer *z* pronunciation had been introduced from Italy.

The International Congress of Historical Sciences, which was to have met at Rome, Italy, last spring, has been definitely postponed until April, 1903. An archæological congress, which was to have been held at the same time, was the cause of the postponement. The Italian archæologists (*genus irritabilissimum*) started a controversy which raged for some time and embroiled the members of both congresses. The matter was finally left to the Minister of Public Instruction, who has decided upon April of next year as the best date for the meeting. The Congress already numbers nearly a thousand adherents, but others may now

join by sending the fee of 12 francs to the Secretary, 18 Via dei Greci, Rome, Italy. The American Committee formed last year for the purpose of assisting the work of the Congress in this country will continue its existence, and further information may be obtained from the Secretary of the American Committee, No. 118 East Fifty-eighth Street, New York.

—The guide to Italy of the Macmillan series is a handy volume for the whole peninsula (excluding Sicily and Sardinia), calculated for those who have little time at their disposal, or for those whose appetite for "sights" is easily satisfied. It may be conceded that this class will need more than an entire page about Bordighere, and will be content with a line about the frescoes at Saronno, as well as that many things interesting to the thoroughgoing traveller should be omitted altogether. Still, frequent as are the omissions, the book, like a pocket dictionary, surprises rather by what it includes than by what it leaves out. It is incomprehensible that the hasty traveller should care for the elaborate dissertations on painting and architecture furnished in the prefatory matter. Any one capable of reading these will surely demand a more complete list of examples in the body of the book. The accounts of education, social condition, the tenure of land, etc., on the other hand, may be welcome to any reader. The hotels, as a rule well chosen, are by themselves in a separate list; there is a sort of mere mention of towns along the hundred routes given, while a more detailed description of the most important follows in alphabetical order. There are about fifty maps and plans, including one of ancient Italy and one of Italy before 1858.

—'Die Riviera,' by W. Hörstel, No. xi. of the series entitled "Land und Leute," published in Leipzig by Velhagen & Klasing (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a thin octavo abundantly illustrated from photographs known to all frequenters of this coast, and addressed to the ordinary reader. The historical survey is scarcely more than would be deemed necessary for a guide-book; and of art and archæology there is still less; but scenery, climate, geology, vegetation, and industries are more fully dealt with. As to all these, what is given is drawn from good sources and is trustworthy and accurate. The chief value of the book is in its account of the inhabitants. It is well known that the Ligurians do not enjoy an enviable reputation among their neighbors, and the winter visitor is apt in his first years to be seduced by their winning manners into an unreasoning enthusiasm over them, which, with more diversified experience, he is equally apt to exchange for unreasoning contempt. Herr Hörstel refers to the popular judgment as to the faithlessness of the men, without, however, quoting what is said of the women, as well as to Dante's terrible

> "Ahi Genovesi, uomini diversi
> D'ogni costume, e pien d'ogni magagna."

And yet he does not surrender his own opinion, which is founded upon the people as he has known them, and is singularly unprejudiced and just. Indeed, we do not know where to look for a fairer appreciation of these much misunderstood Ligurians, although our author neither says the best that might be said of the higher development of which they are capable, nor the worst that is true of the baser sort. And, whether from reticence or other cause, he does not allude to the numerous affiliations of the entire region with Tarascon; but he is unexceptionable in his representation of the every-day qualities and peculiarities of its people. He gives, too, a great deal of information as to manners and customs, industries, cultivation, and condition in general. For good or for evil, the book is somewhat exclusively German in outlook. At Lerici the author does not recall Shelley, but a group of palm trees near Bordighera (one remarked by most passers by rail) suggests the fact that Victor von Scheffel once felt uncomfortably ill beneath them, and wrote some indifferent verses about his sensations, which are cited in full. *Ex pede Herculem.* We only signalize what may be taken as a quality or a defect in a work that as a whole is very praiseworthy.

—Prof. Henry E. Bourne's 'Teaching of History and Civics in the Elementary and the Secondary School' (Longmans) is not only the most elaborate, but also easily the most important, of the numerous recent works on historical "method," and will doubtless take its place among the few books of the sort which the teacher will think needful to own. The first part, somewhat less than half the volume, begins with a discussion of the meaning of history and an outline of the equipment which historical scholarship demands; reviews briefly the teaching methods in French and German schools, and, more in detail, the recent discussions and reports of educational bodies in this country; and then passes to a consideration of the historical programme for schools, particularly as formulated by the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association. Throughout this, the most difficult part of his subject, Professor Bourne shows himself to be not only amply informed, but clear, concise, and eminently sensible. The second part presents a number of carefully worked-out studies of different historical periods—Greece, Rome, mediæval Europe, European history since 1560, the United States, etc.—illustrative of the principles enunciated in the earlier chapter, and showing in tangible form the kind of teaching which the author would have. In quantity of matter, history greatly overshadows civics, only two of the twenty chapters being given to the latter subject. The disproportion is significant, but the time seems not yet to have come when civil government can be much treated in schools save in connection with history. We cordially commend Professor Bourne's substantial volume to the attention of teachers and students.

—The English Palestine Exploration Fund, through Mr. McAllister, has just commenced excavations at a new site, Abu Shusheh, identified by M. Clermont-Ganneau in 1872 as the site of the Biblical Gezer, near Ramleh, on the edge of the Sharon plain. For some six weeks the Austrians, under Professor Sellin, have been excavating, with a fair degree of success, Ta'anuk, the Biblical Taanach, on the southwestern edge of the plain of Esdraelon. The Germans have secured a firman to excavate the ancient Megiddo, in the same neighborhood, and expect to commence work there shortly. As is well known, another German expedition has been excavating and restoring in an admirable manner the great temple of Jupiter Heliopolitanus at Baalbek, and the neighboring smaller temples. This work, which has already occupied about two years, will require more than another year for its completion. In addition to this the same expedition has excavated some smaller but interesting ruins in the Lebanon, on the edge of the Beka, in the same general region. This summer the same expedition is exploring the ruins of Palmyra, Gerash, Amman, and similar less-known sites east of the Jordan for the purpose of a more thorough study and comparison of Syrian-Roman architecture and antiquities. The Germans are peculiarly active in exploration in Turkey at the present time. In addition to the two expeditions mentioned above, they are excavating also at Miletus, at Pergamos, and at Babylon, and are about commencing excavation of a little-known Babylonian ruin mound, apparently of great antiquity, south of Nippur, between the Tigris and the Euphrates.

—In 'Le Miroir de la Vie' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.) M. de la Sizeranne, the French critic of English painting, gives us four essays upon art as the reflection of life—art studied not for what it is in itself, but for what it can tell us of the changing conditions and ideals of men. In "L'Esthétique des Batailles" he shows how war was first sculpturesque, then picturesque, and is now no longer either, since it fails to occupy artists as a subject for art; he concludes that war will finally cease, not because philosophers shall teach that it is useless and wicked, but because artists shall no longer persuade that it is beautiful and glorious. In "La Caricature" he reviews the course of that art from the pyramid builders to the draughtsmen for *Life*, including many things as caricature that some of us would be likely to exclude from that category, and drawing conclusions that are at least debatable. Perhaps the most interesting of these are that caricature is, of its nature, conservative; that, by its personifying tendencies, it is an ally of Cæsarism; and that, by its tendency to put the concrete in place of the abstract, the image in place of the idea, it tends to undo the work of the press. In "La Modernité de l'Évangile" he shows how and why art has always tended to represent the events and personages of the Gospel in the surroundings and costume of the artist's own time, and maintains that the reason such representations shock us in the art of today while they do not in the art of the fifteenth century, is not that our artists are more learned or less sincere than were the elder artists, but simply that modern costume is ugly—or, as he prefers it, "inesthétique." This distinction between what is ugly and what is unæsthetic is one of the least tenable he makes, for an artist would deny that the old felt hat is ugly or the *bel habit* anything but ugly. It is true that an ugly old man may be a magnificent subject for Rembrandt; but is this not because, though ugly as a man, he is really beautiful as a surface for the display of light and shade? Finally, M. de Sizeranne discusses "Les Portraits d'Enfant," and the

light they throw upon the different way in which children have been regarded at different epochs. As a whole, his book will be found stimulating and suggestive reading by those who care for art as a part of general culture, even if it contains little for the student of art for its own sake.

## CRAWLEY'S STUDY OF PRIMITIVE MARRIAGE.

*The Mystic Rose:* A Study of Primitive Marriage. By Ernest Crawley, M.A. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xviii, 492.

At first blush the title of this book might seem to mark it as one of the many fantastic contributions of the "new thought" school of "psychology." No one, however, who had read the author's discussion of "Sexual Taboo," published in the Journal of the Anthropological Institute (London) for 1895, of which the present volume is more than a mere expansion or elaboration, could entertain such a suspicion. 'The Mystic Rose' is dedicated to Mr. J. G. Frazer, author of 'The Golden Bough,' and Mr. Crawley has evidently imitated his master in choosing a title that means both less and more than it should. The book is named from "the most prominent ideal personality for modern Europe in this connection, the Maiden-Mother, the Mystical Rose, whose figure enshrines many elemental conceptions of Man and Woman and their Relations." The author's general thesis is that "marriage, both in ceremony and system, is grounded in primitive sexual relations"—a truism lost sight of by many writers upon the subject, who have interpreted primitive custom by non-primitive ideas, attributed legal conceptions to folk-thought, and created pseudo-syntheses in which the sexual relations are almost completely obscured. The cardinal idea about marriage in primitive psychology is that "the union of man and woman amounts to identification and combination of the two sexes." Hence taboos, ceremonies, devices, magic black and white, etc. (born of or demanded by sexual solidarity or sexual weakness, the active and the passive natures of man and woman), the intent of which is to guard against or to render harmless sexual relations that are, physically or spiritually, unnatural, imperfect, too complete, or dangerous in other perceived or imagined ways. Mutual contact may be tabooed, on the one hand, because the persons contemplating marriage, or for whom marriage may be desired, are so different or so distant that their union would be perilous for one or for both; or, on the other hand, the taboo may express the danger likely to arise when persons too like and too near come together. Ideas of contact are at the root of all conceptions of human relations at any stage of culture, and the physiological and psychological implications of this fact for primitive peoples are the basis from which, by help of the "primitive religious mental habit," marriage systems and marriage ceremonies have been evolved. But Mr. Crawley is careful not to assume, as Frazer seems to do, that "the origin of the marriage system was to be found in some primitive conception of danger attaching to the sexual act." So narrow a view is unnecessary when we consider the primitive identification of the real and the imaginary; the confusion or combination of the human and the "spiritual"; the association of disease and illness with evil spirits (also heat and the like); the observation of functional and organic crises (puberty, menstruation, child-birth, etc.); primitive ideas of childhood and old age, of property, of contagion, and transmission of qualities from sex to sex and from parents and ancestors to children and descendants; belief in the virtues of imitation, disguise, and deceit.

Moreover, there is good reason to believe, with Mr. Crawley, that "marriage rites of union are essentially identical with love-charms, and other marriage rites coincide with precautions taken to lessen the dangers of contact between the sexes, not only in ordinary life, but at the critical age of puberty" (p. 318). The taboo between engaged couples exists because "their state is a re-presentation of life in the family, where sister and brother are kept apart, and the sanctity of the home, in the primitive sense, is preserved by the mother on the principles of sexual taboo" (p. 316). The "couvade" and the treatment of the mother-in-law are "savage" customs, which, as the author remarks, have added much to the gayety of nations. The former, according to Mr. Crawley, falls under the head of attempts at contact-sympathy "always tending to pass into substitution and exchange of identity" (p. 425); it is intended to protect both wife and child, for "the savage is a better man than he is generally painted, and has a real altruism and marital responsibility." The avoidance of the mother-in-law (common enough in civilization) is with primitive peoples often a real part of the marriage system, and is a taboo of contact between relatives for the purpose of avoiding danger, which reaches its maximum in the *uku-hlonipa* system of the Zulus. The godparents of the present day, who have so little to say to their protégés, are not so far removed from the "bridesmen" of the Beni-Amer, who "may not speak to [the bride] for the rest of her life, but are sworn to defend and protect her, and actually do so when her husband's conduct requires it" (p. 263). Many modern customs and practices in connection with betrothals and marriages (and remarriages) mask primitive ceremonies which "show both the taboo character of bride and bridegroom and also an attempt at disguising them by fictitious change of identity."

Mr. Crawley's criticisms of other theories and subsidiary explanations, even when not convincing, are keen and sometimes witty. "Group-marriage," the last position of the theory of primitive promiscuity, is held to be individual marriage modified in polygamous and polyandrous directions. Certain theories about promiscuity, incest, etc., are "cases of mental actualization of apparently potential states which were really impossible except as abnormal occurrences" (p. 482), and we may reasonably believe that "individual marriage has been, as far as we can trace back, the regular type of union of man and woman." Actual "capture," Mr. Crawley thinks, is only "a method of obtaining a wife," not a mode of marriage, and he regards as exploded the theory of "marriage by capture" as an explanation of exogamy, or of an alleged change from the paternal to the maternal household. The essence of exogamy is "the prohibition of marriage within the house" (p. 443)—in early times it is "a family and not a tribal matter." The object of marriage ceremonies "is not and never was to join together the man or the woman, as the case may be, with the life, or blood, or flesh of the *tribe*." Of this "sentimental socialism," as the author terms it, "there is no trace in primitive society, though there are facts which look like it. . . . Marriage is between individuals and is an individualistic act" (p. 320). What is miscalled "marriage by purchase" is in reality a development from the "bride gift," and not vice versa. The "bride-price" was originally "a pledge, a part of one's self, given to another and received from him" (p. 387), and the principle involved "is more personal, more religious; there is less of price and more of value, more of the pledge than of profit and loss." Besides, with primitive peoples, buying and selling "have not the same sordid connotation as they now have."

The "tree marriage" (in India and elsewhere) is "a good instance of the primitive fashion of make-believe by which an effigy does duty for a person, all risks being thus obviated" (p. 340). In these mock ceremonies the intention is thereby to secure the harmlessness or success of the real ceremony. Perhaps something of this idea still attaches to modern wedding rehearsals. The institution of bridesmaids, groomsmen, etc., is the crystallization of "the very natural practice of being accompanied on these, as on other important occasions, by a friend of one's own sex." The attendants are really *duplicates*, the idea in question being "'safety in numbers,' combined with similarity of costume," for they are often dressed to resemble the bride or the bridegroom. The "best man" is not, as has been suggested, "the strongest of the bridegroom's friends who assisted him in capturing the bride from the foreign tribe." As Mr. Crawley remarks, in this matter "it is sex, not the tribe, that is concerned," and the origin of marriage ceremonies is hinted at by the way in which, for a longer or a shorter period after the wedding, "the women stand by the bride and the men by the groom."

Very important among primitive peoples is "what may be called *physiological thought*, subconsciously arising from and concentrating upon physiological functions (especially the two chief functions of nutrition and sex)." Nor is modern man without a large share of this "physiological thought," for the juxtaposition in our laws of *mensa* and *thorus* reminds us of what was once a chief object of man's regard. Another generalization which the author feels justified in making concerns "the high morality of primitive man," something the Imperialists who swear by McLennan and Letourneau should take to heart. Indeed, besides being a new and interesting book on marriage, this volume deserves to be read by all who desire to know something about the moral and social characteristics of the so-called "lower" and "higher" races of man. From it they may learn how closely akin are all human beings when it comes to the expression of the fundamental relations between man and woman. Selden, the famous lawyer of the seventeenth century, said, "Marriage is a desperate thing," and the nurse of the

late Cecil Rhodes, chiding him for remaining a bachelor, declared, "Marriage is nothing; you says *snip* and she says *snap*." Primitive man's idea was certainly nearer that of the lawyer than that of the nurse, but not too near, if we read aright.

Altogether, Mr. Crawley, while pushing the taboo idea too far here and there, has given us a worthy companion for Westermarck, and, we might say, the most human book about marriage we yet possess. To the excellent topical index an alphabetical list of authorities should have been added, and the author ought to have been more careful in normalizing his English equivalents for the names of foreign peoples and savage tribes.

## ADMIRAL JOHN WINSLOW.

*The Life of John Ancrum Winslow*, Rear-Admiral, United States Navy. By John M. Ellicott, Lieutenant U. S. Navy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

In spite of the generally unfounded notion to the contrary, the nation can safely repose confidence in the conservatism of naval officers when men like Winslow write, as he did in 1846, apropos of the forerunner of the Venezuela war-cloud: "By newspapers we have seen the passage of the Oregon question through the House. Our own people seem mad with their braggart course in this question, while England, with a power that could crush us, mildly invokes pacific measures. I think it ungenerous in the United States." And again, from Vera Cruz during the Mexican war: "One has only to see the misery which war creates to become sick of its horrors." We are confirmed in the belief that the professional warrior is often the least bloodthirsty of men.

To tell the story of Winslow's life in a manner to arouse and maintain the reader's interest was no light undertaking, for the quiet and conscientious performance of one routine duty after another, at times and in places rarely marked by thrilling events, appeals but slightly to a public which craves the excitement of the marvellous and joyfully swallows the incredible without question. Lieut. Ellicott has discharged his duty as biographer with great tact. He has had the wisdom to let Winslow speak for himself, and has supplemented the extracts from Winslow's official and private correspondence by such comment and explanation as were necessary to make the matter clear.

It was in the Mexican war that Winslow received his baptism of fire, behaving with great gallantry in command of a detachment of sailors in the attack on Tobasco. His expressed opinion that the war was unjustifiable did not prevent his doing his whole duty in action. He had the good fortune, in the civil war, to share in the operations which secured the control of the Mississippi River by the Federals. This part of the narrative is very readable in itself, and it is also instructive as showing the difficulties which attended the building up of the river force that did such important work towards the suppression of the rebellion.

For ability, Winslow was never rated very high by his contemporaries; but the esteem of such a leader as Foote, "who immediately applied for Commander Winslow as his chief assistant in fitting out and organizing the flotilla," must be allowed much weight as a corrective to a vague general impression, even if the latter suggests at the same time a temperamental disadvantage. Certain passages in his home letters convey the idea that he was self-centred in a small way not in the least resembling Nelson's unbounded and glorified egotism. If this inference be correct, it may furnish the key to the manner of his detachment from the *Baron de Kalb*, of which the true causes are still obscure. Between the lines of the story as told we read a certain lack of harmony. Had his relations with the commander of the Mississippi squadron, Acting Rear Admiral Charles H. Davis, been altogether cordial, it is hardly conceivable that his application for change of duty should have been forwarded by the latter with an unfavorable comment. The prospect of having Porter promoted over his head and assigned to the command of the squadron was, naturally, distasteful; moreover, Winslow, having been commissioned a captain, was eligible to a much larger vessel than the gun-boat *Baron de Kalb*. In themselves, these circumstances justified his asking service in other waters.

This is the letter which had such an unforeseen effect upon Winslow's fate and fame:

"The Department, prior to ordering me to Western Flotilla, was pleased to forward for my consideration a letter of Rear-Admiral Foote.

"The conditions under which I accepted having been materially modified in the recent change of the Commander of the Flotilla fleet, I would respectfully request that the Department would assign me to other duty."

Endorsed by Davis:

"The application contained in this letter, which, if unqualified, would be regarded as an act of insubordination, is forwarded with the following remark:

"The language of Captain Winslow implies that there is a special understanding with the Department; otherwise I should recommend that the request be not complied with."

Mr. Welles acknowledged the receipt of this communication, and added: "You are hereby detached from the Mississippi squadron and placed on furlough." We wonder whether many persons outside the naval service are aware that, by law, the Secretary of the Navy has the arbitrary power to place any officer "on furlough"; that "furlough" in the navy is a terrible punishment—not, as in the army, a privilege; and that through Mr. Welles's action Winslow was practically fined at the rate of more than $200 a month, his pay being reduced *ipso facto* from $3,500 to $1,050 per annum. Under the same statute, a Winslow of today can be mulcted in $2,250 a year on the irresponsible whim of a Secretary. Such an authority, which savors of the despotism of an empire rather than of the freedom of a republic, does not exist in the army, is a menace to the self-respect of every naval officer and a disgrace to our legislation. It cannot possibly be Constitutional; but unhappy Winslows, smarting under its cruel injustice, without appeal, are too poor in purse to test the question in the courts.

We have noticed the affair at some length because it shows what may happen to any naval officer who does not bask in the light of Departmental favor; because it was the most painful experience in all his career to Winslow's sensitive nature; and because, oddly enough, it was the means of bringing to him the laurels of victory. Shortly after reaching his home in the East, he was relieved from furlough, through satisfactory explanation of his hapless letter just quoted, and, later, he was ordered to command the *Kearsarge*, the ship with which his name is for ever connected.

Lieut. Ellicott's instructive analysis of Winslow's new task brings into clear relief a fact, too often overlooked, that war, like other trades, is learned by experience and —through mistakes. Winslow took station about the Azores in the hope of catching the Confederate cruisers which occasionally appeared in that neighborhood, but the logic of events drove him to the English Channel, where, sooner or later, these piratical craft had to resort for repairs and supplies. Here he watched and blockaded and ate his heart out until Semmes arrived at Cherbourg, off which harbor the *Kearsarge* promptly appeared. For reasons best known to himself, possibly stung by the reproach that he was a mere pirate and dared not fight, Semmes sent word to Winslow to wait for him and do him battle.

How the *Alabama* came gayly out past the breakwater on that hazy, beautiful Sunday morning, June 19, 1864, her officers under the promise to return to their friends on shore with scalps at their belts; how she steamed straight for the *Kearsarge;* how the latter headed away until the thousands of spectators on the French hills thought the American vessel in flight; how the latter, when well beyond the marine league which limits neutral waters, turned and flew at her foe; how the two began circling about a common centre like opposite riders on a merry-go-round; how the rapid but ill-directed broadsides of the *Alabama's* British guns, pointed by British gunners, were no match for the slow, steady, accurate fire from the *Kearsarge's* smooth-bores —especially that from an eleven-inch pivot aimed by a cool Yankee who ought to have sprung from the loins of Long Tom Coffin himself; how one brief hour put an end to the *Alabama* and her unholy cruise as she slid stern-foremost under the water; how Semmes dramatically threw his sword overboard, after surrendering his ship, and sought safety in flight on the British yacht *Deerhound;* how Winslow received the thanks of Congress and promotion to the grade of Commodore—all these things have been told a hundred times, but never more soberly, with appeal to authority for each statement, than in this volume, which well deserves a place among the few really satisfactory lives of sailors who have brought honor to our flag. Few who open this book will be content to leave it unfinished, while all its readers will recognize the tact and skill with which the subject is treated, and the simple and pleasing style in which it is presented.

A second edition, it is hoped, will contain a map of the theatre of the Mexican war, a better one of the operations on the Mississippi, a less obscure diagram of the great *Kearsarge* and *Alabama* duel, and the correct spelling of the name of Admiral Foote's biographer.

*Salmon and Trout.* By Dean Sage, C. H. Townsend, H. M. Smith, and William C.

Harris. Illustrated by A. B. Frost, Tappan Adney, Martin Justice, and Others. Macmillan. 1902.

The fraternity of anglers lost one of its finest representatives when Mr. Dean Sage, the leading author of the work named above, suddenly died, as our readers have been made aware. Mr. Sage had for many years been known as one of the very best authorities on salmon angling, and his portion of the present volume treats of the Atlantic salmon, its history, habits, and resorts, the tackle by which it should be taken, the handling of the fly, and many other points of interest to the practical or literary angler.

Mr. Sage was not one of the dogmatic class of anglers to whom there is but one way, definitely and minutely laid down, for handling the rod under any given conditions of time, water, or weather. Experience had taught him that the precise way in which a game fish will act is one of the hardest things in the world to predict. If it were not so, angling would be reduced to something like the regularity of a Chicago pork-packing establishment, and would possess no attraction whatever for the class of men who now follow it as one of the most successful modes of mental and physical recreation. Because of this fascination of uncertainty in it, the ill-disposed sometimes try to discredit it by calling it mere gambling, forgetting that the evil of gambling lies in other qualities than its uncertainty. It is often called a cruel sport, too, by persons who know too little of it to be aware that no class of citizens does more to minimize the waste and suffering of fish life than genuine anglers. Mr. Sage was preeminently of this humane type, angling not for "fun," as the adversary puts it, but for physical health and strength, mental rest and repair, with a reasonable amount of choice salmon for food by the way.

The unqualified assertion of some writers that salmon do not eat at all while in fresh water, is not borne out by the careful observations of Mr. Sage. That they take the fly in the mouth merely from a spirit of pugnacity or curiosity does not comport, he thinks, with the fact that he has occasionally taken them with the fly far down towards the stomach. He also cites several cases of salmon taking bait in fresh water; and in one case a salmon taken with the fly, on the Upsalquitch, was found to contain a small mass of angle-worms in its stomach. In another case he was assured that a salmon had been taken with a partly digested frog in its stomach; but for this he does not personally vouch. As an explanation of the well-known rarity of food being found in their stomachs when taken, even in salt water, he suggests their power of emptying the stomach through the mouth when danger calls their activity into sudden play, as the black-bass will often do when hooked. It is acknowledged, however, that salmon feed but little after entering fresh water, the appetite disappearing as the season of spawning approaches. May it not be that, under the influence of this declining appetite, their habit is to seize their prey in the mouth, squeeze the juice out of it, and eject the solid portion, just as the human stomach, under abnormal conditions, may welcome the juices of fruits and meats, while revolting at the solid parts?

The treatment of the Pacific salmons, by C. H. Townsend and H. M. Smith, is more formally scientific than Mr. Sage's part of the volume, and, as a natural consequence, less readable for the angler than for the ichthyologist. Nevertheless, it contains much information which the angler will be glad to possess, and which will aid him materially in the work of classification. It is stated that the Pacific salmon *loses its ability to eat*, after entering fresh water, owing to the atrophy of the digestive organs. The influence of the spawning function thus appears to be greater in its initial stages than with the Atlantic species, and the function has a tragic ending, as the spent fish dies almost immediately, without returning to the salt water.

Mr. Harris, in his treatment of the various species of trout, devotes his attention chiefly to semi-scientific description, and by so doing sacrifices all opportunity of appeal to the "literary angler," a personage quite often to be found in these days, and no less deserving of consideration by the writers of angling literature because circumstances have not put him in the way of handling the rod. As a kind of cushion between the practical angler who comes home by force of untoward conditions with an empty creel, and the unpitying non-angler who sees no sense in fishing when the fish do not bite, he is worth developing.

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*Nestlings of Forest and Marsh.* By Irene Grosvenor Wheelock. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

This work, with Professor Herrick's recent 'Home Life of Wild Birds,' practically creates the study of nestling birds. So far as the present reviewer knows, these are the only books devoted to the subject by writers of popular science. Mrs. Wheelock's book is a contribution to ornithology that no student of birds should overlook. Her study of a bird family often begins with the building of the nest and the laying and brooding of the eggs, including also the length of the period of incubation; then she watches the growth of the nestlings, notes their food and the age at which they leave the nest, photographs them as they develop, observes how they learn to perch and to fly, and listens to their early attempts at singing. Her photography is not always successful, but her observations are painstaking and persistent, and her style is simple and readable. The sketches of marsh birds are perhaps more interesting than the others. Few observers have recorded so full notes of marsh work. She writes here and there of the conditions that attended these studies.

"A tramp through the marshes at four A. M., waist-deep in the lush wild grass, the mists veiling the wonderful unseen beyond, and, in the near distance, the pink of the mallows, the purple of the iris, and the yellow of the marigolds still heavy with the dew, reflecting the glories of the sunrise sky; to hear the bird chorus as you never hear it at any other hour of the day; to see the birds waken, stretch their little wings, and enjoy a morning bath, splashing and dashing as if they could never have enough of the cool fresh water; to watch them shake and preen their little wet feathers as they sit swinging on the cattails; to follow their flight over the glistening green, dipping, rising, circling in matchless curves—is not all this well worth the sacrifice of a morning nap?

"But the marsh is a faithful keeper and guards its secrets well. Much hard work, many discomforts, some danger, and small success will often be the sum total of a day spent there. The little marsh people are shy and very, very wily."

Mrs. Wheelock's marsh birds are two blackbirds (the red-wing and the yellow-head), the long-billed marsh wren, and the rail. The following extracts from the account of the wren show her manner of work:

"The nest we had chosen to watch was in the centre of a little island of rushes separated from the main marsh by a passage just wide enough to punt a duckboat through. Here we lay, partly concealed, while the anxious little father scolded and sang by turns, and then, with deliberate intention to deceive, commenced to build a dummy nest in full view of us. Evidently his heart was not in his work, or our presence made him nervous, for it was not well done and he left it one-third completed to commence another a few feet farther away. This was repeated day after day, until four had been started and two finished in a radius of ten feet by the same industrious builder. All the material brought was wet, having just been picked from the water. . . .

"Not once did he go near his real treasure. The four beautiful tiny brown eggs were housed in the oldest, most tumble-down house of them all. One would never suspect it of being selected for a home among so many fresh green new ones. The doorway also was on the inland side, so that it looked to be only a ball of dried water-grass among the rushes. The doors of the dummy nests, on the contrary, were usually in plain view from the lake and invited inspection. . . .

"It took fifteen days for the eggs to hatch, and afterwards such a long, long time before the first downy head peeped through the doorway. The mother was not a close sitter, whether because of our presence or because she knew the warm sun would help in her task. It was certainly steaming inside that round ball, and the tiny eggs felt like hot pebbles to my prying fingers. She left for two hours at a time, and this, with an open nest in a tree, would certainly prove fatal to the eggs after incubation had begun. . . .

"On the morning the first egg hatched, . . . we cautiously pushed up to the doorway, and, on finding there were young, cut a slit in the top of the nest to look at them. Four naked pinky nestlings, with wee heads, mere knobs for eyes, and buds for wings, lay cuddled down within. After satisfying our curiosity, we tied the slit up with rushes and left them. Before we could push the boat away, the little mother had entered the nest, not two feet away from us. . . .

"As in the case of most young birds, we had to teach them to perch; and a comical task it was. The tiny claws had never learned to clasp, and yet by instinct they fastened to the rushes, and the little ball of down tried to balance itself on its uncertain little legs. . . . They liked to cuddle down on our fingers or hop up my arm to the shoulder, and took especial delight in hiding inside my shirt-waist sleeve, entering at the wrist, which the heat had compelled me to unfasten. . . .

"During the hour or two we were playing with the babies, the father and mother remained within a few feet, calling somewhat anxiously, but not greatly alarmed. I held a little one out on my hand and went almost up to the mother before she took wing. Had not the great heat (106 degrees) driven us out of the marsh, I am sure more patience in waiting would have conquered her fear of me, and she would have fed him on my hand. Before we were four feet away, she had returned to them with a fat June bug in her beak, and all was serene again in the little home."

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*Facts and Comments.* By Herbert Spencer. D. Appleton & Co.

Mr. Spencer's life has been prolonged beyond his own hope, and beyond what men may reasonably expect. Nevertheless, his mind is so clear, his feeling so strong, his determination so great, as to make the an-

nouncement that this is positively his last book seem inappropriate. It is true that the material of it consists largely of chips from the author's workshop. While he was writing systematic treatises, ideas suggested themselves which, although not fitted for the occasion, were worth recording, and this collection of essays is the result. But the subjects are frequently broad and of present interest, while Mr. Spencer is as sententious as Bacon, and arouses in his readers the wish, nowadays rather unusual, that he would expand and continue his argument. Few men can write more forcibly or reason more clearly; his years have brought him weakness of body, but they have not impaired his mind.

Mr. Spencer informs us that for the last dozen years he has been tethered by ill health to the south of England, where he has usually spent the summer in the house of some gentleman farmer whose family and surroundings fulfilled the needful conditions; "one being the presence of young people." He continues, with grim humor: "Taking, in my daily drives, two ladies as companions, and being generally unable to bear continuous conversation, I put a check on this by asking one or other question not to be answered without thought." This method of securing companionship, while substituting silent reflection for conversation, Mr. Spencer hardly needs tell us, became a habit with him. He enjoys exercising the reasoning powers of his readers, and he especially enjoys exposing the fallacies of which they are presumptively guilty. He is undeniably censorious; probably he would admit that he was given to fault-finding, but he would say that it was because there was so much to find fault with. His standards are high and his virtue austere; we may properly call him

"Justum et tenacem propositi virum,"

for when he has taken a position he is immovable. He would be startled if he found himself popular; to be in a small minority, even a minority of one, does not disturb him. It is no reason for modifying his views or even for considering whether they need modification. "Athanasius contra mundum" is his exemplar; the question whether others agree with him in a conclusion which he has reached by due logical process, is quite irrelevant. Logic, indeed, is caviare to the general; most social problems are as far beyond the grasp of ordinary people as the calculus, and it is absurd to pretend to defer to their judgment.

The number of subjects touched upon is so great as to make it impossible even to enumerate them. In a few cases, the opinions expressed will command no respect; but they are generally stimulating, even when exasperating in their perversity. The propositions laid down concerning music illustrate our meaning. Historians will be interested in the assertion that when the Southern States seceded, the sentiment of England, judging from the tone of the journals, was altogether favorable to the North. Mr. Spencer had the files of the London press examined in order to determine this point, and found the evidence conclusive. Antagonism to the North was aroused in England by "undeserved vilification." Mr. Bagehot, it may be remembered, pointed out how our "suspension of specie payments," as we used to call it when we defaulted in our promises, alienated the financial world.

Whatever savors of socialism, of course, meets with Mr. Spencer's condemnation, and much of the book is filled with such matter; true, perhaps, but vain as the prophecies of Cassandra. Under the circumstances, it is not surprising that Mr. Spencer should be embittered and acrimonious. He gives us light, but not sweetness. Hence it is touching to find him at the end, in answering the question, "What should the skeptic say to believers?" tenderly considerate of those to whom this life is made tolerable only by the belief in a future life. "Nothing but evil can follow a change in the creed of such; and, unless cruelly thoughtless, the Agnostic will carefully shun discussion of religious subjects with them." Severe as he is, Mr. Spencer cannot help saying that it seems a strange and repugnant conclusion that, with the cessation of consciousness at death, there ceases to be any knowledge of having existed. His final word is: "Of late years the consciousness that, without origin or cause, infinite space has ever existed and must ever exist, produces in me a feeling from which I shrink."

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*The White World:* Life and Adventures within the Arctic Circle, Portrayed by Famous Living Explorers. Edited by Rudolph Kersting for the Arctic Club. New York: Lewis, Scribner & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 386. Illustrated.

This is a collection of yarns, sketches, and stories, by various members of the Arctic Club, informally told, as if to the tinkle of ice in tall glasses, while memory peered through clouds of fragrant Havana. Hence it is obvious that the narrators are not to be held to the stricter limitations laid down for purveyors of scientific, historical, or literary essays, but treated rather as the good fellows of a club evening, each contributing, according to his gifts, something for the common entertainment.

Viewed in this light, the result is a success, and the reader will find in one or another of the brief contributions amusement, excitement, pathos, or tragedy, as he may choose. The average Arctic book depends for its interest upon literary skill or exceptional adventure, so thoroughly has the field been covered by the contributions of a long line of explorers. Even under the best conditions, a large part of each book is given up to details of minor interest. But in the present publication we have, as it were, the plums without the duff, and a majority of the chapters are very pleasant reading. We may, without being invidious, mention especially Brainerd's "Farthest North with Greely"; Middleton Smith's "Superstitions of the Eskimos"; "An Arctic Honeymoon," by Mrs. Florence Leonard Lee; and "Eskimo Music," by Robert Stein. Albert White Vorse gives, under the somewhat inapplicable title of "America's First Polar Expedition," an account of some of the squabbles and perplexities in which the organizers of the Wilkes Exploring Expedition were involved; but as no reference is made to Capt. Symmes and his "Hole," the reader may be warned that Mr. Vorse is far from having exhausted the subject. Other contributors are Amos Bonsall, the sole survivor of the second Grinnell expedition; Biederbick, Long, Dr. Cook, Walter Wellman, Albert Operti; and nearly a dozen more whose names are associated with exploration or adventure in the North. Appropriately enough, the illustrations include portraits of the contributors, as well as many Arctic views and pictures of Eskimo. Readers in search of cooling literature for the heated term, and all those who enjoy tales of Arctic adventure, will profit by and appreciate this undertaking of the Arctic Club, and feel under obligations to the editor and publishers who have carried it out so well.

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*Die Deutschen Universitäten und das Universitätstudium.* Von Friedrich Paulsen. Berlin: A. Asher & Co. 1902.

This the latest work by the author of 'Die Geschichte des Gelehrten Unterrichts,' will no doubt find many readers among the members of university and college faculties in this country. No one is better qualified to write on the subject than Professor Paulsen, and the value of the present volume is enhanced by the fact that only one-seventh of its space (eighty pages) is devoted to historical retrospect, while the remaining 482 large octavo pages contain a frank up-to-date discussion of the contemporary university in all its important phases. Statistics are sparingly introduced; as a rule, only to demonstrate certain conditions or tendencies discussed in the text. The historical sketch, though brief, is not dry; facts form links in the chain of historical development—a development often quite as striking in its retardations as in its progress. Thus, the atmosphere of the territorial confessional university of the 17th and 18th centuries was as close and as stifling to real intellectual freedom in the newly founded Protestant as in the older Catholic universities. The sudden overthrow of the scholastic philosophy was in reality not as complete as it appeared through the spectacles of the humanist; it revived in the 16th and 17th centuries, and lives in the Catholic seminaries of to-day. The defeat of Latin eloquence and verse, in their turn, at the hands of the "moderns" under the leadership of Thomasius, was followed by the extension of the prevailing French influence to the universities; and the Latin language as the medium of lecture-room instruction —than which nothing is more convenient to the mediocre teacher who has only traditional knowledge to communicate (to quote Döllinger)—did not go out of use till many generations later. Instruction in the sciences had been growing in importance as the age of the Renaissance receded, yet the medical faculty remained long the weakest of all; as late as 1805 all the Prussian universities had but 144 students of medicine, as compared with 1,036 in jurisprudence and 555 in theology.

In general the development of university instruction is designated by Paulsen as tending from the practical-dogmatic to the theoretical-academic. The old university acted on the supposition that the truth had been given, and it was for the instructor to transmit it; the new university acts on the supposition that the truth is to be found, and it is for the teacher to fit the student for this task. Of the part taken by individual universities and scholars in the general development little could be said within the narrow limits which Paulsen set him-

self. The influence of Halle and Göttingen, however, which amounted to a complete transformation, during the eighteenth century, of academic conditions in Germany, is duly set forth. But, as has been hinted, the most interesting and valuable part of Prof. Paulsen's book consists in his treatment of the existing conditions of university life and work. The manifold problems, intellectual, moral, and practical, are here discussed throughout in the author's hab'tual liberal-conservative spirit. In speaking of the procedure of filling professorial chairs, the writer incidentally expresses his inability to share the indignation felt by many of his colleagues at the establishment of a chair of history for a Catholic in the University of Strassburg; he sees in this action "merely the recognition of the fact that the historical world, seen from different standpoints, assumes different aspects." In the growth of the already disproportionately large contingent of Jews among academic teachers, on the other hand, Prof. Paulsen sees a real and threatening problem. The modes of remuneration of professors, by means of fixed salaries, lecture fees, etc., the momentous questions of the professor's twofold duty as investigator and teacher, and of the methods of university instruction, by lectures, seminary exercises, etc., form the subjects of exhaustive discussion. Due reference is made to the well-known views on the latter subject of Prof. Bernheim, E. von Hartmann, and others, and this portion of Prof. Paulsen's book really constitutes a useful treatise on the theory and practice of lecturing, replete with suggestions which instructors in our higher institutions will do well to ponder.

A partial bibliography of about ninety titles—all but three or four of nineteenth-century publications—and a good index conclude the volume.

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*Lamarck, the Founder of Evolution:* His Life and Work. With Translations of his Writings on Organic Evolution. By Alpheus S. Packard, M.D., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 8vo, pp. 451, illustrated.

Lamarck was the founder of evolution, the discoverer of the theory of descent, the first to outline the genealogical tree, and the author of many works of great scientific importance. He was the greatest and most philosophical of French naturalists, yet personally very little is known of him. He left almost nothing autobiographical; his contemporaries gave few details relating to him or his life. The present volume contains more about him than any previous attempt, but it has nothing of childhood and youth except the date of birth, the birthplace and its present condition, and the fact that, while being schooled for the Church, he quit to become a soldier. Concerning his later years there is somewhat more. Promoted an officer on the field, he then, being disabled, after a year in the hospital, was a bank clerk for awhile, and studied medicine for several years before he turned to science and became a botanist. At about thirty-four years of age he published his 'Flora of France,' a work which brought him recognition, popularity, and opportunity. As court botanist he travelled and collected in different parts of Europe. His first publication in zoology, on Molluscs, appeared when he was forty-eight; still later, he dropped the plants to occupy himself with invertebrate animals, doing his greatest work on them, until age and blindness prevented.

The first to teach evolution and descent —heretical doctrines in the eyes of the Church—he met with ridicule and persecution, in part probably from jealousy of his early successes. His popularity waned, and, though lecturing and publishing well toward the end, at his death his body was placed in a trench of the unknown and uncared for, whence his bones were thrown on the heaps in the Catacombs and lost. It is from his numerous publications and his lectures, and from notes relating to his duties in the Garden of Plants and the Museum of Natural History, that most concerning him is drawn. In the lack of other material, his writings and teachings are specially dwelt upon. Half or more of the volume under examination is in quotations and translations, to render the matter more exactly. The greatest import lies in the discussion of Lamarck's philosophy and its bearings on the science of his time or of the present, and in a fair presentation of his views in comparison with those of contemporaries or of men of earlier or later times. The author has a full appreciation of the breadth of mind, originality, industry, and persistence of his subject, and of the permanent value of the philosophy, as also of the systematic work in botany and zoölogy. In the comparative discussions, the treatment of the views of Buffon, Erasmus Darwin, Geoffroy St. Hilaire, Cuvier, Charles Darwin, and others is particularly interesting, and clearly shows the great extent to which some of the most modern conclusions in science have been anticipated. The volume is a good addition to the literature on great naturalists; no other gives so just and full an idea of Lamarck and what he did. Of the four portraits, the frontispiece, a side face, is the weakest, hardly as good as the relief from which it appears to have been taken. A better one, perhaps, to have given with the other three is a front face of later date, representing Lamarck in blindness and poverty, and giving a much more effective idea of the helpless giant as he sat in the darkness waiting for death.

Besides some defects chargeable to the proofreader, several minor items may be noted. The Discourse of 1803, translated in chapter xvi., is omitted from the bibliography. The date of death is said to have been accurately ascertained, but, if so, it has been lost in the telling: "The 'acte' states that December 28, 1829, Lamarck, then a widower, died in the Jardin du Roi, at the age of eighty-five years"; this is followed by—"The obsequies, as stated in the *Moniteur Universel* of Paris for December 23, 1829, were celebrated on the Sunday previous in the Church of Saint-Médard, his parish," and the second sentence from this, again, is, "At the interment, which took place December 30, M. Latreille, in the name of the Academy of Sciences, and M. Geoffroy St. Hilaire, in the name and on behalf of his colleagues, the professors of the Museum of Natural History, pronounced eulogies at the grave"; on the next page, "De Monnet de Lamarck buried this 20 December, 1829," etc., is copied from the register, and several pages farther along it is said that "At a session of the Professors held December 22, 1829, the first meeting after his death," etc. The last chapter, that on Neolamarckism, is so much in the nature of a lot of testimonials as to raise a question whether it adds either to strength or to completeness in a history of 'Lamarck, his Life and Work.'

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Billy Burgundy's Letters. J. F. Taylor & Co. 75 cents.
Crothers, T. D. Morphinism, and Narcomanias from Other Drugs. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co. $2.
Day, H. F. Pine Tree Ballads. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Farrow, G. E. The New Panjandrum. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Gordon, Julien. World's People. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
McMaster, J. S. McMaster's Commercial Paper (Illustrated). The McMaster Co. $2.
Myers, B. V. The Middle Ages. Ginn & Co.

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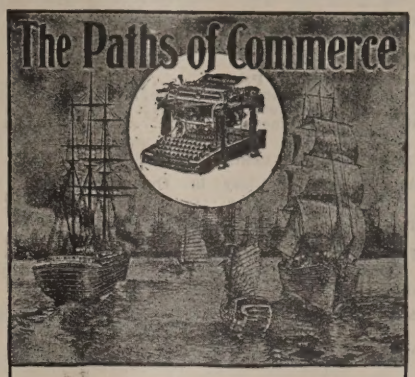


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*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 24, 1902.*

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Who would suppose, from the tone of the American press, or even from the tenor of the communications of the Administration to the Vatican, that the Philippine friars had a shadow of legal right behind them? "The Friars Must Go," is the current cry; yet it is in direct disregard of the most solemn treaty obligations assumed by this Government. The second paragraph of Article VIII. of the Treaty of Paris reads:

"And it is hereby declared that the relinquishment or cession, as the case may be, to which the preceding paragraph refers, cannot in any respect impair the property or rights which by law belong to the peaceful possession of property of all kinds, of provinces, municipalities, public or private establishments, *ecclesiastical* or civic bodies, or any other associations having legal capacity to acquire and possess property in the aforesaid territories renounced or ceded, or of private individuals, of whatsoever nationality such individuals may be."

Now it is to that clause that the Philippine friars, and their protectors in Rome, are entitled to point and say, "We stand upon the law." The holdings of the friars come distinctly under the provisions of the treaty. They are plainly property of the sort which we have pledged ourselves to allow no man to "impair." Yet when its owners come to the American authorities in Manila and in Washington and demand that they be reinstated in "the peaceful possession of their property," the answer they get is, "Not at all. You must go." Indeed, Secretary Root declares that the United States "cannot permit" the reinstatement of the friars in their property. We vowed we would do it; now we say that we shall not allow it. The negotiations are broken off for the present, as it was inevitable they should be, considering the temper in which they were undertaken. The *Tribune*, however, assures us that it "is not for a moment to be conceded" that Secretary Root's diplomacy has been "defeated." To prove the case up to the hilt, it prints the pictures of two of the three Cardinals who "are held responsible for the failure of negotiations over the friars' lands."

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President Roosevelt is in luck to have received Senator McLaurin's declination of a proffered United States judgeship. The Court of Claims is one requiring a high grade of judges, adequate to the important questions brought before them, and to the serious responsibilities which they have to sustain; and the retiring Senator from South Carolina has impressed no one, unless it be the President, with his qualifications for that bench. His refusal to accept a seat on it, in view of the charge made against him that he was selling his party allegiance for that reward, betrays more delicacy on his part than we can think the President displayed in offering him the appointment. Mr. Roosevelt is reported to have said that he desired to give McLaurin "some place," not as a reward for his support of the Administration, but as a recognition of his "proving that a Southern man may fight in the Northern ranks of a reunited people." That elegant phrase is only another way of saying that McLaurin became to all intents and purposes a Republican. For that he may have deserved gratitude and a reward, but some other than a judicial appointment should have been found for him. The President cannot use judgeships to pay party debts without injuring both his own prestige and that of the judges. He will probably have many important judicial vacancies to fill; and it is fortunate that he has been saved from the blunder of naming so unfit a man as McLaurin for the first one.

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Representative Chester T. Long of Kansas was never much known outside his State until he came into prominence as an earnest advocate of Cuban reciprocity in the Ways and Means Committee, and as the zealous supporter of Mr. Roosevelt's policy on this question when the Kansas Republicans, a few weeks ago, had to decide between the President and Senator Burton, one of the "insurgents." Since this episode Mr. Long has come to be a considerable figure in national politics, and he proves to have an interesting personality. He recognizes that reciprocity with Cuba is the great issue in his State, and he delivered a speech on the subject before the Chautauqua Assembly at Ottawa, Kan., last week, which was a fine specimen of vigorous and courageous argument. He first showed that such reciprocity as Mr. Roosevelt has urged is consistent with Republican doctrine, and then demonstrated that nobody in this country could be harmed by it—not even the farmers who raise beets to be converted into sugar—since the price of sugar, and consequently of beets, would not be affected by the proposed reduction of the duty on Cuban sugar. But the strongest part of the speech was Mr. Long's insistence upon the moral aspects of the question, growing out of our special duty to Cuba and our special pledges to her.

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Wisconsin Republicans have for two years been involved in a factional controversy of the utmost bitterness. Robert M. La Follette, an ambitious and forceful politician, who appears to be a man of much the same type as the late Hazen S. Pingree in Michigan, and, like him, is considered by many a thorough-going demagogue, succeeded in securing the nomination for Governor in 1900. He was elected by a majority which attested his personal popularity, for his vote fell only 1,447 short of that polled for McKinley, who was supported, on the issue of opposition to Bryanism, by many thousand Democrats in a State long distinguished for its earnest adherence to sound money. La Follette had made his campaign chiefly on the promise of reform, both in the method of making nominations and in the matter of taxing corporations. His Republican opponents had sufficient influence in the Legislature to thwart the full accomplishment of his purposes, and the Governor therefore sought a second term upon the same issues. The "Stalwarts," as his opponents have often been styled, fought him with the utmost vigor in the caucuses, but they were overwhelmingly defeated, La Follette securing fully two-thirds of the delegates to the convention which met last week.

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Chance gives a national bearing to one feature of this year's State election in Wisconsin. The Legislature which is to be chosen in November must elect a United States Senator, as Mr. Spooner's term will expire next March. The Senator has been busily engaged in his duties at Washington through nearly the whole of the contest in the primaries, and he had held aloof, so far as the public was informed, from the previous dispute between the factions. But he is hated bitterly by La Follette, and his closest friends have been among the older party leaders whom the Governor has pushed aside. The mass of Republicans admire the Senator's ability, and desire his continuance in the public service, but the La Follette managers in the convention insisted upon conditioning their support on his endorsement of the La Follette platform which had been adopted. So far as its chief planks are concerned—"the equal and uniform taxation of all taxable property," and the nomination of all candidates at a primary election on a certain day by direct vote under the Australian system—it is hard to see why Mr. Spooner should not accept them, as the "Stalwarts" generally must do, unless they are prepared to bolt on seemingly insufficient grounds. The resolution adopted truthfully declares that Mr. Spooner "has become recognized as the leader of the United States Senate," and in ordinary circumstances it would be a national misfortune if a public man of such standing should be forced out of Congress by a factional controversy in his State. Posterity, however, reviewing Senator Spooner's

rôle in our Imperial rake's progress—that of apologist, against his own better judgment, salver of the public conscience, and adroit legislative draughtsman—may see in his retirement only the poetic justice which is sure to relegate many of his Jingo associates to obscurity.

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We can but admire the strategy which Chairman Babcock announces for the conduct of the Republican campaign. He is going to have no "literature" this year. The ordinary "campaign handbook" would, indeed, tax the skill of the compiler, for an election in which different sections of the party are at swords' points over the true policy to be advocated. As Mr. Babcock astutely observes, "The people are tired of literature, and want a change." He is going to give it to them in the shape of an unprecedented outflow of oratory. A perfect "firing line" of Republican stump-speakers is to traverse the country. They may fire at each other, very likely, but anyhow they will keep up a tremendous volleying. That is the main thing. Agreement on the real objective is only a bookish way of making political war. Mr. Babcock himself will denounce the high tariff which shelters Trusts, and Congressman Payne will propose to shoot on the spot any man who lays a sacrilegious hand upon one of its schedules; Representative Long will make Kansas ring with his clamorous demands for Cuban reciprocity, and Mr. Tawney of Minnesota will declare that policy no better than treachery. This is a somewhat obvious inconsistency, but, bless your simple heart, the object of a political party is not to be consistent, but to win the elections. As the *Sun* solemnly puts it, the duty of the hour is to "rebuke" the faithless Republican party, "provided the spirit of vengeance goes no further." That is to say, we must be very angry with our betrayers, but must be sure to send back to Congress enough quarrelling Republicans to betray us again. To this end, Chairman Babcock's plan of go-as-you-please bushwhacking, without concert and without responsibility, seems beautifully adapted.

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The action of the bituminous miners' convention at Indianapolis last week is one of the most gratifying developments of the time. It was possible for the miners to have simply said, We will force a sympathetic strike, or, We will not; and let the matter go at that. Such action would have left the decision merely a matter of expediency; and, in fact, it is the question of expediency which has been most actively discussed in the preliminaries of the convention. The favorite argument of miners who opposed in advance a strike by the soft-coal men, has been that such a strike, with the resultant loss of wages, would deprive the hard-coal miners of the financial assistance which they might otherwise expect. Fortunately, the miners at Indianapolis do not rest their decision on any such narrow grounds. Their decision not to strike is clearly based on the fact that a strike would violate contracts with their employers. The bituminous union has agreed on the wage schedule for the year; it has signed, in behalf of its constituents, an agreement to recognize that schedule during the next twelve months. There have not been lacking hot-headed labor leaders to plead for disregard of contracts, and to raise again the cry of "My Union, right or wrong." But the convention is a deliberative body. It has heard some plain truths, and acted on them intelligently.

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Mr. Mitchell put the case of the conservative party, in his reference to the dangerous effects of contract violation. It must be said that the view of contracts presented in his speech was a little naïve. To say that, "though a temporary advantage may be gained by violating contracts, it will certainly lead in the end to disaster," is, to say the least, a somewhat unconventional way of discussing the contract question. But Mr. Mitchell doubtless knew his men, and acted accordingly. Unions have not been noted for accepting the view of contracts which will be found in treatises on law or in a merchant's code of ethics, and it was perhaps diplomatic to waive the question of the organization's honor and to argue solely from the laborer's personal interest. And, from that point of view, there can be no doubt of the soundness of Mr. Mitchell's argument. If the members of a union will not keep the contracts signed by its officers in the laborers' behalf, then it is clearly foolish for the employers to sign such contracts. But if employers were to refuse to sign, then the laborer is at once back where he stood a generation ago. It has never been alleged that the companies repudiate their side of the contract. But they could hardly afford to continue making pledges of wages for the year if the *quid pro quo* were to depend merely on the whim of the other signatory. Mr. Mitchell's address went considerably beyond even this appeal for contract observance. He took up the whole question of sympathetic strikes, and had some very forcible comments to make upon them. He plainly said that "sympathy strikes" result invariably in failure for the men who participate in them, and that the proposition for such a strike to-day is a mistake.

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It is now several weeks since it was declared, in behalf of the anthracite operators, that they could man their mines on a day's notice if they were to give work to strikers who were anxious to return. This statement was either correct or incorrect. If it was incorrect, the public view ought to be promptly set right by a trustworthy explanation. If it was correct, then we are wholly at loss to understand what the operators mean by their present attitude. It is true enough that the public has suffered less from the deadlock at the mines than had been expected—apparently because a mysterious reserved stock of anthracite has been fed out by somebody to the market after prices had been forced to the maximum. But the *Engineering and Mining Journal* of last Saturday, after remarking that the regular July price for coal at New York is $4.05 to $4.30, adds that "what coal is picked up outside of that still supplied to certain old customers, changes hands at $7 to $8 per ton." Whether the coal which is being quietly put out, at these extortionate prices, comes at first hand from the operators, or from speculating intermediaries, we do not know, and it does not greatly affect the merits of the question. In either case, a wrong is being done to whatever people have to buy the coal, and is done without excuse, unless—and this the operators themselves do not assert—it is impossible to start up mining.

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In a recent article in the Chicago *Record-Herald*, President J. G. Merrill of Fisk University calls attention to the growing need of trained negro physicians and ministers. In many parts of the South the colored man has quite outgrown the old type of negro preacher, and there are no places where he does not need in his pastor a social guide and educator ready to direct the forward movement of the race. It is not generally known in the North that Southern white ministers, at least in many sections, decline to even marry negroes. In one case of which we know, a negro couple desirous of marrying in an Episcopal church were able to do so only by passing themselves off for white persons after a long journey to a city in which they were not known. The negro doctor, as President Merrill points out, has "an amazing opportunity" among the eight millions of his race, inasmuch as the black man turns to a physician of his own color as readily as the white physician in the South turns away from colored patients whenever he can honorably do so. President Merrill was able to tell of the success of twelve negro doctors in Nashville, all doing well financially, and half of them amassing property. He reports also that it is easier for a colored physician to build up a self-supporting practice than for the white doctor. The necessity of good medical schools for negroes should be plain to all, even to those who doubt the wisdom of higher education in the classics and natural sciences. New York city would be benefited if there were several hundred competent and professionally high-minded colored doctors within its limits to do missionary

work in its terribly degraded "colored quarters."

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The formation of a large real-estate and building corporation, with a capital of $60,000,000, is, of course, in accordance with the economic tendencies of the time. It is merely an extension of the modern idea of combination to the industry of building and the management of real estate. The organization of the new "Realty Trust," too, so far as its details are known, presents many points of contact with other recent large flotations. The new corporation will acquire the holdings of several large corporations already in existence, giving in return its own shares; and it may be taken for granted that the properties thus purchased will be put in at a generous advance over their present valuation. This, it will hardly be denied, is pretty high, for the large realty corporations, in their recent purchases, have bid up prices so far that many of the stiffest property-holders have taken advantage of the opportunity to sell. It may be assumed, therefore, that not more than one-half of the $60,000,000 capitalization, at the most, will represent actual assets. Neither is it to be feared that the new combination is likely to monopolize the field. The choicest parcels of Manhattan realty are already owned by powerful families and estates, and are practically out of the market. It is little less than a religion with these families—the Astors, for example—never to sell. It is inconceivable, therefore, that the new Trust will unfavorably affect the public in the way of advancing rents. Competition, especially in the provision of office and high-class apartment accommodations, will practically be as keen as before.

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The public is interested in the combination, however, from a very different standpoint. It means, in a word, the opening up of an entirely new field of investment. Hitherto the investor who cared to put his surplus cash into real estate has been limited to the actual ownership of property, or, secondarily, to investments in bonds and mortgage. But the value of centrally located Manhattan realty has so advanced in the course of the last fifteen or twenty years that its actual ownership is limited to a very small percentage of the public. A down-town office building, for example, one of the properties which the Trust will absorb, represents invested capital of $7,500,000; a new hotel, planned for the Plaza site, will cost in the neighborhood of $10,000,000. It is evident that for financial undertakings of this kind a different form of organization is required from that which prevailed in the days when Wall Street lots sold for $1,000 or less. To meet this want the new realty combination is formed. That it supplies a genuine need, therefore, is plain at a glance. That Manhattan real estate, ably and conservatively managed, is as good an asset for a dividend-paying corporation as steel or gas or railroads, must also be admitted. Whether the new corporation fails or succeeds, therefore, will depend entirely upon the way it is conducted. The idea, though novel, is economically sound.

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Russia's reported suggestion of an international congress to deal with Trusts has that strange air of a union of self-seeking and of universal if somewhat dreamy benevolence which has marked other Russian proposals, of late years. Cynics will at once say that Russia wants in some way to avoid having her sugar exports penalized, as they now are in this country, for being aided by an indirect bounty. Others will see in the Russian Government's invitation to the nations to meet for discussion of great combinations of capital only one more sign of the European dread of "the American peril." In particular, it will be said, Russia fears American competition in China, even in Mantchuria, which she has marked for her own, and is plotting in this way to retain her markets for herself while winning a better chance to compete under the system of the open door in the Orient. All these things may be alleged, and may be true; yet our exporters will do well to note the alternative which M. Witte holds up. Failing an international agreement, says the St. Petersburg *Financial Messenger*, "there is but one remedy, namely, increased customs duties." In other words, that staff of protection on which American exporting Trusts lean at home, may be as a sword levelled at them abroad.

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In the idea itself of an international congress on Trusts there is something alluring. Nor does the movement for calling one come badly from the Czar Disarmer. A reason frequently given for the maintenance of swollen armaments is the trade rivalry of the leading nations. Cobden saw and declared, even in his time, that "the cry for new markets might become as mischievous as the old cry for extended dominion," and that jealousies about trade might lead to war as directly as disputes about territory. There is no doubt, therefore, that if the nations could make an amicable agreement covering international trade, the chances of general disarming would be greatly brightened. As for the necessity of common action, that is not at present clear; nor is it easy to see what effective plan of repressing the international ill effects of Trusts could be devised. Yet even if the project is only a dream, as yet, we must not forget that the dreams of one generation are often the realities of the next. The Common Law has long aimed its weapons at regrating and monopoly; who knows that some sort of international statute against internationally operative Trusts may not hereafter find a place in the *jus gentium*?

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In view of the German Emperor's recent speech against excessive drinking, made at Bonn before his old college corps, the Borussia, it is interesting to note that the Prussian Landtag recently adopted a measure which is also aimed at wholesale drinking. Incidentally it attempts to limit the sale of liquor during church hours on Sunday. Thus, while many New Yorkers favor opening the saloons on the day of rest, the Prussians are working towards a limitation of Sunday selling. There is, of course, no thought of stopping the whole liquor business on the Sabbath, but the action of the Landtag is one of a number of signs that thoughtful Germans have taken alarm at the constant drinking, by which thousands of people, if not drunk, are always more or less under the influence of alcohol. Naturally, the movement to restrict Sunday liquor-selling is meeting with much opposition. Even so high-minded a newspaper as the Berlin *Tageblatt* raises the familiar cry that to close the saloons on Sunday morning would infringe upon the citizen's liberty. There will be much more agreement on the necessity of putting an end to the bestial drinking at the German universities. For his outspoken language about this unmitigated evil the Emperor deserves all praise. So does the Crown Prince's refusal, since his imperial father's speech, to conform to the Borussia's drinking requirements —an action hitherto involving social ostracism for one not born to the purple.

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A single administrative order of Premier Combes's is to close 2,500 Roman Catholic schools in France, throwing out of employment 6,000 masters, and leaving 150,000 children to be otherwise provided for. M. Waldeck-Rousseau would have been content to leave the Associations Law as an official expression of opinion, useful chiefly as a general reprimand to the contumacious orders, but available, on occasion, for the exemplary repression of any particularly obnoxious body. Premier Combes apparently means to enforce it as literally as if it were the tax on doors and windows. Without going into the casuistry of these two attitudes towards the Associations Law, it is plain enough that M. Waldeck-Rousseau's mild *in terrorem* policy tended to keep the Catholics loyal, while Premier Combes is apparently studying the methods of making the Catholics his enemies. One must recall that these Roman Catholic schools are among the best in France—that they are preferred to the Government schools by the wealthy and aristocratic classes generally—to appreciate the odium that the new Ministry is deliberately incurring.

*AN APPEAL TO THE PEOPLE.*

From Lincoln, Neb., comes the interesting news that the Republican State Committee, at its meeting on Thursday, "turned down" Senator Dietrich, one of the beet-sugar insurgents. Mr. Dietrich and his colleague, Mr. Millard, who stood with him on the issue of Cuban reciprocity, had already tried to persuade the party managers in their State that they could help in the campaign as much as though they had supported the President and the majority of Republican Congressmen on this question, but they had been given to understand that their services were not desired. Mr. Dietrich was unwilling to accept the rebuff, and made a personal appeal to the State Committee, only to find that body unanimous in sustaining the President, and in feeling that a Senator who had tried to thwart him could not render any assistance on the stump.

The Republicans of Kansas have been quite as frank and united in their rebuke of Senator Burton, another of the "insurgents," and in their endorsement of Representative Long, the member of the Ways and Means Committee who from the very first earnestly supported the policy of Cuban reciprocity. Mr. Burton recently made a long and labored attempt to justify his course, but even before he delivered this speech he had found party sentiment so generally against him that he did not dare to maintain an uncompromising attitude. He therefore followed his attempt at justification of his past conduct with the announcement that he would cheerfully turn around and support reciprocity if his constituents should say that he ought. He soon found out what they thought. His home is in the Fifth Congressional District, and the Republicans of Riley County, in that district, held their convention a few days ago. They adopted a resolution which heartily approved President Roosevelt's course in general; particularly endorsed "his unflinching demand for an honorable discharge of the pledges made to the Cuban republic, and for such generous treatment of that country through reciprocal trade arrangements as shall provide relief during its period of recuperation and at the same time bring great commercial advantages to the United States"; and then added:

> "And whereas Senator Burton has requested the people to advise him as to their wishes, now, therefore, be it resolved: That we demand of Senator Burton, whose home is in this district, to vote for and stand by the reciprocity policy of President Roosevelt."

Meanwhile Representative Long wins everywhere in his district the warmest praise for the struggle he made while Congress was in session, and for his determination to keep up the fight until it shall be won. A meeting of the Republican Congressional Committee in his district was held, the other day, at which he outlined his plan of campaign. Mr. Long referred to the unequivocal declaration in favor of reciprocity made by the State convention of the party, said that his canvass would be made squarely on that platform, and added that "there will be no faltering, no equivocation, no hesitation." Mr. Long quoted the President's speech at Pittsburgh on the Fourth of July, in which he declared that "reciprocity is as sure as fate," announced his own agreement with this view, and expressed this sound philosophy as to party action: "If the Republican party confesses that reciprocity is too big a question for it to settle, it will matter little who is the candidate in 1904. The Republican party is a party of action, and it will remain in power only as long as it is able to perform."

The Minnesota Senators and Representatives who opposed reciprocity find their constituents as unresponsive to their apologies as the people of Kansas to Mr. Burton and those of Nebraska to Messrs. Dietrich and Millard. Senator Nelson, Representative Tawney, and the other Minnesota "insurgents" in Congress persuaded the party managers to "let them down easy" by putting a facing-both-ways resolution in the platform adopted by the State Convention, but this device has not helped their case at all. The present situation is accurately summed up by the Minneapolis *Journal*, one of the chief Republican newspapers, which declares that the recalcitrants "find themselves without any real support at home." Senator Nelson, Representative Tawney, and the rest supposed that they would be endorsed because they professed to be standing up for the local interest of beet-sugar making, but the *Journal* says that "the people of the State have risen above the narrow sectional view of this question, and viewed it in the light of National policy and duty."

In these developments there is great ground for encouragement to all who believe that the American people will always rise to a moral issue when it is clearly presented. President Roosevelt should learn from the quick and general response of the Republican masses to his appeal for support against perfidious Senators and Representatives that the next time he may "strike when the iron is hot," as it was in this matter by the end of last February, with entire assurance that the people will sustain him and force their unfaithful servants in the Capitol to recant and to discharge national obligations without delay.

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*REDEEMING THE AMERICAN NAME.*

Whatever criticisms the future historian may find himself compelled to pass upon the Administration of Theodore Roosevelt, he will be able to cite the President's decision in the case of Gen. Jacob H. Smith as an example of a just and high-minded action, and as a manly blow for the honor of the army and the nation. He will be able to show that the President's decision was not only unexpected by his party associates, but unwelcome to many of them, and that it was rendered at the risk of making himself unpopular with the managers of his party as well as with the army. Editors, generals, and Senators had been apologizing for a method of campaigning in our island possessions which would have received universal condemnation had it been used by Filipinos or Chinese Boxers. It was charged that the Opposition was seeking to dishonor the army and the country; that instead of upholding the men facing the bullets, the critics at home were firing upon them from the rear. There was the excuse apologetic, the excuse denunciatory, and the defence absolute. In behalf of a few uniformed offenders, war was given even a blacker name than heretofore, by the side of which Gen. Gordon's definition of it as "organized cruelty, pillage, and murder" paled. Our military heroes of bygone conflicts were dragged out—Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, even Washington—and their worst deeds retold to defend a "Hell-Roaring Jake," a murderous Waller, and a torturing Glenn. There were plenty of signs of a fetish worship of the army.

Fortunately, the President of the United States, himself a soldier, remained unaffected by the clamor and confusion of the demagogues about him. He forced an apparently unwilling Secretary of War into rigid investigation. He issued an order declaring that "the President desires to know in the fullest and most circumstantial manner all the facts, nothing being concealed, and no man being for any reason favored or shielded." "Nothing can justify," he affirmed, "or will be held to justify, the use of torture or inhuman conduct of any kind on the part of the American army." He insisted, moreover, upon the trial of every officer accused. Now, when the results of two courts-martial have been laid before him, he has been quick to bear out by deed the written promise of last April, and to show unmistakably his abhorrence of the kind of warfare practised by Major Waller and Gen. Smith. By this action he has upheld those who contend that the best way to make an army pure and honorable is to expose its scandals relentlessly and to punish its wrongdoers, just as the surgeon extirpates a poisonous growth which threatens to contaminate the entire system.

In both of the cases at issue the court which tried the officers so erred on the side of leniency as to give special point to "Mr. Dooley's" characterization of it as an "austere but hail-fellow inquiry." But the President has practically censured the court, and has reminded the delinquent officers composing it that the honor of the army is in his hands as well

as theirs to defend. Where it acquitted Major Waller, but the other day the recipient of a "sword of honor," the President declares that he has "sullied the American name"—a phrase borrowed, it might seem, from political opponents. Where the court merely admonished Gen. Smith, the President adds to this totally inadequate punishment by abruptly ordering the officer's retirement. Although the retired list of the army is an honorable one, and does not include the names of more than one or two Eagans, the manner of his going upon it will for ever mark Gen. Smith as a soldier disgraced at the very close of his career. The excuse of his friends that no men, or women, or children were killed as a result of his infamous order, rightly availed him as little as the assertion that Major Waller should have recognized in his "hell-roarings" the weakness of an eccentric and ill-balanced mind. When urged to promote a veteran of four wars by reason of his long service, Frederick the Great once retorted: "So is my mule a veteran of four campaigns, but that does not qualify him to be a general." Similarly President Roosevelt did not allow a long career of some merit to blind him to the atrocious character of Gen. Smith's conduct.

In his treatment of these officers Mr. Roosevelt has gone to the limit of his powers, since no retrial of the accused men, with a view to obtaining proper sentences for them, was possible. The rectitude of the President's action should not blind the public to the difficulty of his position, or lead it to withhold from him the praise he deserves. In going counter to the army-worshippers President Roosevelt has honored himself, and at the same time has made a very shrewd political move. If it should exasperate so unrestrained a defender of "kill and burn" methods as Senator Foraker to have the leader of the Republican party show up his doctrine of righteous brutality and slaughter in its true colors, it will, on the other hand, deprive the Democrats of such an opportunity for criticism of the Administration as was afforded by the conduct of the Secretary of War, who declared, on February 18, that the war in the Philippines had been conducted with "unequalled self-restraint and humanity," at the very moment that he was quietly ordering inquiry into the conduct of Major Glenn, of Capts. Ryan and Lyons, and others.

In its broader aspect the President is entitled to thanks for destroying the whole breastwork of misconception and distortion with which our budding Imperialists were fortifying their doctrine of the infallibility and freedom from criticism of the army. The Dreyfus trial showed the futility of such an undertaking in a nation eaten up and ruled by militarism. It can never succeed in this country, for there will always be Roosevelts to treat men on their merits, without regard to the waving of the flag and the cry of the demagogue, and an Opposition to make it clear that men in uniform differ from others only in the demoralizing character of their profession, and the singular temptations to which their license to kill and maim exposes them.

## *THE BIBLE AS LITERATURE.*

One of the resolutions adopted by the National Educational Association at Minneapolis week before last was the following:

> "It is apparent that familiarity with the English Bible as a masterpiece of literature is rapidly decreasing among the pupils in our schools. This is the direct result of a conception which regards the Bible as a theological book merely, and thereby leads to its exclusion from the schools of some States as a subject of reading and study. We hope and ask for such a change of public sentiment in this regard as will permit and encourage the English Bible, now honored by name in many school laws and State Constitutions, to be read and studied as a literary work of the highest and purest type, side by side with the poetry and prose which it has inspired and in large part formed."

The complaint is an old one, and is well founded. Ignorance of the Bible, even among the educated classes, has reached a depth which would have left our pious ancestors aghast. President Thwing published, some years ago, the results of an investigation into the acquaintance of a typical freshman class with the phraseology of the Bible. An examination was set on the Biblical allusions in Tennyson. The results would have been laughable if they had not been so disheartening. The freshmen could not have gone farther astray if they had been asked to point out Tennyson's Virgilian refrains or echoes of Catullus. As to the fact of the declining and disappearing familiarity with the Bible, there can be little disagreement. Things have reached such a pass that a story recently told by an English man of letters might easily be found applicable to any part of the Bible. He went into a bookstore and inquired, "Have you the Apocrypha?" The young person behind the counter reflected for a moment, and then asked, "Is it a weekly or a monthly?"

That the loss of the old saturation of the popular mind with the language of the English Bible is deplorable, few would deny. It is like letting slip a precious part of our race heritage. The sinewy style, the piquant idiom, the haunting phrase—what shall our literature, our oratory, do without them? But they are going, or gone, from the general memory. The educators at Minneapolis did not overstate the extent of this literary loss of the Bible. We only wish, for our part, that there were any way of making it good: but we fear that the Educational Association was wrong both in its account of the cause of the mischief and its prescription of the remedy. We do not believe, that is to say, that the vanishing knowledge of Biblical incident and diction is due to the banishment of the Bible from the public schools, as a theological book, or that it could be restored by the reading of the Bible in the schoolroom as a pure example of the highest literature.

Where did our grandfathers get their intimate familiarity with the splendid English of King James's version? How did it become second nature to them to make their daily conversation, their family letters, vivid with racy expressions or solemn utterance taken instinctively from the Bible? They became mighty in the Scriptures, not in school, but in the church, and, above all, in the home, by means of repeated reading and compulsory memorizing under a father's eye or at a mother's knee. Ruskin has told us of the process in his own case, and it was typical. Nor did the child dream that it was literature he was getting. Devout awe and godly fear were the atmosphere about the sacred volume. Just because it was "a theological book"—because lightnings and earthquakes and the voice of a trumpet were associated with it, and in it were supposed to be wrapped up the issues of life and death, the destinies of the soul, heaven and hell—it was read and committed to memory with that wrapt attention and excitement which fastened its words for ever upon the mind. An old graduate of Phillips Academy once asked another, "Why could we never forget the principal parts of a Greek verb that we learned under Principal Taylor?" "It was because we were afraid of him," promptly replied the other. "Fear made our minds like highly sensitized plates, and we could not forget." Something like that is the true explanation of the way in which a former generation stored up the language of a book which was thought to be big with the eternal fate of every reader.

Now is it going to be possible to reproduce those old conditions by a restoration of the Bible to the schools as a piece of literature merely? If you set a boy to studying the Apocalypse as a fine specimen of post-Elizabethan English, will he carry from it anything like the imaginative associations, or the indelible memory of epithet and description, which were borne away formerly by children who read in a trembling and holy reverence, not knowing when the beasts and the dragon and the mighty angel might not appear visibly to their dilated eyes? We think the question answers itself. The old familiarity with the Bible was not gained by literary study, and it cannot now be made good by literary study. The Bible, simply grouped among the English books to be read in literature Class A, Course IV., would have to take its chances with Marlowe and Shakspere and Bacon, and would thus be at once degraded from the unique position which it formerly held, and which alone gave it

its unrivalled place in the thought and speech of the English race.

Moreover, if the Bible is to be regarded purely in a literary light, and only as a source of reference and allusion useful to an educated man, we are bound to say that the motive for its study is lessening every year. The reason is that to employ Biblical phraseology is to employ a tongue which is becoming more and more unknown. Nobody who writes or speaks can fail to have perceived this. If you venture to borrow a phrase like "their chariots drave heavily," you are sure to get a query from the proofreader—"drove?" If some Biblical expression leaps to the lips of a public speaker—"abomination of desolation," let us say, or "the mystery of iniquity"—the blank look he observes on every face shows him that he might as well have talked Greek. Thus the purely literary motive for studying the Bible breaks down in another way. If the old Biblical associations in men's minds have disappeared, why should writer or speaker equip himself with even a noble English phraseology which will surely be caviare to the general? We conclude, therefore, that the only way in which the old familiarity with the Bible can be revived is by bringing back the social and religious conditions under which it was "the one book" to a whole people and the man of their counsel. But we hear of nobody who thinks that in fact those conditions can really be restored.

### *MUSIC AND MANLINESS.*

One of the most puzzling of all æsthetic problems lies in the fact that the English, who have achieved such splendid results in some of the fine arts—notably poetry and painting—have so long remained an unmusical nation. A thousand years ago, every Englishman was expected to be able to sing and accompany himself on the harp; and in Shakspere's time the English appear to have been as fond of music as any Continental nation. These good beginnings, however, never led to great results. For a long time it was taken for granted that the hostility of the Puritans to the art of music had checked its growth; but several recent writers have argued plausibly that this hostility has been exaggerated, and that it could have hardly had such far-reaching consequences. British commercialism, and the great national devotion to politics and to outdoor sports, then suggested themselves as explanations; but these, too, did not seem to cover the whole ground.

New light is thrown on the problem by the musical critic of the London *Times*, Mr. J. A. Fuller Maitland, in his recent volume, 'English Music in the Nineteenth Century.' One need not go so far as to agree with him that there have been born in England since 1847 five composers—Mackenzie, Parry, Goring Thomas, Cowen, and Stanford—who constitute a school or group that can be compared with any that the world of music has seen, and some of whom will ultimately be generally accepted as among the greatest composers of all time; but he certainly proves that there has been a musical renaissance in England since the middle of the last century, and that music is held in much higher esteem than formerly. The ideal of a National Opera is still unfulfilled, but the mere fact that the plan has been discussed as practicable argues progress in the right direction. That the London County Council should spend a large sum every summer in giving frequenters of the parks the opportunity of hearing good music would, writes Mr. Maitland, "have seemed incredible not long since." The number of concert-halls and concerts has increased enormously, and at a much higher rate than the general growth of the city. Students no longer have to go to foreign capitals for their musical education; and when they appear on the stage, they may safely dispense with the customary "Herr," "Signor," or "Mme.," and boldly use "Mr." or "Mrs." In short, "in a thousand ways the musical atmosphere is more favorable than it was to native talent."

Of special interest is what Mr. Maitland says about the attitude of the people generally toward music. He finds that in every class of society the standpoint of the average person in regard to it is completely different from what it used to be. The ordinary man no longer sees anything to be proud of in the confession that he does not know one tune from another; and the typical lady no longer thinks it a matter of course to indulge in loud conversation during a musical performance. The frequency with which ladies and gentlemen, in the truest sense of the words, have become professional musicians attests the honor in which the art is now held, and has also helped to raise the tone of the profession itself. But most important of all is the change in the attitude of men toward music:

> "Formerly, the average English parent considered it an almost unmentionable disgrace that a taste for music should manifest itself in the case of the male children; the daughter who had a shapely arm was obliged to play the harp as a matter of course, and any two sisters nearly of an age were bound to display their charms in pianoforte duets; but a son who should take to singing or to 'wasting his time' at the piano was held to be a sort of disgrace to any respectable family, and to require some grave treatment, medical or other, for his cure."

To-day, if we may believe our informant, the normal English parent sees no more objection to cultivating the talent for music than a taste for another art, or for a science. Be that as it may, does not the passage just cited suggest a solution of the mystery regarding the failure of the English to have great names in music? So long as music was regarded as an unmanly art, it was natural that the manliest and most ambitious men should devote themselves to other arts or occupations. It may be said that real musical genius is an irresistible impulse, and unchangeable, but that is not always the case; indeed, great genius is apt to be versatile. Richard Wagner had the poetic and the pictorial faculties almost as highly developed as the musical. Had he lived in England, he probably would have been simply a poet or a painter, allowing his musical faculty to lie dormant.

It must be clearly understood that what we mean when we deny the England of the past a place among the musical nations is not so much that it has not produced good singers and players, as that it has not given birth to a single composer of the first rank. In the matter of performance, music is both manly and womanly; violinists and pianists of the fair sex are nearly as great as their male rivals, while sopranos and contraltos are quite the equals of tenors and bassos. But, on the creative side, music is distinctly a manly art. The very fact that it has always been held to be more or less of a feminine art, and that, nevertheless, we have not a single immortal melody written by a woman, argues that virility is essential to musical creativeness. If the English, therefore, have given up the absurd idea that music is not an art for men, this change in itself will raise bright hopes for the future; and it is not impossible that, a hundred years hence, an historian of England may be able to write what a German historian can truthfully say to-day—that the two most prominent and most manly figures of the past century in his country were a politician and a musician—Bismarck and Wagner.

### A FRENCHMAN'S DIARY IN OUR CIVIL-WAR TIME.—II.

November 12, 1864.—New York. Breakfast at the Union League Club, where I had to make a speech and acquitted myself as best I could, feeling that mistakes would be overlooked in a foreigner. Goldwin Smith, an invited guest like myself, made a genuine discourse. If he carries back to his own country all the messages given him to-day, he will have his hands full:

"Tell England that we are her best friends, and can never dispense with her esteem and friendship." "Tell her," said another, more of an *Alceste* than a *Philinte*, "that we have become indifferent to her praise and censure alike." "We are but one and the same nation," said a third; "John Milton was an American, and George Washington was an Englishman." "All America," shouted a fourth, "is a new England." "What distinguishes us from England," says a fifth, "is that there is nothing insular about us; we are an idealistic people like the French." "You are a Liberal," said the Episcopal Bishop Coxe to Mr. Goldwin Smith; "you speak ill of England's aristocratic classes, her prelates, the high

dignitaries of her Church. As for me, I like your Tories and your High Church." There were no fewer than twenty speeches. Among the guests I will name Bancroft, Evarts, George William Curtis, John Jay, Henry Ward Beecher, the aged poet Bryant.

November 13.—Dined with Richard M. Hunt, the architect, who studied at the Paris Beaux-Arts; together with John Jay, Bancroft, Goldwin Smith—the last very severe on Palmerston for his quarrelsome policy and on the recent expedition to China. "We are interfering in a host of countries in contempt of all international law, and, once there, we are indignant if these laws are violated in the most insignificant particulars by people who have never heard of them."

November 15.—Boston once more. Dined at the Revere House with the officers of the *Kearsarge*, the ship which sunk the *Alabama* off Cherbourg. Very beautiful speech by Everett in favor of Lincoln, and good remarks by R. H. Dana, jr. Captain Winslow tells in a very simple manner of his cruiser's pursuit of the *Alabama*.

November 23. — Accompanied Wendell Phillips to a lecture by Oliver Wendell Holmes, both original and agreeable. I made the acquaintance of Agassiz, who is very cordial and charming, possesses a great deal of warmth and vigor, is powerfully built, with an enormous head, strong jaws, a very speaking eye always in motion. He discusses with me Darwin's evolutionary theory, to which he is greatly opposed. He speaks enthusiastically of the American people, their generosity and love of science. They give him all he wants for the Museum he has founded.

Heard a lecture by Emerson on "American Life." He reads very badly, turning his leaves backwards and forwards. This is disturbing, but at the same time fixes the attention; every moment we catch a piquant expression, an unexpected metaphor, a paradox, a profound thought. You could have heard a fly. Emerson has his disciples—I can imagine it. There emanates from him a sort of happy serenity, a peace. He makes no pretence of eloquence; he is content to be a thinker.

November 28.—With Wendell Phillips visited courts and schools. Dined with J. B. Smith, a colored caterer, Boston's Chevet. He sent my wife, on our arrival, a magnificent bouquet. I went with Mr. Phillips to thank him. I found him at his home in Cambridgeport, with his wife (very white and well bred). In his parlor I saw portraits of Sumner, Phillips, and Garrison, a fine photograph of young Colonel Shaw, killed at the head of a black regiment in an assault on a Charleston fort. I did not decline Smith's invitation to dine with him. My wife and Mrs. M. W. Chapman were with me; the other guests were Sumner and Longfellow. The dinner was excellent. Longfellow was extremely gracious, and conversed with much warmth. Smith was evidently very happy, but nothing that he said was put on or exaggerated.

Called on Longfellow at Cambridge, in the old mansion once Washington's headquarters. Dined with Longfellow and his three daughters. He inquired about our writers, particularly Musset, and showed a lively admiration for Lamartine—"a bird that soars very high." He prefers Schiller to Goethe, and finds "Faust" unwholesome.

December 1.—Agassiz conducted me through his Museum of Natural History, immensely stocked with material. He explained to me his theory of embryonic development parallel with the historic and chronological. Dined at the club with Mr. R. H. Dana, jr., who gave me details about the Supreme Court and the character of its judgments. Soirée at Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's, she reciting verses composed by her in honor of Bryant.

December 2.—Another æsthetic soirée at the house of James T. Fields, the publisher: a lecture by Henry James on Carlyle before a very select audience. Mrs. Fields, with downcast eyes and delicate crossed hands, in a velvet gown cut in the manner of some of Raphael's portraits, had a pose full of grace. Without being a regular beauty, she possesses very great charm.

December 5.—With Edmund Quincy and my wife I go to Concord to visit Emerson. His house is old, and simple in the extreme; the parlor is furnished with a few old pieces, with faded red curtains, and branches of evergreen over doors and picture frames. A small room adjoining serves for a library; the books, ranged on wooden shelves, almost all in paper covers and showing marks of use. I notice good engravings of Michelangelo's "Sibyls" and great frescoes, a head of Dante, aged and angular, a crayon of Dante in his youth, a head of Pindar crowned with laurels.

Emerson talks at some length of Hawthorne and his morbid shyness. Mrs. Emerson (a second wife) is a tall woman with a spare face, in which a trace of beauty still lingers; large and somewhat wandering eyes. After the very simple but abundant dinner, Emerson took us out in a small carriage which he drove himself. He showed us the small obelisk erected on the bank of the Concord River, at the point where the first shots were exchanged between the British soldiers and the American militia. He also pointed out Hawthorne's home, of painted wood, like all the houses of the neighborhood, with a sort of square wooden tower where Hawthorne betook himself to work undisturbed. Near the obelisk Emerson called our attention to an old house minutely described by Hawthorne in his 'Mosses from an Old Manse.'

The Concord landscape viewed on this winter's day, the leaves already on the ground, has a certain analogy with Emerson's talent: beneath the stratum of fertile soil is hard gneiss, is granite. A beautiful light lends something aerial to a severe nature. Great benevolence, slightly skeptical, is the basis of the man's character. His spirit is broad: *humani nil a se alienum putat*. He is fond of Agassiz, but also of Darwin. He likes Sainte-Beuve, because Sainte-Beuve talks to him of everything. We encounter in Emerson's writings Montaigne, Carlyle, Indian philosophy, Plato, Swedenborg; but under his pen everything takes an original turn, a racy flavor. The Concord grape is the American wild grape improved by cultivation. Though for ever borrowing, Emerson's genius is the most original in America.

December 6.—Lecture by Wendell Phillips on the situation. He is a well-nigh perfect orator: diction, choice of words, elegance, fluency, richness of imagery, voice, figure, nobility of attitude and of countenance—nothing is wanting.

December 20.—Called on Mr. Perkins, a Hartford (Conn.) lawyer, and on Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, a relative of the Perkinses. I found her in a house of her own designing, crowded with articles brought back from Europe. She is greatly aged, as abstracted as formerly, less sprightly. Her husband is seventy-two years of age, and has a patriarchal air; he has much wit and humor.

December 23.—With Bancroft, visited the New York Historical Society, and saw Audubon's original drawings representing all the birds of America life size.

December 28.—With John Jay, visited the Astor Library.

December 29.—Dined at Bancroft's with Admiral Farragut, an excellent, perfectly simple and unaffected man. He is from the South, and his wife from Virginia. He has been faithful to the Union and the flag. He spoke to me with admiration of Grant as a man full of resources, very bold in conception, very resolute in action. At this moment Grant directs Sherman, Thomas, and Sheridan, three men of action rather than strategists. "I made Grant's acquaintance," said Farragut to me, "at Grand Gulf on the Mississippi, and told him *that* was the direction for threatening Vicksburg. He reflected, studied the map carefully, and instantly changed his whole plan of campaign. He had caught my idea." The other guests were Baron Osten Sacken, the Russian Secretary, an intelligent man and distinguished naturalist; Miss Helen Russell, Mrs. Bell, Mr. and Mrs. Langdon; Miss Cary, a relative of Agassiz's; Mrs. Barton, daughter of Livingston, former United States Minister to France.

## IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, July 6, 1902.

About 100 members of Parliament, town mayors, councillors, and other representative men are now in prison for terms of from two months to a year, practically for denouncing the system of government in Ireland, the over-taxation of the country, and for advocating legislative reform. Some few of these men are treated as first-class misdemeanants, but the greater number are committed, under an act passed 600 years ago in the reign of Edward the Third, as rogues and vagabonds, who refuse or are unable to give sureties to be of good behavior when so required by the magistrates. This act of Parliament has long been obsolete in England, but has been of late years reapplied to Ireland, not by the magistrates generally, but by those known as "removables," *i. e.*, magistrates paid by and dependent on the Crown. The evidence given in these cases is usually that of the police; and when even that evidence would not warrant a conviction for the alleged offence, the magistrates can and do call on the accused to give bail under the statute of Edward III., "to be of good behavior" for a stated period. This is almost invariably refused, and the accused is then sent to jail as a "rogue" within the meaning of the musty act of Parliament.

Needless to say, the land question is at the bottom of the trouble, and the advocates of radical reform are held to be "rogues." Meantime, the country is almost crimeless; whether it will continue so when the right of public meeting and the free expression of opinion are persistently suppressed, remains to be seen. That legis-

lation on the land question is still needed is recognized by the Government. Chief Secretary Wyndham introduced another land bill, supplemental to the twenty or thirty acts passed since 1870. He twice refused to see a deputation of representative Ulster farmers, but now, finding that he cannot pass his bill without Unionist as well as National opposition, he is imploring those interested in the land question to meet and confer with him. This bill is admittedly drawn in the interest of the landlord class; it is to give them greater inducements to sell to their tenants—that is, it is to put up the price of agricultural estates above their natural and normal value.

The result of buying his farm at too high a price by means of a loan repayable by instalments for fifty years, is just as disastrous to the Irish peasant as paying too high a rent to his landlord. If the annual instalments are more than can be made out of the farm, and prevent the reasonably industrious farmer from keeping and increasing his farm capital, he must become poorer year by year. I notice this to be the case with those tenants who were induced to buy at unreasonable prices merely to get rid of a load of arrears due to the landlord. Many were compelled by threats of eviction for arrears to agree to buy at whatever price the landlord chose to impose. Although there has been very little loss as yet to the State from unpaid instalments, a very considerable number of instalments have to be recovered by law; the payers are still "dragging the devil by the tail," hardly able to make ends meet.

Paying a £4 instalment instead of a £6 rent will not in itself make a farmer rich, but the security of ownership leads to better cultivation and to improvement. New buildings are the most evident improvement, and in parts of the west, where hitherto cattle have been kept in the dwelling-houses, I notice that purchasers have begun to put up houses for their cattle. Small "lean-to" sheds covered with sheet-iron are common; insignificant to look at, but enabling the cattle to be better kept, and human beings to live in a more cleanly fashion. Reclamation of waste, moor, rocks, and swamp has always gone on. Such work promised an immediate return, and was done in the hope, often disappointed, that the tenant would be allowed to reap the fruits of his labor and escape an increase of rent.

To those who have not seen such work in the doing, it is incredible what labor has been spent on reclamation by the small farmers in Ireland. The present appearance of a cultivated field will not tell the onlooker what thickets of brushwood have been rooted out, what rocks have been quarried, what marshes have been dried up. The more complete the reclamation, the fewer traces remain of what has been done. But in some cases the traces cannot be removed. I recently examined a farm bought eighteen years ago. It contained nineteen acres, a narrow strip on a hillside. The upper half was almost solid rock, with heath and furze growing in the interstices and hollows. Five acres at the bottom were cultivated moor, once a bog where turf had been cut, but now growing corn, potatoes, and grass. The centre, containing about four acres, was a mass of stone walls surrounding little enclosures each of which was well and cleanly cultivated. Some of these walls were eight feet high, and varied in width from two to twenty feet. They consisted of massive boulders rooted, blasted, and quarried out of the ground, the smaller stones being piled on top. The owner said the foundations were two feet below ground. Above ground I measured these walls, quarried out of not more than four acres, to contain 50,500 cubic feet of closely packed stones, not less than 2,500 tons. "It took three generations of us to do that," said the owner. An elderly lame brother, whose foot had been crushed when a boy in moving these boulders, represented part of the cost. He had been a cripple for fifty years. The rent of this farm, created out of the waste, had been £6 before 1881. The tenant, aged seventy-six, having repaid part of the purchase money, was now paying about £2 10s., and local taxes amounting to £1 10s. "I'm no richer," he said, "but I'm contented." His small, thatched house was scrupulously clean, and an iron-roofed shed for cattle had been built since my last visit about eighteen years ago. Then there was little contentment; decrees for arrears of rent that couldn't be produced from the rocks and bogs had been followed by evictions and tumults, and close to my friend's house one of his neighbors was shot dead by the police.

Police swarm in the district. Every stranger is kept under observation. Soon after I had gone into lodgings in a village near, my hostess drew my attention to two constables watching the house. Next morning they were again on the watch, and when I rode into the country a policeman on a cycle was on my track; not till I had been seen to visit a Government official was the "observation" discontinued. This locality is now the centre of what is called disturbance. It is thickly inhabited; most of the able-bodied men work in England for several months in the year; the young women emigrate. Rents are mainly paid out of earnings in England, or remittances from the emigrants, for they could not be made, in the economic sense, out of the farms.

In 1899, the Government, through the agency of the Congested Districts Board, bought the estate of Lord Dillon, an absentee, extending to over 90,000 acres, occupied by over 4,000 tenants. Purchase and some expenditure on arterial drainage and roads came to £331,300. The rental had been £20,000. The Board, without incurring any loss, can sell and is in process of selling to the tenants for annuities running for about fifty years, which amount to £13,000. For an annual and terminable payment of 35 per cent. less than their former rents, the tenants become owners in fee. There is an end of law-suits between landlord and tenant; agents, bailiffs, and gamekeepers, causes of continual annoyance, have disappeared.

The tenants on the adjoining estates, worse agricultural slums, and more highly rented than the Dillon estate, ask that the Government shall treat them in the same way and emancipate them. The low price of cattle last year made rents more difficult than usual to be earned. Appeals to the landlords to remit part of the rent are spurned. The tenants combine, hold meetings; speakers are prosecuted and imprisoned; compulsory expropriation of the landlords is demanded by the United Irish League, by the National members of Parliament, supported by T. W. Russell, and a large section of the northern farmers. Ninety per cent. of the Irish members are pledged to demand a permanent settlement of the land question by the compulsory expropriation of the landlords. It is no greater hardship to compel them to sell at a fair price than to compel them to take a fair rent. The costs of rent litigation and the unrest it produces are ruinous to both parties. To all this Chief Secretary Wyndham replies: "Never. Be good for a while, and maybe I'll do something, but as long as there is agitation there can be no legislation, and certainly not at the instance of the United Irish League."

The Chief Secretary is supposed to be in the hands of a clique of agents, landlords, and officials. Many of these men are as much interested in the continuance of the land troubles and of the existing land system as South African contractors in the continuance of the war. Agents, bailiffs, paid magistrates, and other such officials, crown prosecutors, and police are more interested in preserving the elements of unrest in the country than the landlords, many of whom would be very glad to be compulsorily expropriated, and so saved much expense and trouble in trying to sell by agreement, making title, and the like. But these landlords would like their nominal rental to be taken as the basis of purchase—not what they have actually received. Bad debts, expenses of collection, cost of agents, bailiffs, and continual litigation make their net very much less than their nominal rental.

In the case of the De Freyne estate the landlords have taken a new departure and have served the United Irish League, the *Freeman's Journal*, and some twenty or thirty individuals with writs asking for an injunction and damages for conspiracy to prevent the tenants paying their rents. It is possible that the case may be tried without a jury; and in the hands of an Irish judge the defendants are likely to fare badly. The litigation will be prolonged and costly. Most of those sued are poor, and would be ruined not only by a judgment for damages but by the costs. Lord de Freyne is supported by a syndicate of landlords who have undertaken the payment of the interest on his estate mortgages as well as the conduct and costs of the litigation. It is expected that wholesale evictions will be commenced at once, and the housing of the evicted people is one of the problems that the United Irish League have to deal with. If the evicted families are housed on adjoining farms, injunctions can be obtained against those who shelter them; if relief is given out of the poor rates, the Local Government Board may disallow the expense and charge the individual guardians with the cost.

The case of McHugh, member of Parliament, Mayor of Sligo, and newspaper proprietor, is an example of the difficulties and dangers in the way of reformers. He was prosecuted by the Crown for the "criminal libel" of saying that a jury was "packed" in the County Sligo, as it undoubtedly was. His trial was removed to Dublin, where a "carefully selected" jury convicted him and he served six months in prison. He is now under sentence by Judge Ross for contempt of court in remarks made on the conduct

of that judge, but meantime is in confinement for another contempt of court, having called two removable magistrates, before whom he was summoned for conspiracy, liars. The contempt in this case was deliberate, the magistrates having contradicted McHugh, and the tribunal being one which has no existence under the British Constitution except in Ireland. Magistrates cannot imprison for more than a week for contempt of court, but, on being insulted by McHugh, who appears to have stated the truth somewhat offensively, they fell back on the statute of Edward the Third, and asked for bail that he should be of good behavior, and on refusal sentenced him to six months' imprisonment as a rogue and vagabond.

McHugh is also the subject of a civil action for £5,000 damages for "conspiracy" to deprive a Crown solicitor of his position as solicitor to a Sligo local council. The "conspiracy" consisted in openly advocating the dismissal of the solicitor, on the ground that, as he was prosecuting local councillors on behalf of the Crown, he was not a proper person to act as legal adviser to the council. If tried in his own county, McHugh would have nothing to fear, but the High Court judges have transferred the trial to Belfast, where a carefully selected jury may give large and ruinous damages. At present McHugh is technically in custody, but actually at large in London, attending a House of Commons Committee, the appointment of which to investigate the magisterial sentence the Irish party were able, owing to slack attendance of Government supporters, to compel. AN IRISHMAN.

## THE JUBILEE OF THE GERMANIC MUSEUM AT NUREMBERG.

ISLAND OF FÖHR, July 6, 1902.

The inspiring festivities which, in the old city of Nuremberg, from the 14th to the 16th of June, assembled the most notable of the crowned heads of Germany, together with chosen representatives of German scholarship, burgherdom, and statecraft, to celebrate the day when, fifty years ago, the Congress of German Historians and Antiquarians decided upon the establishment of a Germanic Museum, had a threefold significance. In the first place, these festivities were a tribute to the memory of Baron von Aufsess, the virtual founder of the Museum, which now has assumed so large proportions that it cannot any longer be associated with the name of a single individual. Seldom has an idea been fought for and maintained with so much perseverance, energy, and devotion as the plan of what now forms one of the most flourishing and best-endowed museums in the world was fought for during a whole lifetime by this Franconian nobleman. Reared in the atmosphere of early romanticism, inspired by the outburst of popular enthusiasm that marked the German Wars of Liberation, initiated into the endeavors of Baron vom Stein for the promotion of mediæval studies, he conceived in the twenties of the nineteenth century the project of a museum which should be a huge repository of whatever the German people had accomplished during bygone ages in the arts and crafts, in industry and science; which, in other words, should be a colossal illustration and supplement to Stein's 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica.' For more than twenty years he wrote, labored, begged, and spent his own means for this project without obtaining any help or recognition from any quarter, without meeting with anything but ridicule or indifference, or at best half-hearted and lukewarm interest. And even when at last, in 1852, through the vote of the Historical Congress referred to, the establishment of this Museum, with Aufsess as its director, was decided upon and made a matter of common scholarly concern, the means at the disposal of the young institution were so slender that for years to come it was continually on the brink of disaster, and required constant financial sacrifices on the part of the director to be barely maintained.

Until 1857, most of its collections were housed in a single tower of the Nuremberg city wall, the Thiergärtner Thor, and the accommodations for accretions were so ridiculously insufficient that, for instance, when in 1853 the official records of the Frankfort Parliament were presented to the Museum, the twenty-three boxes containing this valuable gift had to be stored in the kitchen of a private house. It is to Aufsess's lasting credit that, in all these straits, difficulties, and disappointments, he never lost heart, always stood by the great ideal of his life, and thus weathered one crisis after another, until at last, through the acquisition of the old Carthusian monastery from the Bavarian Government, a proper housing for the growing collection was obtained, and popular and official interest in the national undertaking permanently secured. That this noble, patriotic man should have met with his death at the hands of a drunken student when, in 1873, he had gone to take part in the festivities attending the foundation of the University of Strassburg, gives to his life a touch of the irony of Fate.

It was, however, not only the memory of the founder of the Germanic Museum which actuated the festivities of last month. They were also meant as a tribute to what the German people has done for this museum since it was once publicly recognized. It is not an empty phrase when, over the main entrance of the Museum quadrangle, there stands the inscription: "Eigentum des deutschen Volkes." Here we tread, indeed, in more than one sense, upon national soil. Ever since 1857, when the institution was first housed in a manner suited to its intrinsic importance, it has stood before the public eye as a symbol of German greatness, as an embodiment of the most precious traditions of the German past, and as an appeal for maintaining these traditions in the present. Princes, states, cities, and private individuals have vied with each other in showering gifts of objects as well as of money upon it, the latter ranging from five florins collected by the pupils of a Bavarian seminary—the very first contribution made to the Museum—to the million marks which were given by two Nuremberg citizens a few weeks ago as an anniversary donation. And it would be hard to conceive of a more widely diffused popular interest in a scientific institution than that maintained in this Museum by the network of so-called *Pflegschaften*, or chapters of the Museum Association, covering all Germany, each of which is constantly disseminating, within its local boundaries, information regarding the needs as well as the most recent acquisitions of the Museum, and is thus stimulating ever new endeavors in its behalf. It is largely owing to this finely systematized popular propaganda that, apart from the running expenses of the Museum administration, which are covered by yearly appropriations from the German Empire, the Bavarian Government, and the city of Nuremberg, all other financial costs, for purchases, building alterations, special investigations, and so forth, are defrayed by voluntary contributions coming from every class of people and from every part of Germany.

The third, and to the great mass of Nuremberg citizens the most conspicuous, element of the anniversary celebration was a political one. For, while the Museum authorities had invited representatives of the official and scholastic world, there had also been invited, by the Prince Regent of Bavaria, as Chief Patron of the Museum, the Emperors of Germany and Austria and the most notable of other German princes; and although the Austrian Emperor, out of regard for the anti-German sensibilities of his Slavic subjects, had declined this invitation, Emperor William had willingly seized this opportunity of meeting once more with his South German brethren of royal blood, and of greeting the old imperial town where his ancestors had first exercised dynastic rights as hereditary Burggrafen. His presence, then, together with that of the rulers of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, imparted to these days the character of a commemoration and reassertion of German unity and of the final bridging of the gap between the North and the South, which was accomplished a generation ago. All these elements combined to give to the grand old city of Nuremberg, always so impressively picturesque and stately, additional charm and glory, and to infuse the thousands of visitors from far and near that crowded its streets and halls during these days, with a festive mood such as I have rarely observed anywhere.

I shall not describe the festivities in detail. In part, of course, they consisted of the more or less spectacular exercises common to all such occasions—processions, reviews of troops, banquets, and the like. What was refreshing even in this part of the programme was the complete absence of stiff formality, and the hearty, unfettered enthusiasm of the masses. Truly inspiring was the mighty wave of cheering that accompanied the passage of the Emperor and the other royal guests throughout the whole city, from the Museum to the ancient turreted castle towering above the town; and unforgettable was the reverent hush that lay over the vast audience which had assembled in the venerable Church of St. Lawrence to listen to a wonderful rendering, by the Munich Vocal Choir, of classic German hymn-music. While, from the artistic point of view, this concert marked the climax of the festivities, the professional interest, so to speak, centred in two meetings held in the new armor hall of the Museum itself. Of these, one consisted chiefly of addresses by delegates from universities, museums, and other learned institutions in Germany, Austria, Switzerland, and America (among them our own Germanic Museum Association); the

other was signalized by the reception of the Emperor, the presentation by him of an oaken cabinet, containing copies of the seals of all the German emperors from the Karolingians downward, and the performance by Nuremberg citizens of two Shrovetide plays of Hans Sachs. It was a curious contrast to see the homely, awkward figures of the old shoemaker-poet appear before this glittering modern audience. But here again there was the same absence of restraint and oppressive etiquette; and if one observed the genuine jollity with which the Emperor gave himself up to the enjoyment of these naïve representations of plain burgher life, all the royal splendor and officialdom seemed far away.

All in all, this was a memorable celebration, worthy of the great Museum, the modest beginnings of which it commemorated; worthy of the imperial city in which it was held. KUNO FRANCKE.

THE CHOISEULS.—I.

PARIS, July 2, 1902.

M. Gaston Maugras cannot be said to have risen to the dignity of a true historian, but he can write agreeably on matters belonging to history. The list of his works is already very long. We find among the personages who have been the subjects of them the Duke de Lauzun, Voltaire, Jean Jacques Rousseau, the Abbé Galiani, Madame d'Épinay. His last volume has for its title 'The Duke and the Duchess de Choiseul: Their Intimate Life, their Friends, and their Time.' M. Gaston Maugras had already been captivated by the Duchess de Choiseul and had written an essay on this charming person, so remarkable, in a corrupt and frivolous time, for the dignity of her life and her virtue.

"Madame de Choiseul," he says, "is perhaps the most delicious figure of the eighteenth century. . . . We shall see her, in extreme prosperity as well as in extreme misfortune, always the same, always equal to herself, bearing with the same serenity wealth, homage, the highest rank, and also ruin, misery, forgetfulness. Never did fate contend with so lofty a soul, and she always showed herself superior to fortune."

She was the granddaughter of Crozat, who had been a petty clerk and became a great financier. Crozat made a great fortune in colonial enterprises, and was the founder of the Louisiana Company. He bought the estate of Châtel and took the name of Crozat du Châtel. He died in 1738 at the age of eighty-three, leaving a very great fortune, which was divided between his three sons and a daughter, married to the Count of Évreux, the third son of the Duke de Bouillon. His eldest son, the Marquis du Châtel, was father to the Duchess de Choiseul. The celebration of the marriage of Louise Honorine Crozat du Châtel and of the Count de Choiseul-Stainville (who became afterwards Duke de Choiseul) took place on the 22d of December, 1750, in Paris, in the private chapel of the Hôtel du Châtel. The young bride was barely fifteen years old, Choiseul was thirty-one years old. He belonged to an old and poor family of Lorraine; he had served in the army, shared in the campaign in Bohemia in 1741, and witnessed the siege of Prague.

"Choiseul," says M. Maugras, "is one of the most sympathetic figures of the eighteenth century. More, perhaps, than any other, he personified his time and his epoch; but if he possessed in the highest degree its amiable qualities, he also had all its defects. 'Good, noble, frank, generous, gallant, magnificent, liberal, proud, audacious, the Duke de Choiseul,' says Baron von Gleichen, 'recalled to mind the ancient French Knights.' Of mediocre size, with reddish hair and an almost ugly face, he still had a most amiable appearance, and his countenance spoke for him. His little eyes sparkled with wit; his upturned nose gave him a pleasant air; and his thick, laughing lips announced the gayety of his conversation. His wit, his fire, made him irresistible."

Madame du Deffand, the intimate friend of the Duchess, said of him: "He is more charming than ever; in him alone do we find grace, gayety, and charm; outside of him, all seems foolish, extravagant, or pedantic."

Choiseul did not go much to court at first; he was not on good terms with Madame de Pompadour, the favorite, though his brother-in-law, M. de Gontaut, was intimate with her, and had often tried to bring about an understanding between him and Madame de Pompadour. The favorite was always afraid of losing her influence with the King, who had become very attentive to Madame de Romanet, a cousin of Choiseul's. This lady was so bold as to make it a condition that Madame de Pompadour should be dismissed. She showed to Choiseul some of the King's letters. Choiseul was very indignant with her, and told her that if she did not leave Fontainebleau at once, he would expose her intrigue to her husband. "It is my duty," he said to her, "to put an end to an intrigue which is dishonorable to my family. Not that I am very pedantic or scrupulous on the chapter of love; I can tolerate all the tastes, whatever they may be, which you may have, even that you should satisfy the King's tastes, provided it be in secret, and without any appearance of favor." This gives exactly the tone of Choiseul's scruples; they were not inspired by virtuous sentiment, but merely by family pride. Madame de Romanet submitted, and promised to withdraw. This became the occasion of a visit on Choiseul's part to Madame de Pompadour. She thanked him for the part he had played and for the indirect service he had rendered her. From that moment their relations became cordial. "These two personages, who detested each other before becoming acquainted, felt the liveliest sympathy for each other as soon as they were in relations." Choiseul wrote afterwards: "Far be it from me to disavow that this circumstance of my life made me know Madame de Pompadour, which attached me to her by the most tender friendship, and which interested her in everything that has happened to me. I shall remember all my lifetime my attachment to her, and the gratitude which I owe her for myself, for my family and my friends."

In 1753 Choiseul was sent as Ambassador to Rome; he remained there several years, and the salon of Madame de Choiseul became a charming centre where the Romans mingled with French people and with other foreigners. Among the habitués of her circle, we find the Abbé Barthélemy, La Condamine, Baron Gleichen, a young German; Greuze, the painter; Guiard, a sculptor, a pupil of Bouchardon. Choiseul was afterwards appointed Ambassador to Vienna; it is in these terms that he gives an account of his presentation: "The Empress [Maria Theresa], after having spoken of your Majesty in terms of the greatest interest, inquired after the persons whom you honor, Sire, with your confidence, and she named Madame de Pompadour, for whom she feels much friendship and esteem." During his sojourn in Vienna, Choiseul had to confirm the alliance between the French and the Austrian courts, and was occupied chiefly with the relations between the armies which were in the field. Since 1756, the two countries had been bound by an alliance which brought them to the bloody Seven Years' War. Frederick of Prussia had to fight Russian, French, Austrian, and Swedish troops; he had no ally but England, who had engaged to furnish him with subsidies.

Choiseul was recalled to Paris, and was appointed prime minister. From the moment when he took the place of the weak Cardinal de Bernis, he became the real King of France, under the apparent authority of Louis XV.; and for twelve years he was the inspirer of French policy and the arbiter of the destinies of his country. As such, he was one of the most extraordinary men of his age. Under the appearance of levity and almost of indifference, he developed superior talents, and he repaired as much as was in his power the disasters of the Seven Years' War. It was said of him at first that he was "a petit-maître without talent, with little phosphorus in the brain." He soon proved the contrary: the great Catherine called him "the coachman of Europe." When Choiseul became minister, Madame de Pompadour had been the King's favorite for fifteen years. Nobody could foresee the end of this extraordinary favor, which was due not only to her beauty, but to a rare intelligence which could embrace all subjects. The King's passion had become a mere friendship; she had become a necessary friend, a necessary adviser. She shut her eyes on his infidelities. She imposed herself on all the ladies of the Court, on the ambassadors, on foreign princes. She knew how to practise the great art of amusing the man in the kingdom whom it was most difficult to amuse. She led the most fatiguing life and never complained. She once made this audacious comparison: "My life is like that of the Christian: it is a perpetual struggle." It was impossible for Choiseul not to treat her as an ally; he soon became something more, a friend. He introduced her to his wife and, afterwards, to his sister, Madame de Gramont. His alliance with the favorite made him omnipotent; he took the ministry of war in 1761, and afterwards the navy in 1762. He compared himself to the coachman in Molière's "Avare," who sometimes dresses as a cook. In 1760 he was made Governor-General of Touraine, grand master and superintendent of the Post-Office. In 1762 he received the Golden Fleece and the office of Colonel-General of the Swiss. His various offices yielded him 800,000 livres a year.

Madame de Gramont, his sister, lived with him and had the real authority in his household. Madame de Choiseul was mild and modest, and accepted this situation, which was the subject of much criticism, as Madame de Gramont made many enemies by her pride and her overbearing manners. Madame de Choiseul found much consolation and pleasure in the friendship

of two persons, the Abbé Barthélemy, whose acquaintance she had made in Rome, and Madame du Deffand, whom she had known first in the salon of Madame du Châtel. Madame du Deffand is familiar to all who are acquainted with the history of French society in the eighteenth century; she is well known, also, to all who have read the Letters of Horace Walpole.

In 1761 Choiseul bought, near Amboise, the magnificent château of Chanteloup; in 1764 Louis XV. united Chanteloup to Amboise, and created out of them a ducal peerage, under the title of Choiseul-Amboise. Choiseul entered into correspondence with Voltaire at the time when, after his quarrel with the great Frederick, the philosopher took refuge in the *pays de Gex*, a little territory situated between the Jura mountains and Switzerland. Voltaire obtained from Choiseul the renewal of some immunities which made the *pays de Gex* neutral ground. The letters of that period, some of which are very amusing, were published by M. Pierre Calmettes in his 'Choiseul et Voltaire' (1900). In 1762 peace was signed at last; and if the results of the Seven Years' War were not very brilliant, it was not the fault of Choiseul, who had found everything going wrong when he entered the Cabinet, and who had succeeded in procuring men and money in abundance for the continuation of hostilities. In the midst of all his troubles Choiseul never ceased to extend his protection to Voltaire; he did so during the famous Calas affair, after the publication of the 'Dictionnaire Philosophique.' But the time was approaching when he was going to lose his ally, Madame de Pompadour, who was, like himself, imbued with philosophical ideas and an enemy of the Jesuits. The Marquise died on the 15th of April, 1764, at the age of only forty-two years, worn out by the fatigues of her life. She left in her will to Madame de Choiseul a box of silver adorned with brilliants, and to Choiseul a remarkable diamond. Choiseul's difficulties were now to begin in earnest.

## Correspondence.

### A BRUGES EXHIBIT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At Bruges, Belgium, an exhibition is now open, until September 15, of works of old Flemish painters. In the Hôtel du Gouvernement Provincial have been brought together the Memlings from the Hôpital de Saint Jean, many Memlings and Van Eycks from private collections in England and France, and a number of other early Flemish pictures. One of these latter, of the beginning of the sixteenth century, shows that the artist was striving for the effects of lighting attained by Rembrandt a hundred years later.

In the Gruuthuus is a collection of missals and illuminated manuscripts which date from about the tenth to the fifteenth centuries. Examined in connection with the oil paintings, these missals are an object-lesson in the evolution of painting in northern Europe. Beginning about the tenth century, the earliest drawings show an art knowledge on a par with that of a child about eight years old; if they were not representations of saints, they might be ascribed to a Sioux Indian or a South Sea Islander. As the centuries roll on, the illuminations improve: drawing creeps in, so does color, glimpses of landscape begin to appear behind the figures, until at the end of the fifteenth century some really fine water colors are produced. Some of these show a close kinship with the oils of the Van Eycks and Memling. Indeed, so closely do some men-at-arms represented in one of the manuscripts resemble the men-at-arms in the legend of Saint Ursula of Memling, that it seems quite possible that the water-color was painted by Memling himself.

The conclusion to be drawn from the Bruges exhibit is, that the earliest oil paintings were only enlarged prayer-book illustrations carried out more thoroughly in a different medium. The aims and the methods of the painters (and possibly the painters themselves) were the same in both, and the only notable difference is that the oils are larger and more elaborate than the water-colors. To any one interested in art, the Bruges exhibition is well worth a visit, for it may be doubted whether such an opportunity for studying *de visu* the evolution of early European painting has ever before been offered to the public.

Edwin S. Balch.

Homburg v. d. Höhe, July 8, 1902.

## Notes.

The late John G. Nicolay had completed a condensation of the ten-volume Life of Lincoln produced by him in conjunction with the present Secretary of State. It will soon be issued by the publishers of that work, the Century Co.

In keeping with the revival of interest in Northwestern exploration and fur-trade is the promised reprint of Alexander Mackenzie's century-old and classic 'Voyages' across this continent, by the New Amsterdam Book Company. They announce further a translation of the 'Mabinogion' by Lady Charlotte Guest.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in press 'Thoreau: His Home, Friends, and Books,' by Mrs. Annie Russell Marble; 'Economics of Forestry,' by B. E. Fernow; 'Word Coinage,' a study of slang and provincialisms, by Leon Mead; 'Mind Power and Privileges,' by Albert B. Olston; Poe's Works in seventeen volumes, edited by Prof. James A. Harrison; Hawthorne's Romances in fourteen, edited by Prof. Katharine Lee Bates; and Tennyson's Poems in ten, edited by Prof. Eugene Parsons.

'Ghetto Silhouettes,' to be published by James Pott & Co., shadow forth the Russian-Jewish element in this country.

'The Conquest of the Air,' by John Alexander, announced by A. Wessels Co., will have a preface by one of the conquerors, Sir Hiram Maxim.

Taine's Correspondence in an English version will be brought out in this country by E. P. Dutton & Co.

For an occasional lighthouse-builder like F. Hopkinson Smith, there is obvious propriety in naming "Beacon Edition" the new output of this versatile author's works in ten duodecimo volumes by Charles Scribner's Sons, by arrangement with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It is also highly appropriate that Mr. Smith should be the artist of the colored illustrations, and this is the case with volume one ('Laguerre's and Well-Worn Roads'); in volume six ('Caleb West, Master-Diver'), on the other hand, the drawings are by Reuterdahl. We can say no more at present of this attractive collection, which is handsomely printed, and tastefully bound in crimson cloth. Several volumes are still to come, and the whole is a subscription publication.

The fourth volume of the 'Theory of Differential Equations,' by Prof. Thorpe (Macmillan Co.)—virtually the fifth, since his 'Treatise' ought to be regarded as an introduction to the 'Theory'—is perhaps the last volume, though one more, at least, ought to follow. It is the most practical of the four, since it relates to ordinary linear equations. Nothing quite equivalent to this work exists in any language; nothing at all in our language supplying the same need of all who use differential equations.

Drude's 'Theory of Optics,' translated by C. R. Mann and R. A. Millikan (Longmans, Green & Co.), is the only work in our language, if not in any language, which presents the modern theory in the form of a text-book. No one whose business it is to be acquainted with the modern theory of light can afford to leave this work unstudied.

It is a common misconception that the pulse is an expansion of an artery (popularly confined to the wrist) from an increased volume of blood forced through it by the heart beat. In fact, the artery does not expand, and more blood does not pass any given point at a fixed time. The blood flow is continuous, and the impulse felt on pressure against a resisting background is that of a wave running along the channel. Its bedside lessons are traditionally of the greatest value; but the common impression that frequency and force are the only essentials to be observed, and that the nurse who makes a record of the number of beats relieves the educated touch from its delicate duty, is quite erroneous. The blood wave has numerous features besides mere force and frequency, and each tells its story to the instructed mind. Dr. James Mackenzie's 'Study of the Pulse' (Macmillan) is a delightfully clear and careful discussion of the whole subject, with special inquiry as to the diagnostic value of pulse irregularity, and includes a survey of the venous and the liver pulse. For twenty years the author has been accumulating and reflecting upon these facts. We especially commend section 104 to those insurance companies which make bradycardia an unqualified cause for rejection. Dr. Mackenzie has, in our opinion, added a classic to the literature of clinical medicine.

The *Beilage* of the Munich *Allegemeine Zeitung*, No. 130, contains, from the pen of Albert Mayr, an instructive report of the excavations made during the past twenty-five years by Father A. L. Delattre on the site of ancient Carthage, which have resulted practically in restoring in outline the old Punic city, and shed a flood of light on the life and antiquities of that mighty rival of Rome. The whole work has consisted virtually in unearthing one vast necropolis; the number of tombs from the oldest period alone, between the sixth and eighth centuries, being more than

eleven hundred. The finds from each period reflect the political and business relations of the Carthage of that time; the oldest being largely under Egyptian and Phœnician influences, the later under Greek and Roman. They consist chiefly of amulets, rings, chains, coins, etc., in gold, silver, bronze, glass, terracotta, etc. These are each represented in hundreds of samples, and are deposited in the special museum established by the White Mission Brotherhood of Northern Africa.

Russia has decided to found an archæological museum in Sebastopol. The building is to be erected in the style of an old Christian basilica, and to be arranged for three departments, one devoted to the Greek, one to the Roman, and a third to the Byzantine period. The whole project has been intrusted to the management of Grand Duke Alexander Mikhailovitch.

One of the most valuable developments resulting from Germany's colonial enterprises has been the establishment of the Oriental Seminary in Berlin, the purpose of which, modelled to a certain extent after similar institutions in Paris and London, is chiefly to furnish practical instruction in Oriental languages, history, etc. Double courses are arranged in leading departments, one theoretical, in charge of a European specialist, and the other practical, with a native teacher. The faculty, headed by Professor Sachau of the University, now numbers 24 European and 8 native instructors. The attendance is constantly growing, the present semester having an enrolment of 146, of whom 3 are women. These students represent the departments of law, philology, pedagogics, business, state officials, army and navy, medicine, theology, and technical branches, all being candidates for positions in the Orient. The languages taught were Chinese, Japanese, Arabic (three dialects), Persian, Turkish, besides a number of modern European tongues.

The Senate of the University of Berlin recently took action on a formal petition of the women in attendance, asking that the authorities admit women who apply with the equivalent of a *testimonium maturitatis* from a recognized secondary school, to the full university privileges of matriculation and degree. The action was a refusal, and for the first time a university of Prussia has taken a positive official step in this matter. The influence of cosmopolitan Berlin will doubtless be followed by the other schools of this grade in Prussia, and Prussian precedence in higher educational matters is generally decisive for the rest of Germany. Only Baden of the German States in the two territorial institutions of Heidelberg and Freiburg admits women to university privileges on an exact equality with men, and this State has also provided special secondary girls' schools leading up to entrance into the University. Berlin, however, notwithstanding the hostility of the authorities to women students, still constitutes the chief attraction for this contingent, the enrolment last year having been 611, or exactly half of the total number in attendance at all of the twenty-two German universities. Since the summer of 1896, when the first women were permitted to attend lectures, the number has increased from forty to more than fifteen times as many. The growth has been regular and steady.

A significant testimony to the change of opinion in India in regard to the difficult and delicate problem of female education was given by the Maharajah of Gwalior, one of the largest of the native states, at the coronation banquet of the Royal Asiatic Society. He said that the success of the girls' school founded in his state four years ago had been so unexpectedly great, notwithstanding "much opposition and prejudice," that "a special institution has been established within the last few months for the daughters of my nobles, a class who keep their daughters in seclusion, and who, a short time ago, would have been most unwilling to send them to school." He closed with a glowing tribute to Lord Curzon's interest in education, especially in the matter of "chiefs' colleges" and in his organization of the "Imperial Cadet Corps to provide a military career for those scions of noble houses whose inclinations lie in that direction."

—The Bodleian Library has lately entered upon an enterprise most deserving of support, from other libraries in particular. It undertakes to furnish photographic reproductions in several classes, of which the circular before us exhibits six: (1) the Bodleian buildings, in six views (silver prints); (2) seven Shelley relics, including the Sophocles with which he was drowned, and of which "the edges are supposed to show the mark of his thumb, incrusted with brine" (collotypes); (3) four rare impressions, as Caxton's Advertisement of 1477, and Columbus's Letter to Sanxis, 1493 (photolithographs, original size, in colored paper covers, with introductions); (4) miscellaneous objects, from an abbreviated signature of Shakspere to Woolner's bust of Gladstone (collotypes); (5) bindings, as of a New Testament reputed to preserve "a piece of the unfortunate King Charles's waistcoat" (collotypes); (6) palæographical (collotypes, with long or short note as necessary). All these pieces have their order numbers and prices affixed, ranging from sixpence to two shillings. The circular lays special stress on the palæographical series, which will be extended as rapidly as the demand warrants, and in the case of MSS. written by more than one contemporaneous scribe examples will be given of each hand. Number 1 on the present list ("Actus Apostolorum"), of the middle of the eighth century, proceeds from an "English *scriptorium* of women," namely, the nuns of St. Mildred's Abbey, Isle of Thanet. It is written in four hands.

—'The Journal of James Melvin, Private Soldier in Arnold's Expedition against Quebec,' has been reprinted with notes and an introduction by Mr. Andrew C. Melvin (Portland: H. W. Bryant). There are numerous diaries of this dolorous but heroic campaign by men who took part in it, and most of them are longer than Melvin's. Indeed, nothing could be briefer than are the notices in this journal throughout the greater part of its course. For weeks at a time, it is hardly more than a chronicle of the weather. The present editor, by the aid of copious extracts and illustrations, manages to make the text occupy forty-three pages, but, printed without comment, it would hardly be longer than an ordinary descriptive letter of the eighteenth century. Yet, notwithstanding their extreme brevity, Private Melvin's notes are occasionally of some interest. The late Mr. Codman's conclusion that it was a great mistake to carry batteaux is supported by many passages in this as in the other journals. Melvin was taken prisoner at Quebec, and remained in confinement from January to August of 1776. His diary, however, is of little value after the death of Montgomery. On the whole, we must rate it lower than its first editor, Mr. W. J. Davis, did, or than Mr. Melvin does. While it gives some pitiful details of hardship and anguish, it furnishes few facts or comments which seem to throw important light upon any part of the expedition. Perhaps one reason for reprinting this bare and partial register of events was that an introduction by the editor might stand before it. At any rate, the introduction must be looked upon as the most considerable feature of the book. According to Mr. Melvin, the failure of Arnold's expedition was a blessing in disguise. "We cannot," he says, "doubt God's overruling providence dispensed American defeat in Canada; and, studying the event with its time and place in history, and trying to extract proper historic lessons from the same, we will [shall] be led to see in it a signal instance of Divine providence in our favor." Apparently the author has failed to profit by some of the most important literature on the period—for example, Professor Coffin's 'Quebec Act and the Early American Revolution.' The book is well printed, but the handsome appearance of the page is sometimes marred by careless proofreading.

—The 'History of Wachovia in North Carolina,' by John Henry Clewell (Doubleday, Page & Co.), presents the interesting narrative of the southern province of the Moravian Church in America from the first surveys made by Bishop Spangenberg in 1752 down to the present time. It makes no pretensions to literary excellence, but is a plain and simple account of the trials and tribulations of the early settlers, of the missionary and educational work of the Church, and of the material prosperity of Winston-Salem. Prior to the civil war the most important missionary work of this branch of the Moravian Church was done among the surrounding colored population, but this has now almost ceased, as the negroes have assumed full charge of their own religious exercises and no longer care to be instructed in morals by the white man. The Moravians have been active in educational work since the time of Comenius, and the seminary at Salem has a long and satisfactory record of usefulness which is fully detailed in this volume. Interesting information, hitherto unknown to engineers, is given regarding the water-supply system installed at Salem in 1778, the third public water supply constructed in the United States, and also concerning fire service, two fire steamers having been imported from Germany and put into use in 1785. The book closes with an exposition of the doctrinal position of the Moravians, and with biographical sketches and statistics. Ten ministers now serve twenty-six congregations on and around the tract of land originally called Wachovia, these congregations having 5,401 communicants and 4,296 pupils in their Sunday-schools, and at their spiritual head is one bishop. Altogether, this work stands on a different

plane from the local history of a town, for it contains many matters of colonial and national interest taken from the carefully kept diaries of the officials of the Moravian Church.

—"A. M. F.," author of 'Foreign Courts and Foreign Homes' and 'On the Banks of the Seine,' has recently published another volume which deals with court and diplomatic circles. The title of this book is 'Tales of My Father' (Longmans), and the anecdotes which it contains belong to the middle part of the last century. The cover bears a profile of Queen Victoria, and there is more than one hint that the writer was led to print these reminiscences by the circumstance of the Queen's death. "My father," says she, "was at one time of his life intimately acquainted with the royal family of Great Britain, for he was constantly with Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, who treated him with the greatest confidence, disclosing to him all his hopes and fears, all his ambitious views, and all his quarrels (and they were many) with his royal brother." Through and through, it is a book of gossip, with one or two digressions into the realm of the marvellous. The gossip is by no means malicious, but it is thin and possesses little historical value. While abundant proofs of an amiable personality are to be found, and the style is that of good conversation, we are seldom brought very close to subjects of importance. The officers whose friendships and acquaintances are recalled, seem to have been on good terms with a number of royalties, but their phrases of civility and personal good will are not of the widest interest. Perhaps the best anecdotes are those connected with Napoleon III. in the closing days of his obscurity. Such a vast number of stories, whether true or invented or embellished, are told about this period in the Emperor's life that it is hard to contribute anything novel or especially characteristic. However, the author's father and Lord Malmesbury, when travelling together on the Continent in 1845, came across Prince Louis Napoleon at Florence, and saw a good deal of him both there and at Geneva. The stories of the royal adventurer which we get in these pages seem less highly colored and more authentic than such tales usually do.

—The April Proceedings of the German Asiatic Society of Japan very appropriately celebrates the tercentenary of the arrival in Japan of William Adams, the English pilot who influenced very considerably the naval architecture of 17th-century Japan. Pilot Street (Anjin Cho) in Tokio, his own Siamese curiosities, and the handsome monument erected to his honor in the village of Hemi, a few miles from Yokohama, are the obvious relics of this first Englishman in the Far East. Mr. Ludwig Reiss, in a paper on "Will Adams and his 'Grave' in Hemi," shows that Adams really died on the island of Hirado, and that the tomb at Hemi, where his legitimate Japanese wife and children lived, is a cenotaph erected most probably at the time of the death of his widow. In old Yedo the honor awarded to Will Adams grew into a sort of cult, pilgrimages being made every year to Adams's grave from the great city down the bay to the temple at Hemi, where masses were said for the repose of his soul, and in 1798 two handsome memorial stone lanterns were erected. A delightful paper on Japanese personal and family ceremonial, such as salutations, remembrance of the dead, the various social duties and anniversaries of each month, and the more festal occasions, are noted and described with a bibliography and four first-rate folding-page illustrations, by Mr. Schiller. The strong paper on "The Reform of Japanese Script," with copious wood-cut illustration of the comparative forms of the Japanese and foreign (Dutch. English, and French) laryngal openings during pronunciation, throws new light on a very important subject. It is a piece of German thoroughness, and has been done by Prof. Dr. K. Florenz in collaboration with Japanese scientific men. Accounts of meetings and a table of contents of the eight stout volumes of Proceedings, which reveals astonishing richness, complete a very satisfactory number.

## LIEUT.-GEN. SIR HARRY SMITH.

*The Autobiography of Lieutenant-General Sir Harry Smith*, Baronet of Aliwal on the Sutlej, G.C.B. Edited, with the addition of some supplementary chapters, by G. C. Moore Smith, M.A. Two volumes, with portraits and illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

Sir Harry Smith, who died in 1860, had, notwithstanding his long and honorable service, dropped from the memory of the present generation until the siege of the town of Ladysmith in Natal, by the Boers in 1900, recalled the name of his wife. Her career had been hardly less full of picturesque adventure than her husband's, and moved the editor of these volumes to make inquiry concerning possible memoranda of the life of his great-uncle, with the surprising and gratifying result of the discovery of a mass of manuscript, written in the intervals of Sir Harry's active service, entitled "Anecdotes and Events of my Life." Sir Harry had a modest estimate of these literary remains, which he suggested might be worked up by some skilful romancer into a readable story. But the bare truth as he records it, with no false modesty in the details of his part in stirring events of historical importance, but rather with the naïve frankness of one who is writing for personal friends and kindred, makes a sufficiently attractive tale without the need of any touch of art.

It was indeed a romantic career of which Sir Harry left these notes. He obtained, by the customary purchase, a lieutenancy in the English army when he was eighteen, and straightway was sent upon some military expedition to South America, in which he saw vigorous fighting. Six years later, in 1814, he was aide-de-camp to Gen. Ross in the burning of the national capital, Washington (of which exploit he seems to have been ashamed), and, having in the meanwhile recrossed the sea as bearer of dispatches to London, was back in time to take part in Pakenham's disastrous assault upon Jackson's entrenchments at New Orleans. He was in the thick of the battles and sieges of the Spanish Peninsula under Sir John Moore and Wellington from 1808 to 1814, and had hardly returned from the United States when Napoleon's escape from Elba summoned him, with the rest of the Peninsula veterans, to Waterloo and the subsequent occupation of France by the Allied armies. Then he was sent to South Africa, and showed characteristic vigor and wisdom in quieting a Kafir uprising; was next appointed Adjutant-General of the Army of India, in which country, in the course of time, he earned his highest title of Lieutenant-General, and his decoration of the Grand Cross of the Bath. His subjugation of the Sikhs in the Punjab, in 1845-46, crowned by his brilliant conduct of the battle of Aliwal, enhanced his already distinguished reputation as a soldier, and elicited from Wellington a hearty panegyric in the House of Lords; indeed, Wellington took occasion frequently to give expression to his admiration for Smith's ability in whatsoever military post he occupied.

Smith was Governor of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope in a critical period of South African history, from 1847 to 1852, and it was in grateful memory of what he then did that the towns of Harrismith and Ladysmith were named. He served, either in civil or in military commands, in Jamaica, in Canada, and during some labor agitations in Scotland, but the outbreak of the Crimean war found him too old for the field.

It is with these varied experiences that his anecdotes deal; and if they do not pretend to be a critical history of momentous events, they are graphic and entertaining accounts of personal risk, hardship, and good-natured endurance by a soldier who seems from the first to have won the affection and confidence of his companions and his superiors, and who, to the end, even under treatment from the home Government which excited his sharp resentment, remained a frank and good-natured, if often a blunt-spoken, gentleman, incapable of malice or bad manners.

In the Peninsula there were abundant openings for volunteer labor and bravery by a young officer ambitious to win his spurs, and Smith seems to have gained the reputation of untiring love of the dangerous spot in a campaign, and thorough performance of whatsoever duty might be laid upon him. Out of it all he plucked sport and romance as well as reputation. At the siege of Badajos, in the spring of 1812, his Light Division was assigned one of the imminent deadly breaches in an assault whose fury, as well as the savagery of the subsequent sack of the city by the English soldiers, Napier has painted in dark hues; while also the great historian wrote of the conduct of one of the heroes of the attack, in a sentence which has become classic; "No man died that night with more glory; yet many died, and there was much glory." Amid the salvage from the horrors of the day, of which the light-hearted youth speaks with a few words of detestation, Smith found the wife who was thenceforward to be seldom separated from him, even in the most severe hardships of campaigning. This is the account of her appearance as given by a companion of Smith's:

"I was conversing with a friend a day after the capture, when we observed two ladies coming from the city, who made directly towards us. The elder of the two, still a young woman, at once addressed us. Her husband was a Spanish officer in a distant part of the kingdom. But yesterday she and this, her young sister, were able to live in affluence and in a handsome

house; to-day they knew not where to lay their heads. Her house was a wreck, and, to show the indignities to which they had been subjected, she pointed to where the blood was still trickling down their necks, caused by the wrenching of their earrings through the flesh by the hands of the worse than savages, who would not take the trouble to unclasp them." "For herself, she said she cared not; but, for the agitated and almost unconscious maiden by her side, whom she had but lately received from the hands of her conventual instructresses, she saw no security but the seemingly indelicate one she had adopted, of coming to the camp and throwing themselves upon the protection of any British officer who could afford it."

This maiden was but fourteen years old, but her beauty moved the susceptible hearts of many of the young officers, of whom Harry Smith was the most courageous and persuasive wooer; and he straightway called in the service of a *padre*, and made her his wife. This girl had not been wholly unaccustomed to warfare, for she had been in three sieges of her native city, in one of which her brother died in her arms. She quickly adjusted herself to the difficult conditions of her new estate, and thenceforward became an attractive centre of the soldiers' chivalry. She learned to ride well, ran great risks, and plunged into rivers and faced storms and rough bivouacs with cheerfulness; and, as the husband avers, far from disheartening him for his duties, rather stimulated him to greater zeal to rise in honor.

The young couple were separated at the end of the war in the Peninsula by Smith's dispatch to the American army; but when Wellington was marshalling the forces for Waterloo, Smith and his wife hastened to the post of danger. The wife was left with the non-combatants at Brussels, and was swept towards Antwerp in the panic which fell upon the city on the evening of the 18th of June. The Antwerp hotels were filled with the English refugees, but Col. Craufurd, in command of the Citadel, received her cordially into his home, where she divested herself of the black mud of the road, which had soaked her from head to foot. In the afternoon of the 19th she heard of the Allied victory, and hastened towards the field, spurred, as she approached, by the report of some stragglers that her husband was killed. At midnight she found him unhurt. She had been in the saddle since three in the morning, and had ridden some sixty miles, from one point to another of her search. And he, as usual, had been in the hardest of the fight, having two horses killed under him. It was his opinion that Napoleon fought the battle badly; for "the Duke's army was a heterogeneous mass, not the old Peninsula veterans; young Second Battalions, most of them; others intermixed with the rabble of our allied army." "I have been over many a field of battle, but, with the exception of one spot at New Orleans and the breach at Badajos, I have never seen anything to be compared with what I saw. At Waterloo, the whole field, from right to left, was a mass of dead bodies."

During the three years' occupation of France by the Allies, the Smiths were luxuriously billeted at Cambray, in the house of one Monsieur Watin, who was agreeably surprised to find his enemies such courteous tenants. "We were fêted by every one. I was the huntsman of a magnificent pack of hounds, steward of races, riding steeplechases, etc. My wife was taken notice of by every one, especially by the Duke, who, having known her as a child, always called her his Spanish heroine, Juana." The typical British passion for hunting was Smith's inveterate diversion, wherever he was. In the Peninsula he recorded that once, after a dismal day's march in cold and wet, he and his wife were crowded into a little hut with his pack of dogs, *thirteen in all*. But his ardor gave them many a dinner of rabbits when rations were short.

When, in 1835 and 1836, he had laid upon him the perplexing settlement of antagonisms betwixt the Kafirs and the Boer and English immigrants, he acted with untiring energy in the initiation of the policy of thoroughly subduing the natives by rapid forced marches upon their villages, and the seizure of their most formidable chiefs as hostages, and then of conciliating their good will by a generous protective government, to relieve the masses from the savage despotism which the rule of the chiefs invariably was. His policy was reversed by the home Government, and he was superseded under charges of cruelty to the Kafirs—charges which, under investigation, were soon withdrawn. But the colony of Queen Adelaide was restored to native control, with the immediate result of an emigration of the Boer farmers, who had looked to the English army for their protection, and who bitterly complained that they had been shamefully abandoned to the mercies of savages.

When Sir Harry came back to the Colony twelve years later, as Governor, he felt confident that the kind relations which he had formerly established with all classes, native and European, would enable him speedily to pacify all hostilities; and for a time his success seemed assured. But the increase of immigration, and the rise of new and complex problems of representative government, to whose settlement, very likely, the methods and temper of an impulsive soldier were not in the highest degree adapted, and a renewal of the Kafir wars with much ferocity, created grave dissatisfaction towards him on the part of Lord Grey, the Colonial Minister, and afforded occasion for his summary recall, not, however, under criticism of his civil administration, but for alleged want of energy in conquering the Kafirs. Here, at least, his old friend, the Duke of Wellington, was a competent and convincing witness in his defence, for, in the House of Lords, the Duke declared: "I, who am his commanding officer, though at a great distance, entirely approve of all his operations."

Before Sir Harry had reached England the hostile administration of Lord John Russell, in whose Cabinet Grey was Minister, had fallen; the chief cause of the change of government being popular discontent with the colonial policy. Sir Harry, in reply to the criticism of his superiors, defended his conduct with great dignity and spirit, but on his return considered the case closed so far as any personal feelings had been disturbed, and took an early occasion to accept an invitation to dinner from Lord Grey; conduct which the latter recognized as "most handsome and honorable."

## PATTEN'S THEORY OF PROSPERITY.

*The Theory of Prosperity.* By Simon N. Patten, Ph.D., Professor of Political Economy, University of Pennsylvania. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. ix, 237.

Little did the world of 1876 think that the cry of "Back to Adam Smith" would ever become to economics a significant rally. On the occasion of the centennial of the appearance of the 'Wealth of Nations,' it was evident to those who took part in the celebration of that event that the exercises really marked the extinction of Smith's most essential notions. The political economy of to-day, it was argued, had departed from the lines laid down by Smith, and in the future the emphasis would be upon points which he had paid but little attention to or had overlooked. The history of economic theory between 1776 and 1848 is a history of the development and refinement of ideas first brought into prominence by Smith, a process reflected in the pages of Ricardo, Malthus, and James Mill. All these and other writers of the period were principally concerned with making clear certain phases of economic doctrine that appealed especially to them, and there was practically no systematic writing in economics until J. S. Mill's work appeared in 1848. In rewriting political economy, Stuart Mill dropped the obsolete parts of the 'Wealth of Nations,' garnered the results of the years of economic discussion, and gave to the world a work that represented English economic thought in the middle of the nineteenth century. For a quarter of a century Mill's work dominated economic theory, and then the break-up began again. From every quarter, attacks were made upon the classical edifice that had been so patiently constructed. These attacks necessitated a restatement of old doctrines, the incorporation of new principles; but there was no thorough revision of the whole subject upon a new basis.

Smith's work was in reality a theory of prosperity, the part on Distribution being merely supplementary to account for the elements of Price; but by Mill's time the controversies of Distribution had become the centre of economic controversy, and since that day these problems have absorbed all the energies of economists, and have come to be regarded as making up the content of any significant economic discussion. The force of this movement has been to confine economic thought within narrow lines without reaching the general economic problem; thus justifying the criticism that the conventional economist failed to see the forest for the trees. For instance, in Mill's hands, the theory of Production became little more than a preparation for the subsequent theory of Distribution which affects to divide Income into definite shares, whose apportionment is determined by economic causes. As a matter of fact, he was really discussing the Distribution of Wealth among economic categories labelled Laborers, Capitalists, and Landlords. Moreover, the shares were made definite by the existence of the historical racial and social differences that divided English society, which differences disappearing, the shares lost their definite character.

The confusion that has arisen out of the efforts to redefine the economic terms has gone far to give the subject the character of that decayed species of mental gymnastics known as Scholasticism; with the re-

sult of forcing many who have concerned themselves with economic problems to resort to the expedient of speaking not as economists, but as "social philosophers." With the great changes in the industrial organization and the disappearance of the so-called economic funds, social distinctions can no longer serve as the basis for theories of distribution; while the terms rent, profits, interest, and wages cease to be clear demarcations of income, and must be newly defined or entirely discarded. The point of view of the book under review is that society must be studied from the standpoint of the Smith doctrines of prosperity, rather than the Marxian one of Distribution:

"That social evils are economic in their origin is a mere assumption. Economic laws are the outcome of forces acting in the present environment. Evidence for or against them must come directly from the relations existing between men and the environment in which they live. All economic forces arise out of existing conditions and exert an influence on the present race of men. An environment once left is no longer a living force. Its effects, however, may influence men, but it will be through heredity, morals, and traditions. The present environment acts on men through its economic forces; past environments through heredity and its accompanying habits, customs, and impulses. Long-standing evils, therefore, showing themselves in many races and at various times, are more likely to be the result of heredity than of environment. They are more nearly the same in all existing races than are their present environing conditions" (pp. 1, 2).

Up to this point current economic theory has not felt the force of evolutionary doctrines. Nor has biologic thought sufficiently recognized the importance of economic conditions; so that Prof. Patten's attempt to focus these two groups of discussion is significant, as is also the emphasis he lays on the different views of Production, each of which throws light on some problem. The laborer's view consists of the reactions between man and nature: work is the output of energy; pay is the return in goods. The view of the buyers and sellers lays stress on market relations, of which so much advantage is now taken. A third view is that of the investor, who is interested in the permanent aspects of production, and regards all conditions as due to forethought and organization of economic forces. All of these views deal with existing conditions, reflecting the relations between men and their present environment—each view showing the disposition of income under the conditions where it is dominant; and, by ignoring race differences, these views present a Normal Man who seeks an equilibrium between the outgo of energy and the return flow of goods. Race differences exist and cannot be ignored, but should be treated by themselves and discussed from an evolutionary standpoint. The growing powers of men constantly modify their relations to Nature, and change the normal tendencies which it is the end of economic forces to attain. Race problems affect income in three ways. First, the struggle for supremacy causes the subjection of the weaker and leads to their exploitation (this, however, is merely a redistribution of income, no increase). Second, the increase of income is due to adjustment (men are modified to meet new conditions, and the laws of this modification are of economic interest in so far as they augment the total income by increasing adjustment). The third way in which racial influences affect income is through the creation of economic rights: the strong allows more than would result from mere struggle to go to the less efficient and even to non-producers, causing to arise tendencies toward equality that pure economic forces would not create. The great criticism of the bulk of economic literature of the early half of the nineteenth century is that it does not deal with the right subject-matter, which ought to take account of changes socialistic and communistic. It is the irony of the situation that some of the keenest weapons of the Socialists have been drawn from the arsenal of economic classicism; an arsenal furnished from the Corn-laws and Poor-law controversies, and unprovided with arms of precision for the more recent warfare growing out of the social consequences of the industrial revolution.

Another notable feature of Professor Patten's book is the way in which the newer economic doctrines are deprived of the coloring gained from their original relations to particular discussions, and so correlated as to form a new economic outlook. The work serves as an exposition or restatement of recent theories, and at the same time brings back economic theory to the broader ground on which it was placed by Adam Smith. The theory of prosperity is thus restated in the foreground, and present industrial conditions receive an explanation which the older theories fail to supply. *Wages* are the pay of all who come in contact with nature, and not the pay of unskilled workmen who form for this reason a distinct social class. *Rent* is the gain of all who have monopoly advantages, and not merely an income dependent on the peculiarities of English landlords. *Capital* is the accumulated results of forethought and prudence, and not a fund to support laborers who live from hand to mouth. Real issues thus come to the front and get an answer.

In its main outlines the book is one of theory, and yet it is practical in the real and best sense of the word. It shows the condition on which progress rests, and at the same time formulates a code of rights that result from the premises used; in this way a programme of reform is presented much more definite than many of the schemes based primarily on compromise or on the details of practical life.

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*The French Revolution and Religious Reform.* By William Milligan Sloane. (Based on the Morse Lectures for 1900, before the Union Theological Seminary.) Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

An author writes his book in order to work out his own conception, and he not unnaturally complains when the reviewer finds fault with him for not having worked out a totally different conception. Feeling that the author should at least be permitted to name his own book, we pass criticism upon the title of Professor Sloane's volume with considerable misgiving. However, if a title is intended to give the key to the contents, we must demur at the outset to the expression "religious reform." As the second title explains, this is "an account of ecclesiastical legislation and its influence." Religious reform, in a distinctive sense, is not the theme and cannot be, inasmuch as the French Revolution did little or nothing for the readjustment of religious convictions. It would doubtless be possible to write a history of the years 1789-1804 from the purely religious standpoint, but that is not what Professor Sloane has done. His sketch deals first and foremost with ecclesiastical legislation. Of course matters which lie outside the sphere of practical politics are touched upon. Under the Constituent and the Convention ecclesiastical legislation reflected public opinion—not always national opinion, but certainly the characteristic views of leading parties. Therefore the genesis of the opinions, whether Erastian, anti-Roman, or anti-Christian, which were embodied in legislation becomes an important matter, and thereby the scope of the treatise is enlarged. Nevertheless, the discussion is much more political than religious, and we must submit that if the book had been associated by its title with ecclesiastical politics, and not with religious reform, it would have been better named.

In his opening chapters Professor Sloane goes back to the feuds of Jesuit and Jansenist, to the struggle of the *parlements* with the Church, and even to the Concordat between Leo X. and Francis I. At the other extreme he reaches Napoleon's Concordat with Pius VII., and closes by describing the enforcement of that measure. The three main subjects are the state of the Church in France on the eve of the Revolution; the development of ecclesiastical legislation in the days of the Constituent Assembly; and the negotiations between Malmaison and the Vatican during the opening months of the Consulate. While the periods of the Legislative Assembly, the National Convention, and the Directory are not altogether overlooked, the chief interest of the study centres in the measures which accompanied the beginning of the Revolution and its end.

When we think of the Palais Royal, of the *tricoteuses*, and of political leaders like Mirabeau, Talleyrand, Barras, and Bonaparte, the signs of a great religious movement are not disclosed to view. What the tone of the salons was during the régime of Calonne and Loménie de Brienne may be gathered from La Harpe's 'Prophecy of Cazotte.' But though philosophers might scoff at Romanism and at Christianity, they were still philosophers, and their creed meant intellectual freedom. To be truly successful, the Revolution should have given France religious liberty. Its failure at this point was so glaring that no historian can pass by the coercive, intolerant laws of the triumphant Radicals without offering some theory regarding their origin. Professor Sloane, like others, is deeply impressed by the weakness of Revolutionary legislation in respect to toleration, and gives it much of his notice; but whereas most previous writers have been content to dwell upon the political connection of the upper clergy and the non-juring priests with the cause of the monarchy and with the national enemies, he seeks an ultimate reason in the "substitution of subjective for concrete thinking which was the Roman heritage bequeathed to Gaul and to France." This classical feeling was not rooted out by Christianity, and in France it has distorted the whole philosophy of emancipation and liberty.

"To the French mind, liberty was either license under a hypothetical law of nature, or political equality under political tyr-

anny; in no sense was it the personal independence, compatible with legal and moral rights and guaranteed by a forbearing and enlightened public opinion, which is the resultant of righteousness in the persons forming society. This Latin concept of liberty was the poison to be injected into the veins of the body politic as an antidote to the poison of the prevalent infamy; organized and tyrannical secularism was to destroy organized and despotic ecclesiasticism, monarchical absolutism was to make way for democratic absolutism. The latter was the device of Rousseau; it was his passion and his fire which entered the soul of France and so moulded, alas! the whole Revolution."

We emphasize this aspect of the subject because throughout the whole work Professor Sloane's strongest impulse is the love of religious liberty. One sees it in his admiration of Grégoire of Blois, "spotless in character, wise in administration, and successful in his pastoral work." But, after all, he is less indebted for Professor Sloane's good will to his personal merits than to his steadfast defence of toleration, and especially to his great speech of December 21, 1794, when "once more and with glowing logic he began to plead the cause of religious liberty, nor did he feel the slightest tremor before the yells and execrations of the bedlamites among the Deputies who opposed him. His one repeated cry was for complete liberty of thought and worship, a total emancipation of religion from the tyranny of the state. His most powerful effort was that speech which he had ready for the decisive moment." And not only does Grégoire gain Professor Sloane's approval, but all those who sinned against the ideal of religious freedom invite his chastisement. Thus, he attacks the clergy, whom Voltaire attacked; thus, he inveighs against Chaumette and Hébert. The most notable victim of his censure is the National Convention. "The course of the sovereign assembly was correspondingly a swift descent to hell, in which every type of extreme fanatic heathen took his turn at the helm and was swept into perdition to make room for another, until the engulfing maelstrom was reached and the faint-hearted, shallow Robespierre sounded the alarm."

So profound has been the effect of the Concordat upon the life and politics of modern France that many readers will turn with the greatest curiosity to Professor Sloane's account of the measure and its effects. Here his most important contention relates to the "organic laws" which were and remain part and parcel of the system inaugurated by the Concordat. On the one hand, there is the theory which conceives Napoleon's motive to have been purely selfish; on the other, there is the plea of his admirers that he was guided by considerations of prescient statesmanship and a desire to restore religious liberty. Professor Sloane discards both of these theories because they leave out of account the "organic laws" supplementing the Concordat, with which Pope and Church had nothing to do. Here the First Consul legislated in direct contravention of canon law, and enacted rigid rules whereby the secular power was rendered supreme. "Determined to suppress alike the White and the Red Terror, . . . he aimed to restore the hierarchy in name and form; but in so doing he intended to make it subject to the secular power without reserve, keeping intact, as he wished ever to think, both the immemorial tradition of secular supremacy and the fundamental principle of the Revolution—absolute religious liberty and equality." Notwithstanding this general definition, Mr. Sloane admits that the French Liberals have some ground for regarding the Concordat as a reactionary measure, since it has permitted the rise of religious associations to great power, the decline of secular education, and the unification of all parties within the Roman Church.

While Professor Sloane's labors have been facilitated by the existence of such works as Robinet's 'Mouvement Religieux à Paris' and Gazier's 'Histoire Religieuse de la Révolution Française,' this volume represents original thought and investigation. Our opening remarks concerning the title call attention to what, if it be considered a fault, is but a slight one. On the whole, these lectures form an admirable monograph. They are thoroughly instructive and they prompt reflection. The only adverse criticism which we feel bound to make affects the manner of expression. Professor Sloane's style, though not at all obscure, is somewhat less rapid and incisive than we expect to find in historical writing of the highest class.

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*The Sacred Beetle:* A Popular Treatise on Egyptian Scarabs in Art and History. By John Ward, F.S.A. Five hundred examples of scarabs and cylinders; the translations by F. Llewellyn Griffith, M.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xvi, 122. 16 plates.

The author of 'The Sacred Beetle' is an amateur, but his book is a distinct contribution to a branch of a large subject of growing importance. It is dedicated to that indefatigable explorer, Prof. Flinders Petrie, whose words serve as a motto: "The distinction of the styles of scarabs is as much a special subject as the discrimination of the manner of painters, and as invisible to those who are unfamiliar with the study."

The book begins with an account of the scarab itself, and incidentally mention is made of a number of other subjects. While what is said is quite accurate in the main, some things might have been added without wearying the reader, and some might have been omitted without loss. The scarab or dung-beetle of Egypt became the symbol of "being," of continued "existence" and so of "immortality," possibly by reason of the popular myth which attributed to it the power of sexless self-propagation. Given form and significance, it afforded a double opportunity to the artist in stone, metal, or pottery, in the shape of the beetle itself with its fine details, and the smooth under surface which lent itself to inscriptions, mottoes, and fanciful designs. Mr. Ward has arranged his specimens chronologically as far as possible, using the royal names that frequently occur. The arrangement, of course, is not as plain in the case of those whose antiquity can be determined only by a process of comparison, or by a knowledge of their exact provenance. These are arranged by similarity of design or general likeness of pattern. Fortunately, the photographic method of reproduction has been adopted, thus giving the book a value which it could not otherwise have attained. A uniform greenish tint has been applied to all specimens alike, but this is hardly an unmixed good.

After the general account, follows a detailed description of the various specimens shown. Here the author has evidently been in a strait 'twixt two, whether to write for the reader who only possesses an uninstructed interest in the subject, or for the more advanced student who has no need of transliteration or translation. At times he has written for one, at times for the other. In the historical portion of the volume there are many illustrations in halftone, and many historical remarks showing the importance of a given king, the monuments which he left, or his relation to those who preceded or followed. These things are instructive and illuminating to the general reader particularly. Mr. Ward remarks the frequency of scarabs bearing the name of Thothmes III., supposing that it "became a watchword of religious supremacy, and so remained for many generations." This explanation, however, is quite insufficient. The name was written with three characters, *Ra-men-kheper*—the supreme solar deity; permanent; exist. When combined, these words form a prayer that Ra would grant permanent existence, a most appropriate petition or wish when applied to a mummy whose preservation intact in its tomb was a condition essential to the continued existence of the soul of the late departed. Scarabs thus engraved were used as amulets, and they are also found fastened to the foreheads of mummies. A specimen of the latter use may be found in one of the cases in the Metropolitan Museum, in this city.

Mr. Ward holds to the theory that the ancient Egyptian religion was "pure and simple," and that it "gradually degenerated into a species of polytheism." He holds that, "as the old faith waxed or waned," scarabs became plentiful or scarce, comparing their use to that of the cross among Christians. Exception must be taken to this, and to some of his historical statements, but for the most part, these have no connection with the principal subject in hand, and may be disregarded. The severest criticism must be aimed at the meagreness of the descriptive text in the latter part of the book, for this appeals to the lay reader, and for his benefit a glossary of terms might have been appended with advantage. The thanks of the expert need extend no further than the admirably executed plates, which present the objects almost as well and plainly as though they themselves were present in the round. Strangely enough, Mr. Ward gives no adequate reference to the widespread use of the design in other lands besides Egypt. Cyprus, for instance, has furnished many specimens of beautifully modelled beetles, cut from agate, chalcedony, rock crystal, and other hard substances, and engraved with designs more delicate and beautiful than any shown in this volume. These may be seen in the Cesnola collection of engraved gems exhibited in the gold room in the Metropolitan Museum. Some of them are of Egyptian workmanship, and show unadulterated purity of design. Others are Phœnician imitations; others still are Greek. In the course of time, all detail of form was lost, and the scarab became the scaraboid, and afterward was reduced to the oval convex bezel of the seal ring and even of the amulet.

*Breaking and Riding*, with Military Commentaries, by Joseph Fillis. Translated by M. H. Hayes. Scribners. 1902.

Mr. Fillis, head riding-master of the Central Cavalry School at St. Petersburg, published, some ten years ago, his work entitled, 'Principes de Dressage et d'Équitation,' and the present translation is by Capt. M. H. Hayes, formerly of the British army, himself a prolific writer on the subject of the horse. The success which has attended Mr. Fillis's career makes his advice very valuable, and no horseman can peruse this work without a feeling of satisfaction. In all European countries riding-masters are provided for the cavalry service, but in the United States the same practice is followed in regard to the mounted branches as with the foot troops—that is, the best instruction possible is given to the young officers by their superiors, and the former are then required to instruct the men and supervise the training of the animals to be used. This does not result in the development of high-school horses. For all practical purposes, such a horse is not necessary; and while time devoted to such training is not thrown away, it is deemed best to limit it, in order that other and important things may be learned.

In the United States the ability to stick on a horse has often been rated as of greater importance than real horsemanship, but during recent years this view has changed quite generally, and riders as a class have learned that much more can be got out of the horse by accomplished horsemanship than by mere sticking on. Mr. Fillis sums up his views on this subject by saying that the chief good point about the rider is firmness of seat, which is obtained by correct position and practice. The rider should have not merely blind pluck, but self-confidence and coolness, without which he will not be able to utilize the useful things he has learned.

In preparing the horse for riding, Fillis uses some methods which differ from those of Baucher, who really is the father of modern high-school riding in France, though he did not, of course, originate all that he taught. Not enough attention has been paid in cavalry service generally to the employment of flexions in training horses. A horse that has had proper training in the bending lessons, which has been taught to stand quiet while being mounted, and to preserve his equilibrium with a rider upon his back, is valuable for all ordinary purposes. Of course, for jumping, both in hurdle-racing and in hunting, additional special care is necessary in selecting and training horses. Fillis's remarks upon the subject of jumping are well worth careful reading, since he demonstrates, what ought to be apparent to any sensible rider, that no general rule can be applied to all horses in teaching them to make difficult jumps. He especially urges that the natural stride of the horse be not hampered at the moment of taking-off by efforts to raise him with the bit for the jump. In order to jump successfully, a horse should have his head and neck quite free; the rider being prepared to sustain him at the moment of landing, should he stumble. It is quite certain that the average horse is better able to take his bearings and decide the distance over the obstacle, and the instant when he should take-off for the jump, than the rider can possibly be. The rider's hand should, of course, not lose touch with the horse's mouth while approaching the obstacle; but the horse should have his head while jumping. Not only should the rider's legs support the horse by pressing him forward to the jump, but the close contact should be maintained when passing over the obstacle, and particularly when landing, for it is at that instant that the forelegs receive their greatest strain, and should be relieved as much as possible from any jar.

In discussing the army horse, Fillis pleads for a reduction in the age limit to three and one-half years, upon the theory that at that time the horse is more supple and can be more easily educated than when five years old. The custom in the United States cavalry is, in time of peace, to buy horses from four to six years old, but in time of war no horses under six years of age are purchased for cavalry service. The reason for this is that the young horses are subject to influenza, commonly called "shipper's fever," which rapidly disables cavalry commands mounted upon young horses. It is perhaps not generally known that during the civil war the number of horses and mules in service averaged one to every two soldiers under arms, and that the losses averaged 500 per day. Under these conditions it was absolutely necessary to reduce the probable mortality by purchasing animals of such age as would assure them against the diseases which attack colts.

A letter under date of February 13, 1865, to Gen. Grant from Gen. Halleck, Chief of Staff, states that there were, on January 1, 1865, 105,434 cavalrymen present for duty, and that there were only 77,847 serviceable horses, although 154,400 had been purchased during the year, no less than 180,000 horses having been used up by the cavalry in that period. With these actual conditions attending active field service, it must be apparent that there is no time for high-school training of cavalry horses for real war. As a matter of fact, the number of horses that have been trained for high-school purposes is very small, Baucher and Fillis together having trained in a lifetime less than sixty horses.

There is much in Fillis's book of value to those who may, through inclination or duty, undertake the training of horses. It is a much easier matter for the trainer to omit some of the high-school lessons after acquiring a knowledge of them, than it is to originate ideas concerning the various elements which go to make up the trained horse.

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*The Discovery of the Solomon Islands by Alvaro de Mendaña in 1568.* Translated from the original Spanish manuscripts. London: Hakluyt Society. 1901. 2 vols., 8vo. Illustrations and maps.

The Solomon Islands have had a strange history. They were discovered in 1568 by some Spaniards who brought back a detailed account of their six months' exploration of eight islands which stretched in an almost unbroken line for 600 miles. On their return, ship after ship was sent out to revisit them, but so completely without success that, their very existence being doubted, they were expunged from the charts. Two centuries passed before a French navigator rediscovered them; and though they have been frequently visited since, they are still practically unexplored, the largest and the least-known of the island groups of the Pacific.

The story told by the original discoverers, now published for the first time as a whole and in English, by the Hakluyt Society, is also remarkable. The expedition, consisting of two small vessels manned by 150 sailors, soldiers, slaves, and four Franciscan friars, left Callao, November 19, 1567, to discover and make a settlement upon a rich continent supposed to be within easy sail of Peru. Eighty days later Isabel was reached, a boat was built, and six months were spent in explorations. Then, the natives having proved hostile, food being scarce, and most of the people being sick, "I assembled all the company," writes the leader Mendaña, "captains and soldiers as well as pilots and sailors, and asked them all without distinction what was best to be done, and whether we should make a settlement here or not." The majority of this "parliament," in which fifty-eight gave their opinion, voted to return, and four days later the homeward voyage began. Though both ships were dismasted and separated in a hurricane, they arrived at a California port within two days of each other, and returned in company to Callao, where they cast anchor July 26, 1569, having lost only thirty men.

The sources of information are six manuscript narratives of the commander and several of the officers, the fullest being that of the chief purser. These have been translated and edited by Lord Amherst of Hackney, with the aid of Mr. Basil Thomson, author of several works on the South Seas, who also has written the scholarly introduction. Mr. C. M. Woodford, H. M. Deputy Commissioner for the islands, and some others have contributed many valuable notes upon the native customs, and in identification of the places, mentioned in the narratives. These simple records of each day's incidents, in which the relations with the natives are described with great fulness of detail, show the Spaniards to have been courageous, humane, and sincerely pious. They had frequent conflicts with the natives, but at first the natives were invariably the aggressors, and all Mendaña's efforts to maintain friendly intercourse were unsuccessful. This treacherous character of the islanders is unchanged. Mr. Thomson says that men who have been long in contact with Europeans, "who have paraded the streets of Townsville and Suva [Fiji] almost foppishly clad, may be seen two months later on their native beach in Malaita, arrayed in a pandanus leaf, with rifle in hand, to shoot at the crew of a passing schooner." Cannibalism was the great barrier separating the two races. On one occasion a chief with a flotilla of fifteen large canoes came to the ships and sent a quarter of human flesh to Mendaña, evidently the highest honor he could pay him. A grave was immediately dug at the water's edge and the quarter buried in the chief's presence. "He regarded this very attentively, and, seeing that we set no value on the present, they all bent down over their canoes like men vexed or offended, and put off and withdrew with their heads bent down."

A comparison of these accounts with those of recent visitors reveals this remarkably suggestive fact that, as the na-

tives were three centuries and a half ago, they are now, having neither progressed nor deteriorated. They are head-hunters, eat the bodies of the slain, use the same arms, build the same vessels, and wear the same ornaments. They had reached a stage of progress beyond that of any other of the Pacific islanders, as is shown by their graceful plank canoes, their elaborately built and decorated houses, and their sculpture, "correct even in anatomical detail"; and there they have stopped, furnishing another example, on a small scale, like that of China, of a people remaining stagnant.

Among the few passages difficult of explanation is one in which it is said that the expedition

"found some temples, and snakes, lizards, and scorpions in them, and in each one they found two or three *sabandijas* [? reptiles], which they keep in their nests in the wood of the temples, and they place food for them. We understood that they worshipped them; but our men also found them in their houses, near the spot where they made fire. They hung as many of these as they found on a stick, where the Indians could see them, and they sang at night, differently from other snakes (*culebras*), and like birds. One of them bit Francisco Garcia Tarifeno, a soldier, who put his foot upon it, but it did him no harm."

A missionary has seen the little green tree-frogs kept as pets in the houses of Isabel for the sake of their piping at night, and he himself has mistaken their note for the call of a night bird. They are also tied to sticks by the leg, but they do not bite, and it is difficult to see how they could be compared with snakes. An interesting illustration of the childlike faith of the explorers is that they attributed their discovery of a port to the intercession "of the three Magi, who had ever been our advocates," says Mendaña. "For at about ten o'clock in the morning, after we had put out to sea, and just as we were reëntering the shallow water, we saw above the middle of the maintopsail a resplendent star, which we took to be a guide sent to us by them to show us the passage through the shallows. . . . I called the port Bahia de la Estrella (Bay of the Star)."

A number of photographs, facsimiles of manuscripts, and maps add to the value of this most interesting narrative of a voyage, "remarkable even in a century famous for maritime discovery."

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*Philip Freneau, the Poet of the Revolution:* A History of his Life and Times, by Mary S. Austin. Edited by Helen Kearny Vreeland, great-granddaughter of the poet. New York: Wessels.

It is now more than half a century since Charles Fenno Hoffman, then conspicuous among New York literary men, wrote thus to Rufus Griswold, in regard to Philip Freneau, Griswold having just published his 'Poets of America':

"Do you know, I think you missed it in not giving him [Freneau] more room; that piece, 'His blanket, tied with yellow strings,' etc., should have been in. There is more of nature and poetry about him than in all the Yankees that follow till you come to Hillhouse. Dwight, Barlow, etc., were men of great intellectual vigor, but their poetry was an exercise of mental ingenuity merely. Freneau, if half an idiot, would still have had more poetry in the other half than could have been squeezed out of all the others boiled down to a consommé." (Griswold, Correspondence, p 185.)

This terse verdict has been, on the whole, confirmed by time; since we must remember that the Dana-Bryant-Percival period came after the years when Hillhouse was in his youthful glory; he having been born in 1789. The fuller editing and criticism of Freneau is therefore eminently appropriate, although the book before us is perhaps too large, as is certainly the case with the style and epithets of its editors.

It is perhaps unfortunate for the memory of Freneau that the author or authors of this bulky volume should have felt bound to make it a history of his times as well as of his life. When we reflect on the hundred thousand or more books which have grappled with that period, and the very few which have had much to say of this man, it would seem quite time for the man to take his turn, and not to be still further submerged, as in this particular book. Freneau, whatever his limitations, may now be justly regarded as the pioneer American poet, and it is a pity that he should not have been treated biographically, instead of merely glancing in and out upon the stage, as occasion serves. When we consider that the first four chapters, including sixty-eight pages, are occupied with events which took place before he was born, it is hard not to be reminded of that memorable autobiography of the French George Sand, in which it requires three volumes—if we remember rightly—to bring us to the birth of the narrator's grandmother.

After the beginning of chapter five, in the present work, we really have a great deal about the poet himself, though seldom systematically arranged, and often encumbered with more general matters. The authors show themselves unaccustomed to literary work and not abounding in literary knowledge. It seems almost incredible, indeed, that a song so well knewn as George Stevens's

"Cease, rude Boreas, blustering railer!
List, ye landsmen, all to me,"

should have been assumed to be by Freneau, and regarded as hitherto unpublished, simply because he had transcribed it in pencil. The authors have, however, brought out, with much fidelity, the remarkable compliments paid to Freneau by Scott and Campbell, when each borrowed unquestionably for his own verse a line from the American poet. The line taken by Campbell was from the striking imaginative picture in "The Indian's Burying-Ground," where Freneau writes:

"By midnight moons, o'er moist'ning dews,
In vestments for the chase array'd,
The hunter still the deer pursues,
The hunter and the deer—a shade."

Campbell transfers the last line, less effectively, in his "O'Connor's Child":

"Now on the grass-green turf he sits,
His tassell'd horn beside him laid;
Now o'er the hills in chase he flits,
The hunter and the deer a shade."

Again, Scott uses in his introduction to the third canto of "Marmion," where he has the lines,

"And Prussia hurried to the field,
And snatched the spear but left the shield,"

another extract from Freneau, who had written, in a poem on the "Heroes of Eutaw":

"They rushed to meet the insulting foe,
They took the spear—but left the shield."

In this case, while we have no direct recognition of the borrowing, it is known that Scott had met with the "Eutaw" poem in a magazine, that he knew it by heart, and pronounced it to be "as fine a thing of the kind as there is in the language" (p. 220).

These little literary honors counted for much at that nascent period of our literature; and everything goes to show that Freneau was a man of absolutely simple nature, though often over-vehement, irascible, and a partisan by temperament. The highest point reached by him in his varied career was the moment when, after a life of habitual distrust and disapproval of slavery, he emancipated his own slaves, some time before his death, and continued to support the aged and infirm among them; all this happening some time before the passage of an Emancipation Act by his own State, New Jersey (p. 195).

Freneau died a picturesque and tragic death at the age of eighty, he being on his way home from a political meeting and being caught in a sudden snowsquall, which hid from view the light that his wife always placed in the window for him; he fell in the snow, broke his hip, and was found dead. He was, on his father's side, a French Huguenot, and his leadership, in respect to time at least, among American poets, recalls the remark of Mrs. Frances Kemble Butler, who pointed out that, so great and rapid had already been the mixture of blood in this nation, the future American must not be viewed as merely a transplanted Englishman, but as a new type to be classed somewhere between Englishman and Frenchman.

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*Folk-Tales of Napoleon.* Translated, with Introduction, by George Kennan. New York: The Outlook Company. 1902.

The two folk-tales contained in this slender volume might fitly be issued by the Peace Society as a tract against war. Of the second, "The Napoleon of the People," little need be said. It is already more or less familiar to the public in its original place, Balzac's 'The Country Doctor,' and, while it is good and sufficiently suggestive in its way, it pales into insignificance by the side of the first story, "Napoleonder." The latter is a fine specimen of the wit, wisdom, and peaceful tendencies of the Russian people as a mass. In its present literary form it is the production of Alexander Amphiteatroff, and was published in a St. Petersburg newspaper at the end of 1901. But it is obvious to any one who is acquainted with the legendary and poetic talents and style of the Russian peasants, that Mr. Amphiteatroff has done little except act as a faithful mouthpiece. The general idea set forth is, that the Emperor Napoleon I., with whose campaign in Russia in 1812 the legend chiefly deals, was created by the devil, accidentally endowed with a soul by God, and then used by the latter as an instrument wherewith to chastise the peoples of the earth for their wickedness. But the pith of the idea, that which renders this simple folk-tale more powerful as a peace sermon than any scientific argument or philippic volumes long against war, is, that Napoleon conquered purely by virtue of the fact that he felt no pity. The moment a sentiment of pity entered his heart he was overthrown. The phantom hosts—his dead troops, who rallied again and again

to his standard, from their graves, at his call of "Bonaparty!"—ceased to respond when "Ivan-angel," in the guise of a mortally wounded young Russian soldier, asked the Conqueror: "Tell me, please, what have you killed me for?" and so set in motion a train of thought which speedily softened the heart of stone. The young soldier's arguments on the subject of war in general could not be improved upon.

We commend the little story to the attention of both the warlike and the peacefully inclined who have not had the good fortune to make acquaintance with it in the pages of the *Outlook*. The translation is as racy as the original, and that is the highest compliment which can be paid. The sole defect is a lack of footnotes. For students of folk-lore, they would have been especially valuable. There are exceedingly curious traces of the Epic Songs (which are famous for having been handed down for hundreds of years by word of mouth only), intermingled with historical facts in the most telling manner. For example: Napoleon is said, in epic style, to have "desolated the whole Mohammedan kingdom" before he finally marches on a Christian country, Holy Russia. An amusing touch is the reason assigned for Alexander I. being called "the Blessed"—because he now "stands on the top of the column in Petersburg-town, and blesses the people with a cross"; the fact being that the figure on the Alexander column in the Winter Palace Square is an angel. The Emperor Alexander is then represented as leading his army to "the field of Kulikova," where he waited for "the miscreant Napoleonder," and a battle ensued. The Russian army then flees "from Kulikova-field to Pultava-field; from Pultava-field to the famous still-water Don; and from the peaceful Don to the field of Borodino, under the very walls of Mother Moscow." As in an earlier reference to "the great fighter, Anika," of the "Cycle of the Elder Heroes" and "the island of Buan, in the middle of the ocean-sea," "Kulikova-field" (which reappears, under another title, in "the peaceful Don") is an echo of the "imperial or Moscow Cycle" of the Epic Songs, and refers to the famous battle fought in 1370, which broke the Tatar dominion; while "Pultava-field" represents the famous battle between Charles XII. of Sweden and Peter I. in 1709; and the field of Borodino is far from being in the immediate neighborhood of Moscow. All three were fateful battles for Russia, as each annihilated a foreign Power, and the combination is capital. The statement, also, that Tsar Alexander had Napoleon put into an iron cage, and carried round and exhibited to the people at country fairs for the space of thirty years, is derived from the legends and epic ballads about the popular kazak brigand, Stenko Razin, who was executed in 1671, and of Pugatcheff, the pretended Peter III., about a century later.

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*Studies in Physiological Chemistry*, Sheffield Scientific School. Edited by R. H. Chittenden. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901. 8vo, pp. 424.

*Qualitative Chemical Analysis.* By Albert B. Prescott and Otis C. Johnson. 5th ed. entirely rewritten. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 420.

*Victor von Richter's Organic Chemistry.* Edited by R. Anschütz. Translated by Edgar F. Smith. 3d American from 8th German ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Sons & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 625, 671.

*The Elements of Physical Chemistry.* By Harry C. Jones. Macmillan Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 565.

Our readers would be far from curious to see minute dissections of technical books performed before their eyes. The volume from the Laboratory of Physiological Chemistry of the Sheffield Scientific School contains some two dozen experimental researches into different points of that science, well sustaining the high character of their home. They are preceded by an interesting catalogue of all the publications of the Laboratory since its institution in 1875.

The 'Qualitative Analysis' of Profs. Prescott and Johnson is a handbook every way modern, distinguished by its completeness. An introduction of 26 pages sets forth concisely the principles of the art, including sections on dissociation, the periodic system, etc. All the rare metals, excepting only such things as Polonium and Radium, are included; and the selection of acids treated is large. The authors, it is plain to see, have searched the "literature" of the subject exhaustively, and have not neglected experimental verification, wherever it was possible. Sufficient details are given as to precautions to be observed, and there are useful explanations of why peculiar phenomena are as they are. Earlier editions are well known, but this present work is largely new and a great improvement. In every respect, it will be most serviceable, especially to the accomplished chemist.

Von Richter's 'Organic Chemistry' has been so often rewritten that one might begin to fear effects of new wine in old bottles. Nothing of the sort appears. With what ingenuity a vast ocean of facts is packed away into these few, thirteen hundred pages, can be learned only by personal inspection. The digest is so uniform that one knows precisely what one may expect to find and where to look for it. The exposition is so luminous that a student who has once acquired the chemical memory can, with a reasonable amount of study, bring away all the outlines and many of the details. The first volume is chiefly given over to the fat-allied bodies; but, after they have been treated, room remains in the same volume for the carbohydrates, the albuminoids, and all that is beyond the ken of chemical theory to-day. That leaves the second volume for bodies of so-called cyclical constitution exclusively. This second volume carries authority as to fact beyond what one would have a right to demand of a compilation. Not only has it been executed with great *general* chemical judgment, but special parts have been revised by men specially acquainted with special groups of substances. The German editor's skill in exposition gains in this second volume, too; and the American translator manipulates his own language with more accomplished neatness. This work may be recommended as quite the most suitable that exists for almost every person who may desire to undertake almost any kind of study of organic chemistry. Common sense will set certain limits to this statement; and there are no others. If every person whom the description fits were provided with a copy of these volumes, the sales would run up into quite modern numbers.

As to the subject of Professor Jones's book, one can go further. Every man of education would like to know something of organic chemistry; but every such man needs to know the principles of physical chemistry in about the measure in which Professor Jones's volume sets them forth. There are really two departments of science which join hands in this volume; first, the new Physical Chemistry, which takes account of the time of reaction, of dissociation, of the influence of mass; second, that somewhat ill-defined congeries of studies which used to be called Chemical Physics. Why should not these two phrases be allowed to stand, each in the peculiar sense in which it is usually employed? The newer subject captivates by its unexpected and prompt explanations of most important facts for which one had not seen any reason. It looms large from the viewpoint of to-day's science. Professor Jones's exposition of this branch is in almost every point excellent, and in the most important parts is everywhere more than excellent—often admirable. The older subject, the knowledge of which is fully as valuable, although at the present time it is not so active a factor in the metabolism of science, evidently does not interest the author so keenly. This is unfortunate, because this division is naturally placed first, and among the students of this work there will be some who, though somewhat at sea in chemistry, have pretty distinct and tolerably accurate notions of what good logic is and what bad. If a Clerk Maxwell could have been found to perform this more perfunctory part of Professor Jones's task, what a masterpiece might the two have made of it!

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*Tribal Custom in Anglo-Saxon Law:* Being an Essay Supplemental to (1) 'The English Village Community,' (2) 'The Tribal System in Wales.' By Frederic Seebohm. Longmans. 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi, 538.

In this volume Mr. Seebohm tries to throw light on the division of classes in Anglo-Saxon society and the character of their holdings by investigating the subject from the point of view of tribal custom, whereas in his 'English Village Community' his chief purpose was to trace the origin of the manorial system by a careful study of the open-field system of agriculture. His main clue to an understanding of the division of classes is the amount of the wergelds or death-fines which were paid in lieu of the feud between kindreds, and his treatment of this subject leads to some long digressions concerning the currencies in which the death-fines were paid. He concludes "that there was a general correspondence in the amount of the wergelds tenaciously adhered to by the tribes of Western Europe, whether remaining in their old homes or settled in newly conquered countries." About half of the book is occupied with an examination of the tribal customs and monetary systems of the Welsh, Irish, Scots, Scandinavians, Burgundians, Visigoths, Franks, Saxons, and other Germanic tribes, so that the work might properly have been called 'Tribal Custom in the Early Laws of Western Europe.' The comparative method of historical study, when applied to early institutions, requires

much laborious research, and has been employed by Mr. Seebohm with more success in some chapters than in others. For example, it is difficult to follow or accept his new explanation of the terms twelve-hynde and twy-hynde men; but by investigating the evidence of the Norse laws regarding the wergelds of the leysings he is able to give a plausible explanation of the status of the Kentish laets, whose position in society has always been obscure. He deserves much credit for his courage in undertaking the arduous task of bringing the Continental evidence in line with the Anglo-Saxon; and if his example is imitated by others, we may hope for a better knowledge of early English institutions.

It is difficult briefly to formulate the new results reached by Mr. Seebohm. He throws some new light on various questions concerning the wergeld system, the bond of kindred, and classes of society; but, though the Anglo-Saxon nobility is one of his main themes of discussion, he has not cleared away the darkness surrounding the meaning of the terms eorl, gesith, and thegn, and some of his statements regarding them are perplexing. For example, he tells us that the gesith in Ine's time was the twelve-hynde man, and belonged to a class lower than the thegns (pp. 410, 417), and yet he does not question the chapters of the so-called Laws of Henry I. which equate the thegn with the twelve-hynde man (pp. 325, 328). Then, too, some of his conclusions are based on his questionable dating of fragments of Anglo-Saxon law, notably the 'De Institutis Lundonie,' the 'North People's Law,' and the 'Northumbrian Priest-Law' (pp. 340-43, 364, 399). The fact that the Danish ore of sixteen pence is found in the Domesday Survey, as well as in the 'De Institutis Lundonie,' might be used as an argument against his assumption that this fragmentary collection should be assigned to the reign of Cnut, and in favor of Höhlbaum's contention ('Hansisches Urkundenbuch,' iii., 379) that it belongs to the period immediately following the Norman Conquest. Finally, in dealing with the wealh class (pp. 402-4) our author overlooks Liebermann's essay on the Ordinance concerning the Dunsetas, in *Archiv für das Studium der Neueren Sprachen*, 1899, volume cii.

The discussion of the classes of society naturally leads to some consideration of manorial development, and it soon becomes evident that Mr. Seebohm has modified his well-known theory that the English manor was a survival from Roman times. He now believes that the Anglo-Saxon settlers brought with them from the Continent traditions of tribal or family ownership; "and tribal custom left to itself would give to them landed rights quite different from those of the individual owner." The law of tribal gravitation tended to place the ceorls with an imperfect kindred in a dependent position at the bottom of the social ladder; they became dependent on the landholders (gesiths or twelve-hynde men), whose separation from their kinsmen in the period of conquest and settlement brought them in closer relations with the king. The ceorls paid gafol and did service to the landholders, and these paid gafol and did service to the king. Seebohm thus accepts Maitland's definition of the manor as "the fiscal unit from which gafol is paid directly to the king, while its lord is the receiver of the payments and services of its tenants." Moreover, he asserts that manorial jurisdiction "may have grown from the root of the tribal principle involved in the sacredness of the precinct or area of protection of the chieftain and, in degree, of every grade of tribesman who possessed a homestead." The importance which he ascribes to the tribal element necessitates a modification of the theory set forth in his 'English Village Community' that the Anglo-Saxon manor was directly derived from the Roman *villa*, and that English history "begins with the serfdom of the masses of the rural population under Saxon rule." He still believes, however, that Roman methods of land management exerted considerable influence, especially in establishing uniformity of holdings on manorial estates, and he is inclined to push back the serfdom of the masses to a period at least as early as the reign of Ine.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Anderson, G. L. Handbook for the Use of Electricians, in the Operation and Care of Electrical Machinery, and Apparatus of the U. S. Coast Defences. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
Annales Internationales d'Histoire: Congrès de Paris. 1900. I. Histoire Générale et Diplomatique. II. Histoire Comparée des Institutions et du Droit. III. Histoire Comparée de l' Economie Sociale. IV. Histoire des Affaires Religieuses. V. Histoire des Sciences. VI. Histoire Comparée des Littératures. VII. Histoire des Arts du Dessin. Paris: Armand Colin. 35 francs.
Babbitt, F. C. A Grammar of Attic and Ionic Greek. American Book Co. $1.50.
Baskett, J. N., and Ditmars, R. L. The Story of the Amphibians and the Reptiles. D. Appleton & Co. 60 cents.
Bicknell, P. C. Guide Book of the Grand Canyon of Arizona. Kansas City: Fred Harvey.
Blanden, C. G. A Drift of Song. Evanston (Ill.). William S. Lord. 50 cents.
Blatchford, Robert. Britain for the British. London: Clarion Press; Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents
Bloch, I. S. The Future of War. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bréal, Auguste. Rembrandt: A Critical Essay. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 75 cents.
Broome, Isaac. The Last Days of the Ruskin Co-operative Association. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Bryce, James. The Relations of the Advanced and the Backward Races of Mankind. Henry Frowde.
Clark, S. H. Handbook of Best Readings. Scribners. $1.50.
Crosland, T. W. H. The Unspeakable Scot. London: Grant Richards; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Crowest, F. J. The Story of the Art of Music. D. Appleton & Co. 35 cents.
Denton, Daniel. A Brief Description of New York. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Company.
Doty, A. H. A Manual of Instruction in the Principles of Prompt Aid to the Injured. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Edmunds, A. J. Hymns of the Faith (Dhammapada): Being an Ancient Anthology Preserved in the Short Collection of the Sacred Scriptures of the Buddhists. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co.
Findlay, Jessie P. The Spindle Side of Scottish Song. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Gottsberger, Francis. Accountant's Guide. George G. Peck.
Green, Evelyn E. Princess Fairstar. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Hinds, W. A. American Communities. Rev. ed. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. $1.
History of the Expedition under the Command of Captains Lewis and Clark to the Sources of the Mississippi, across the Rocky Mountains, down the Columbia River to the Pacific in 1804-6: A Reprint. 3 vols. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Hopkins, J. C. Morang's Annual Register of Canadian Affairs, 1901. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co.
Hopkins, S. A. The Care of the Teeth. D. Appleton & Co. 75 cents.
Hundert Meister der Gegenwart in farbiger Wiedergabe. Part I. Leipzig: E. A. Seemann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Johnson, Virginia W. A World's Shrine. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.20.
Juraschek, Fr. von. Geographisch-Statistische Tabellen aller Länder der Erde, 1902. Frankfort: Heinrich Keller; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lewis, J. A. Sir Walter of Kent. Bonnell, Silver & Co.
Merejkowski, Dimitri. The Romance of Leonardo da Vinci. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Millard, Bailey. Songs of the Press, and Other Adventures in Verse. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard.
Myers, A. C. Immigration of the Irish Quakers into Pennsylvania, 1682-1750. Swarthmore (Penn.): Published by the author.
Nyrop, Christopher. The Kiss and its History. (Translated by W. F. Harvey.) London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Oliver, Thomas. Dangerous Trades. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $8.
Plummer, Charles. The Life and Times of Alfred the Great. (Ford Lectures for 1901.) Henry Frowde. $1.75.
Political X-Rays, by an Internationalist. Paris: Charles Eitel.
Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, Second Series. Vol. XV. Boston: Published by the Society.
Rae, W. F. Sheridan's Plays. London: David Nutt. 10s. 6d.
Raoul-Duval, Roger. Au Transvaal et dans le Sud Africain avec les Attachés Militaires. Paris: Ch. Delagrave.
Smith, Eugene. The Home Aquarium, and How to Care for It. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.20.
Stokes, A. P. Cruising in the West Indies. Dodd, Mead & Co.
The Living Age, Seventh Series, vol. xv. Boston: The Living Age Co.
Tileston, Merrill. Chiquita. Chicago: The Merrill Co.
Transactions of the Kansas State Historical Society, 1901-1902. Topeka: Kansas State Historical Society.
Trask, R. D. Human Knowledge and Human Conduct. Published by the Author.
Walker, A. H. A Primer of Greek Constitutional History. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.
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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1902.

## The Week.

The Cuban Secretary of Agriculture, Señor Terry, having made arrangements with certain bankers to furnish a loan of four millions for the relief of the planters, recently applied to the Cuban Congress for its authorization. Instead of granting it to him at once, the House is now proposing to make the loan one of $35,000,000, with a view to paying off the Cuban army. This question has been a stumbling-block in the path of the new republic from the start, and is one which must cause President Palma no little anxiety until it is finally disposed of. Meanwhile it is very doubtful whether such a large loan could be placed by the republic, and the outlook for the planters, large and small, is as hopeless as ever. The first serious failure, reported last week, was that of a large cattle dealer. Fortunately it has not, as yet, been followed by others, but the anxiety at Havana and the general prostration of industry and business continue. For all of which, it must not be forgotten, the blame rests squarely upon the Republican majority in Congress.

Newspaper gossips have had much to say of late in regard to the future of Gen. Wood. Last week it was solemnly announced that he was to head the Panama Canal Commission. Now that this rumor has been authoritatively denied, it is stated that he is to become the head of a "commission to reorganize the army." This story is plainly as unfounded as the other. The army has been reorganized under the direction of Secretary Root, and there could be no possible excuse for such a commission as is suggested. What Gen. Wood's friends must wish for him is a chance to learn a little something about his profession, that he may be worthy of the high rank to which he has been promoted. Until the war with Spain, it must be remembered, Gen. Wood was a doctor. While Governor-General of Cuba, his duties were purely administrative and of a civilian character. With the exception of his service with the "Rough Riders," which lasted exactly sixty-one days, and his pursuit of Geronimo when attached to Gen. Lawton's column, Gen. Wood has had absolutely no military training or experience. His trip to Europe has been arranged that he may learn something about foreign military methods. He himself will be very much of a curiosity when he appears on the German parade grounds.

The committee appointed in April to look into the evils connected with military operations in the Philippines have printed an open letter to the President which is frank if not complete. Messrs. Adams, Schurz, Welsh, and the other gentlemen composing the committee were bound to acknowledge, as they do handsomely, that the situation has greatly changed since the date of their appointment. The President has had something to say, in the interval, and has confirmed his emphatic words by appropriate action. This could but be gratifying to the investigating committee; and, in fact, they do give Mr. Roosevelt praise for having done what he could for "the reëstablishment of the national prestige and the restoration of the morale of the army." This is the general attitude. The committee, however, urge further action in certain "concrete cases," as to which they are unfortunately vague. They allege, that is, the commission by men in the United States uniform of the crimes of kidnapping and robbery, and murder, and torture, and rape, but without specifying either the number of instances or the proof, though they state their entire readiness to produce it on request. Special facts, buttressed by detailed and unimpeachable testimony, were what the occasion seemed to call for; and these we miss in the committee's letter. Nevertheless, we can but praise the temper in which they have performed a disagreeable task.

Vermont for once is having a State campaign on State issues which is full of interest. In the nearly fifty years since the formation of the Republican party, there has never been a canvass when the slightest doubt was felt by anybody that this party would elect its ticket by an overwhelming majority—usually by a vote of more than two to one. This time it seems possible that, a month hence, the Republican candidate for Governor may lack a majority at the polls, although this would only postpone a little his success, as the Legislature, which must settle the matter in such a contingency, will undoubtedly be Republican. Percival W. Clement of Rutland is the man who has upset the State by pushing to the front the issue of a local-option and high-license system as against prohibition, and by taking the field as an independent candidate for Governor when he had failed to secure the regular nomination. Some Democrats have favored the idea of endorsing Mr. Clement, but their State convention decided against this plan by a vote of 254 to 99, and thus removed all possibility of his election. How largely he will detach Republican voters from their allegiance, it is as yet too early to judge, but his candidacy is weakened by the fact that the convention of his own party practically accepted his platform on the liquor question. Mr. Clement complains that the man who beat him for the regular nomination bribed voters in the caucuses, and he urges various reforms in other matters than liquor legislation; but his candidacy does not appear to present that clear-cut issue which is needed to make a bolt successful. However, the disturbance of the body politic which he has caused will do a vast deal of good to a commonwealth that has long suffered from sluggishness.

There is nothing new in the attempt being made in Mississippi to divide the school taxes between the white and negro schools in proportion to the taxes paid by each race. Similar movements have been started in almost every Southern State for at least fifteen years past, but always without success. Strong as has been the race prejudice in many sections, it has never been able to blind a majority of the whites to the fact that the proposition means ignorance and illiteracy for the blacks, and therefore wholesale injury to the South or to the individual State. Now that the negro has practically been disfranchised, the argument that education only teaches the negro to vote against the white man has fallen to the ground. Far more important than this is the fact that the new Southern educational movement has opened the eyes of thousands to the absolute necessity of negro education by the State. The attitude of men like Gov. Aycock of North Carolina, of Hoke Smith, and of many other prominent citizens makes the commission of such an outrage as is again proposed in Mississippi an impossibility. Moreover, in North Carolina the courts have declared the proposed division of the school funds unconstitutional.

The Alabama committee on the employment of children in factories has just published a pamphlet entitled "The Case against Child Labor," of which its chairman, the Rev. Edgar Gardner Murphy, is the author. It puts the facts about this terrible abuse in compact form, and should be in the hands of all interested in rescuing the poor slaves of the spinning-room from a childhood of drudgery. According to Mr. Murphy's statistics, the number of children under sixteen years of age employed in the cotton factories increased 140.9 per cent. during the decade ending in 1880, and 106.5 per cent. between 1880 and 1890. Between 1890 and 1900 the increase was no less than 270.7 per cent. Of the 45,044 textile operatives in North Carolina, 7,996 are under fourteen years of age, while the aver-

age wage of the child has decreased from 32 to 29 cents per day in that State. In some places in the South the daily wage is as low as 9 cents a day, incredible as it seems, and this for twelve hours of labor! In all, it is estimated that there are at least 22,000 such child victims of the rapacity and selfishness of the Northern and Southern owners of mills in the South, and from 9,000 to 10,000 of these are under the age of twelve. Among the planks adopted by the Texas Democratic convention on July 15 was one demanding "the enactment of a law prohibiting the employment of children under twelve years of age in factories using machinery." This followed upon precisely similar action by the Democratic Convention in South Carolina, and gives good ground for hope that the abuse has reached its worst stage.

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Italian emigration to America has become important enough to have its own review, the *Revista Italo-Americana*, the first number of which contains tabulated statistics of emigration for the year 1901. Nothing is more striking in this table than the movement of population which is set down as temporary emigration. Thus, the total number of emigrants for the year was 533,245. Of these, 281,668, according to their own declaration, sought only temporary employment elsewhere with the intention of returning to Italy, while only 251,577 were actually seeking permanently a new home. Of these temporary emigrants 68,250, in the year 1901, went to Austria, 52,563 to France, 45,667 to Germany, 44,383 to Switzerland, and 20,221 to this country. Remarkable is the complete interpenetration of the life of this northern nation by the Italian, and the general prosperity of a class of immigrants which it has been the custom to regard as detrimental. If you wish to have your door-yard tidied up within the suburban radius of any of our great cities, you must appeal to a member of this "backward" race. Ride or drive among the truck gardens to the north of this city, and the language and costume of Italy are everywhere in evidence; not only the smaller shops in this region, but even the saloons, bear Italian names, and the mandolin is commoner than the concertina or other indigenous instrument. Meanwhile your friend is building his Massachusetts summer home exclusively with Italian labor; and your forest camp in Maine, however far from civilization, is not forgotten by the banana man.

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The adding of an undergraduate department to Clark University, Worcester, Mass., is, we believe, rather in accordance with a requirement of the founder's will than with the preference of the present administrators. The faculty is a strong, if a small one, and one may assume that the baccalaureate degree conferred under its recommendation will be the equivalent of that of our best colleges. In founding a collegiate department, however, Clark University foregoes its unique distinction as a school of pure research, and, with scantier resources, accepts the conditions common to our historic universities. It is hard to see in New England any pressing need of a new university of the ordinary type, and it is yet to be hoped that the administrators of Clark University may find some special and restricted field of activity, so that the institution under their charge may not become merely a smaller Harvard, Yale, or Brown. It must be assumed that President Hall's ideals for the graduate school of research remain unchanged, and one must hope that, in the altered condition of the university, there may be—in the greater diversity of interests represented, or otherwise—some compensation for a certain loss of distinctive character.

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The consolidation of the *Evangelist* and the *Christian Work* is another illustration of the change which has come over the field of religious journalism. A generation ago, the *Evangelist* was the most prominent, influential, and profitable organ of the Presbyterian denomination in the country, and most conservative business men would have considered its purchase on a pretty high valuation a good investment. The fact that its editor was then one of the best-known clergymen in the United States, the Rev. Dr. Henry M. Field, and that he retired from its control some years ago, may be considered one element in its decline; but secular journals which once had famous men as editors and then lost them have, nevertheless, continued to be successful. Moreover, the change in the *Evangelist's* fortunes is not exceptional. It is probably safe to say that there is not a single purely denominational newspaper in the United States which is anything like as profitable now as it was a quarter of a century ago. In New England more than one State organ of the Congregationalists has been merged in the journal bearing that denomination's name which is published at Boston. Elsewhere in the country many of the smaller newspapers devoted to the interests of a single church have disappeared, and there are denominational organs of much pretension which are supposed by the general public to be still flourishing that are known by insiders to have a gloomy outlook.

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Lord Dundonald, the English cavalry general who relieved Ladysmith, and who is about to become the head of the Canadian militia, has put forward some interesting suggestions as to the development of close relations between the English and colonial military forces. He is not in favor of the present system of garrisoning the colonies with regiments from the United Kingdom. Like Sir Edward Hutton, he would have each colony raise its own troops and look after its own fortifications, as he believes this would have to be done in the event of a war with a powerful nation. Lord Dundonald is also in favor of giving such high commands as he himself is about to assume to competent colonial officers. Promising military men from any outlying portion of the empire would be given service in Great Britain or India, were his plan to be adopted. But he would always have the colonial officer keep his individuality as such, and not have him enter a regiment like any British cadet. Such a system as he proposes would require an enormous amount of supervision and very heavy expenses in the way of training officers so far from the hub of the empire. But the acclaim with which Lord Dundonald's elaborate suggestions have been received, goes to show how eager the public and the War Office are to take advantage of the close military relations of the various parts of the empire since 1899. Apparently everything possible is to be done to build up an elaborate system of "imperial defence" with great levies of men, no matter what the expense to which the taxpayer may be put.

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Wherever the British Parliament wanders, it infallibly comes back to the Education Bill, for the discussion of which the session may again prove too short. But the attitude of the Government has notably changed since last summer, when the tendency was to cram a roughly prepared measure down the Liberal throat. This year successive amendments are bringing the bill nearer to the Liberal way of thinking, and it is evident that Mr. Balfour will make every concession short of the general principle of the bill—namely, that the seat of educational authority is to be not the school boards, but the 338 county and municipal councils. Upon this general matter of educational polity the Liberal adherents of the board-school system will naturally conduct a vigorous opposition. Meanwhile, recent amendments have greatly reduced the offensiveness of the bill, both to the local taxpayers and to those who saw in it an insidious move of the Church of England. The two most important amendments respectively promise to the poorer councils liberal support from the Exchequer, and forbid the teaching of any denominational creed or catechism in all schools supported from the rates. It is needless to say that this is a sad blow to the high-churchly of Lord Hugh Cecil's stamp, and that it will probably relegate the more ecclesiastical of the voluntary schools to their proper status as private institutions. It would seem as if Mr. Balfour had really grasped the idea that public education must be secular, and that only upon this basis

can the various primary schools of England be fused into a common system. This is a great advance for a Tory Government to have made.

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The Kaiser will perhaps never more completely look the war lord than when, in the coming September manœuvres, he leads 90,000 troops into the Polish provinces of the Empire. In a time of friendly feeling such an entrance would seem unnecessarily spectacular. When the Kaiser makes it in response to a warning to avoid the Polish region, it is a significant reminder that the Empire has the means of enforcing loyalty. Whether such a demonstration is either wise or necessary, is very doubtful. The problem of racial antagonism in Posen and Silesia must work itself out gradually; it cannot be settled in a day by heroic expropriation of Polish land-owners, or through the execution of impressive manœuvres by the army. Such measures, indeed, are likely to deepen the misunderstanding, and it is clearly unwise for Germany to embitter a quarrel in which all the odds are in her favor.

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The assumption of a Korean protectorate by the Anglo-Japanese alliance is a step of great importance. It gives check to all ulterior ambitions of Russia in that direction, and it asserts the constructive and aggressive character of the pact so lately made. Taken in its literal sense, it is almost in the nature of a self-denying ordinance on the part of Japan, while, assuming that the attempt to build up a vigorous nationality in Korea will prove successful, it may eventually mean applying to the Far East the policy of buffer states, which has been well tested in European Turkey. It would be strange to find an identical regimen—in either case of British contrivance—applied to both sick men of the East. A minor but a striking feature of the *entente* is the inclusion of the United States with the two treaty Powers as the possible accepter of a Korean loan. How far this is a privilege, financially speaking, may be doubtful; but it can hardly be considered otherwise than as a friendly overture to a nation which, without the formality of treaties, is firmly committed to the doctrine of maintaining the integrity of the Chinese Empire.

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Russia is clearly in earnest about her international conference to deal with Trusts, for she has formally invited the English Government, which is considering its answer, so the Prime Minister said in the Commons on July 23. This would make the omission of the United States singular, if not invidious. It was, indeed, hinted from Washington the other day that only the Powers represented in the Brussels sugar conference were to be invited, and also that Russia well knew that we could take no part in European congresses. But it is not merely bounty-grown sugar that the Russian invitation specifies among the products whose "artificial depression" in price by Trusts it is desired to combat. Besides, we *do* have a place now in European diplomacy, where, according to the *Spectator*, we "weigh heavily." We were represented at the Czar's disarmament congress, so why not at his anti-Trust conference? President Roosevelt has declared it necessary to regulate Trusts by State laws and Federal legislation; surely he could not decline to accept the added curb of an international agreement. For our part, we feel almost like demanding an invitation as a right. We cannot let it be believed that we are so much the country of Trusts *par excellence* that it is impossible even to ask us to discuss methods of restraining their evils. If the European nations are to have a banquet of that sort, the United States ought to be present in some other guise than the fatted calf.

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That Premier Combes's decree closing some twenty-five hundred monastic establishments would arouse bitter opposition, it required no extraordinary gift of prophecy to predict. Much of the rioting on the occasion of the closing of convents and conventual schools in Paris has been unquestionably of a political nature, but the barring out of the police from proscribed schools by the Breton peasantry shows very clearly that the country generally will interpret the decree as an anti-Catholic measure. There is, in truth, much reason for such a feeling. Most of the schools which have been closed by the recent order are girls' schools, conducted by the various orders of nuns. Many Frenchmen who are not at all of the Clerical stamp will remember that the case of the anti-Clerical Socialist Jaurès, whose daughter recently took her first communion, is not unique in the Chamber of Deputies and will feel that this harsh treatment of the nuns, however technically lawful, is excessive and unjust. On Premier Combes's side it must be noted that the recalcitrant orders are said to be very generally applying for authorization under the Associations Law. Until the statistics of suppressed and of newly authorized establishments are at hand, it will be impossible to tell whether the present proscription can be justified on any such grounds of discipline. Every Roman Catholic country must periodically have it out with the religious orders—history has shown nothing more clearly than this. Whether Premier Combes has not rashly opposed the Church itself, is the challenge he will have to meet when Parliament reassembles.

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There is fresh evidence that the system of settling labor disputes in New Zealand by conciliation and arbitration continues to work well. A commission appointed by the Victorian Parliament recently returned to Melbourne after spending a long time in taking the testimony of all sorts of people in all the centres of industry. Only one of the many witnesses disputed the soundness of the principle upon which the new system is based, or desired to return to the old order of things; and among those consulted were the President of the chief Chamber of Commerce, officers of ratepayers' associations, and representatives of various industrial unions. All agreed that the arbitration court works well, but the Victorian commission, like previous investigators, found that the conciliation boards are not equally satisfactory. These boards take evidence and can then send to the arbitration court for final decision on points in dispute. A number of witnesses want to have the boards invested with power to give their recommendations the force of law, until reversed by the court. One amendment of the Arbitration and Conciliation Act is urged which is obviously needed—that seven men in a trade shall not have the right to bring all who are engaged in it before a court, perhaps on the merest quibble or out of sheer malice, but that the machinery of the Act shall not be put in operation unless half the employees petition for it.

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In considering this latest picture of industrial harmony in New Zealand, the outsider cannot resist the suspicion that a concurrence of prosperity with good fortune in the first choice of officials to enforce the Arbitration and Conciliation Act has given a successful start in a new country to a system which might work badly in a nation as old and as politician-ridden as the United States. Here is a colony of only 800,000 people, among whom at present there are no unemployed. One industry of some importance is the digging of Kauri gum, much used in varnish manufacture; and when things are quiet in other lines of industry, men can go after gum and earn from £2 to £5 a week. It should be pretty hard for a "walking delegate" to work much mischief in a country where one can earn a good living so easily. As regards the operation of the act, the commissioners note that the Arbitration Court, with which all are satisfied, is presided over by a judge who "seems to be cut out for that kind of work," while "the success or failure of the conciliation boards depends upon the character of their personnel." One of these which is highly regarded has for its moving spirit a man of trained mind and considerable tact, while others have plainly failed because they lacked men of this type.

*CATHOLICS AND THE PHILIPPINES.*

Archbishop Ireland's statement last week is a sure sign that the Republicans are getting a little nervous lest the Philippine question become temporarily a Catholic question. The Archbishop's relations with their party have long been close. A prelate of high standing and great influence in all the Northwest, he has been one of the few men in the Catholic hierarchy to whom the Republican managers could turn for sympathy and assistance. This he has given on unselfish and patriotic grounds, we doubt not, and as a part of that "Americanism" in the Catholic Church with the movement for which he was understood to be identified until the Pope put it under ban. His activities in public matters have often and perhaps necessarily had a political aspect; and the politicians among the Methodist Bishops have been observed to shake their heads gravely over the spectacle of the Catholic Archbishop of St. Paul being called into the party councils. For them to boast of electing Presidents was a part of their American birthright, but for him—well, it was Erastianism, to say the best of it.

The rôle which the Archbishop now essays is that of a mediator; but we fear that the proverbial cuffs of the peacemaker will be his lot. Certainly his references to the "irresponsible Church societies and newspaper editors" that have been engaged in "movements and declarations regarding religious matters in the Philippines" will not allay the growing suspicion and bitterness with which Catholics in this country have been writing and speaking of what they consider injustice done the friars in the Philippines. To say that this spreading Catholic agitation "does no honor to those participating in it," may gratify the Administration, but it will only infuriate the Catholics concerned.

On the other hand, we can but think that the Archbishop has unwittingly rubbed the wrong way some of the most violent religious prejudices of Protestant supporters of the McKinley Philippine policy. In order to reassure the Catholics, he reminds them how the Administration has "responded graciously to the wishes of the Vatican." Why, that is a veritable red rag—a sleeve of the gown of the Scarlet Woman—waved in the face of those American denominations which have been bred in the belief that the Pope is the Man of Sin, that Son of Perdition. Fully as exasperating, we fear, will be the Archbishop's statement that no one who knows Messrs. Taft and Root and Roosevelt could imagine either of them would "do aught to detach the inhabitants [of the Philippines] from the Catholic faith." What, then, is to be said to the missionary societies which have been enthusiastically sending men and money to Manila? The Rev. Dr. Brown of the Presbyterian Board recently published a missionary report on the Philippines in which he spoke of the field there as one white for a Protestant harvest, the natives having only a "thin veneer" of Christianity, and being ready to repudiate their former religious teachers. Are our Protestant missionaries now to be told, on the authority of a Catholic Archbishop, that their labors in the Philippines are distasteful to the Administration?

We refer to these thickening religious difficulties in the Philippines not to rejoice over them, nor in the hope that they will prove insurmountable. They are one of the evils upon which our Philippine annexationists rushed blindly, though they were warned betimes. This friar question is a part of the legacy of trouble which President McKinley bequeathed to Mr. Roosevelt. With incredible lightness of heart and lack of foresight, our Peace Commissioners at Paris tied up our Government by a sweeping guarantee of the personal and property rights of the very men who had done most to drive the Filipinos to insurrection. That insurrection was going on very well, and was in a fair way to attain its great object in the expulsion of the religious orders; but we rashly bought it, and still more rashly agreed to make good the titles of what Archbishop Ireland happily calls "the landlord religious orders." With that treaty obligation resting upon us, there was nothing for it, if we were to stay in the islands, but some such adjustment as the President and Secretary Root have sought. Their course has been straightforward, and they have done their best to treat the whole question as one merely of government, not of religion. We ourselves do not know of a word or act of theirs in all this business which could fairly give offence to sensible people, whether Catholics or Protestants. They have honestly endeavored to maintain the American principle of the entire separation of Church and State. But religious prejudice was certain to be stirred up by this question of the friars, and it evidently has been, to an extent beyond the mollifying powers of Archbishop Ireland to quiet.

As we hear that our exposition of the legal status of the holdings of the religious orders in the Philippines has set some credulous people wondering if we were going to become cowled churchmen ourselves, it seems opportune to repeat what we have said dozens of times before. The evidence is to us conclusive that the Filipinos do not want the friars restored to their parishes. We are in favor of forcing upon the inhabitants neither religious ministers nor a form of government hateful to them. Purely as a governmental measure, it is much to be desired that the friars do not return to their provincial estates. This we have said again and again. But we have also said that justice must be done, and that our treaty obligations, even though irksome, even when taken upon ourselves thoughtlessly, must not be repudiated. We have, therefore, had no sympathy with those loose-tongued Americans who have said that the friars were a set of pestiferous interlopers who ought to be bundled out of the islands without ceremony; and it has seemed not a little ludicrous to us to suppose, as apparently the whole American press did, that the Vatican would waive, without any *quid pro quo*, and merely to oblige us, so clearly established a legal right as that we had bound ourselves to maintain in the case of the Philippine friars.

*THE MINING SITUATION.*

The strike among the anthracite coal-miners of Pennsylvania has reached a stage which is without precedent in the history of such struggles. That it has lasted considerably more than two months would alone render it a notable controversy, but what distinguishes it from previous troubles of the same sort is the refusal by practically all the employers to attempt the operation of their mines. There are, to be sure, rumors of preparations to resume work by one of the smaller operators, but the great companies still maintain their attitude of inaction. For the most part their representatives refuse any explanation of this course, although occasionally somebody curtly remarks that they do not try to mine coal because they do not think it to their advantage that they should attempt to resume work.

Meanwhile the price of coal has gone up to very high figures everywhere, and still higher prices are threatened within a week or two. Moreover, it seems clear that, even after the settlement of the strike, the cost of coal can and will be kept far above normal rates throughout the autumn and winter. In other words, everybody who uses coal and who did not put in a year's supply last spring, must suffer in pocket by reason of this labor controversy in the coal fields of Pennsylvania. The worst penalty will fall, as always happens in such cases, upon the poor of the cities, who have neither money nor space to store a large amount of fuel, and who must consequently buy in small quantities. With the steadily growing scarcity of hard coal, the public must also endure increasing discomfort and injury from the substitution of soft coal and the nuisances that follow in its train.

A new question is raised by the existing situation which invites discussion. An ordinary strike in any trade is a matter of only limited concern. If the building trades in Chicago, for example, are "tied up" by a dispute between employers and employed, only a portion of the people in one city are affected. Even such a strike as that of the steel-workers, last

summer—important as that vast industry is—did not come home closely to a very large element of our population outside the workers immediately concerned. But coal is a necessity in so many kinds of business and in so many homes that a long-continued suspension of its production means discomfort and hardship to a host of people, from the very mouth of the closed mines to cities, towns, and villages many hundreds of miles away.

The public is deeply interested in the operation of the street-car system in any town. Under the tendency toward consolidation of local transportation companies, a single company in more than one large city practically controls the operation of all the lines. A suspension of operations by that company involves a dislocation of the whole industrial movement throughout the city. A franchise for a street-car line always requires the holder to run cars over it, and the whole right may be forfeited by a company's refusal to furnish the promised accommodations to the public. A strike may break out, and the company may think that its employees have made demands so unreasonable that they ought to be forced into coming back upon the company's terms; but it is legally bound—and it can easily be held to the obligation—without delay to hire new men and set them at work, on whatever terms it can make. The public insists that the street-cars shall run.

The Pennsylvania Railroad is bound by law to transport passengers and freight between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Its franchise requires that it shall furnish the public reasonable accommodation in the matter. If all its present engineers, firemen, and trainhands should strike to-day, it would be under compulsion to make every possible effort to man passenger and freight trains with capable new men as soon as it found that it could not make terms with the old ones. The present employees might demand higher pay than the company would feel warranted in paying, but unless an amicable adjustment of the controversy could be promptly reached, the company would have to hire new men as fast as it could find those who could safely be trusted. The public would insist that trains should be run.

The mining of coal in Pennsylvania is of immensely more importance to the people of the United States than the running of the street-cars in Philadelphia, or the operation of passenger and freight trains between the two chief cities of the State. Users of anthracite coal throughout the country are dependent upon Pennsylvania in this matter, which means that they are dependent upon those who operate the mines in that State. To all intents and purposes, people in New Jersey, New York, New England, and other sections have an interest in the normal production of coal at the Pennsylvania mines, quite as real and as vital as though those mines were in their own vicinity. In other words, here is a case where many millions of people elsewhere have a common concern with the residents of the Keystone State.

We suppose that at present neither the State of Pennsylvania nor the general public outside that State has any means of bringing legal pressure to bear upon the great operators who control the mining of coal so that they shall resume production on the best terms they can make with whatever men they can employ. Apparently the representatives of the powerful corporations concerned can refuse to grant the demands of their former employees, and also refrain as long as they like from trying to work the mines with new men. If they think that, in the long run, their own interests will be promoted by keeping the mines closed, starving their former miners into surrender, and breaking up the union organization, there seems to be no legal weapon available for bringing them to terms.

There is one weapon, however, which can be used against them. Public opinion may be brought to bear. The mining of coal should be resumed. The operators ought to man their mines as fully as they possibly can by employing all fit men whose services can be secured. The authorities are bound to furnish them all needed protection, and they should demand it. It will be wise for the corporations affected to heed public sentiment in this matter. The public may not have any legal means of bringing such offenders to terms now, but he knows little of the temper of the American people who supposes that they will permanently permit a small group of men to keep them from having on reasonable terms the fuel which is essential to daily human comfort.

## *DIRECT NOMINATIONS.*

We have received a circular urging in strenuous terms the merits of the direct-nomination system for party primaries. From this circular we learn that an organized effort will be immediately begun to secure the adoption of this system in New York, through an appeal to the next Legislature to enact a direct-nomination law. The movement lends a new interest to the discussion of this subject, which is now attracting wide attention in the Middle West, notably in Wisconsin, where the direct primary is one of the chief issues of the State campaign just opening.

It is quite clear that reform in the method of nominating party candidates is a step which logically follows the establishment of a ballot that is practically honest and a count that is practically fair. A decade and a half ago, practical reformers were devoting themselves to securing beneficial changes in the ballot systems of the various States. In 1888 Massachusetts adopted the secret ballot, modelled after the Australian system, and, in the year following, eight other States enacted similar laws. The two essentials of the new system were secrecy of voting and complete official supervision and control of the ballot. The popularity of the reform was instantly established, and, in the comparatively brief period since this beginning was made, State after State has fallen into line, until now the secret ballot, with absolute official supervision and control, is the rule in almost every section of the Union.

With this reform, wherever it was adopted in good faith, practical purity of the ballot was established. Intimidation did not cease, of course, nor violence, nor fraudulent practices of the grosser sort; but there was no more voting in "blocks of five," and no more wholesale purchasing of votes; ballot-box stuffing became rather a tradition than a practice, and successful trading was rendered well-nigh impossible.

Probably the extreme reformers of those times supposed that, when their end was gained, a free expression of the people's will would result from every election. It is quite easy to fancy them speaking in terms fully as extravagant as those used by the writer of the direct-nomination circular which we have in hand, when he declares that "it is universally admitted that the primary system as it at present exists, is *responsible for all of the political evils found in our municipal governments.*" But when the secret ballot was established, those who had held extravagant views of the results likely to follow were disappointed. It was seen that between the people and a full and free expression of their will still stood the bosses, panoplied with the machinery of caucus and convention. Public sentiment, aroused by exposures of extensive election frauds, had brought about the reform of the election laws. Public sentiment now began to demand supervision of the nominating machinery.

The agitation in this State was quite as widespread and quite as effective as elsewhere. In 1890 the secret ballot was adopted, and other reforms followed, notably the separation of State and municipal elections, by the new Constitution adopted in 1894. In 1898 the demand for the regulation of party as well as of election machinery found its first real expression in the laws of New York, and this was followed by important amendments in 1899, establishing the present system of the open enrolment and the open primary, regulated by law and supervised by legally constituted officials.

Meantime another system, more radical in its nature, was devised in the West, and was enacted into law in Minnesota, with the restriction that it should

at first apply only to Hennepin County, which includes Minneapolis. This was in 1898, the same year that we began our primary reform. The aim was to abolish the party caucus or convention altogether, and to do the nominating at the primary. Candidates for party nominations declared themselves at a certain period before the primary. Official ballots for each party, each ballot containing the names of all the prospective candidates of that party, were prepared at public expense. On entering the primary, a voter was handed a ballot of each party. In the secret booth he selected the party ballot which he wished to vote, indicated his choice among the candidates thereon, and returned the other party ballot unused, voting the one of his choice. The law had its first trial in September, 1900.

The result was at the time considered satisfactory, even inspiring. The circular which we have received describes it as an "unqualified success." Nevertheless, a very bad man, as it has turned out, was nominated for Mayor by the Republicans and was elected. It is now alleged that the nomination, even, was obtained by fraud. At any rate, the municipal administration placed in power as a result of the election of that year has recently collapsed in exposure and disgrace. The law was amended by the last Legislature so as to prevent voters of one party from intruding upon the party of another. The direct-nomination system proposed by the dominant Republican faction in Wisconsin is modelled after this Minnesota system. It was strongly advocated, two years ago, when Gov. La Follette was elected, and the Legislature undertook to pass a measure aiming in this direction, but the result was not satisfactory to the Governor, and he vetoed the bill.

As to the worth of the system, it is yet too early to speak with certainty. The result in Minnesota has thus far wholly failed to fulfil the promises of its advocates. As evidence that the people everywhere are demanding with increasing force to be permitted to conduct their government without the intervention of political bosses, the agitation is undoubtedly encouraging. But, granted reasonable safeguards, it must always be true that the spirit of the people is more important than the system. There are some questions about the direct primary which are yet to be answered. One of them is: How could a poor man conduct his preliminary contest for a nomination, with the prospect of another expensive contest for election to follow? Perhaps this and other questions may be satisfactorily answered, and perhaps it may be wise to adopt the direct-nomination system. But even then it must be the spirit and activity of the voters, rather than the system, which will prevent the evils of control by the bosses.

## *THE HISTORICAL NOVEL AGAIN.*

This subject, which has been considered from pretty nearly all possible points of view, receives additional illumination through a recent study, 'A Guide to the Best Historical Novels and Tales,' by Jonathan Nield. Mr. Nield has simply tabulated several hundred historical novels according to the period in which their scenes are laid. Without raising the question whether his table of "best" novels was compiled "somewhere east of Suez, where the best is like the worst," every reader of historical fiction will admit the convenience of an arrangement by which one may see at a glance the periods of history that novelists have chosen or neglected.

Naturally, the novels decrease as the period becomes more remote from the present day, for two reasons: first, the difficulty of finding documentary material in sufficient abundance; second, the complete indifference of the readers of historical fiction to any but what may be called the fashionable periods of history. Thus, it is not surprising to find that the entire pre-Christian era has supplied the setting for only eighteen novels, while the century just elapsed has inspired one hundred and forty novels of the historical category.

The space allotted to each century very regularly expands or diminishes according to the familiarity of its history to the average reader. The early Christians are characters in seventeen novels, a figure that is not approached again until the century which saw the Norman conquest. The low-water mark is the eighth century, which is saved from oblivion only by G. Griffin's 'The Invasion,' 1832, and here we remark that it is most surprising that the novelists have let Charlemagne—favorite of the mediæval *jongleurs*—severely alone, though Mr. Nield really should not have omitted under this head Mr. Arthur Sherburne Hardy's charming 'Passe Rose.' The renowned name of King Alfred carries the ninth century to eleven numbers—a figure which might be considerably increased by the inclusion of novels occasioned by the recent jubilee.

The Middle Ages are reasonably covered by the novelists, though still in a fortuitous way. The twelfth century, for example, has twelve novels, mostly concerning the Plantagenets, while the thirteenth century presents as many as seventeen, but all of appalling obscurity. Chaucer's century comes off ill with twenty-seven items, few of which are readable by any man who values his time or his pleasure. The fifteenth century, with fifty-two novels to its credit, and many excellent ones, is the middle ground between the period where the novel is more or less a waif and a stray, and that in which it asserts a kind of proprietorship; and before entering the very lair of this genre, it should be said that the comparative neglect of the earlier periods by novelists disposes, once for all, of the kindly theory that the historical novel is a passable substitute for history. In every case history is the least of it, and the story is the thing.

With the sixteenth century the historical novel is under full sail, the courses being traced by Scott and Dumas. As the seventeenth century adds gallantry and intrigue to heroism, the figure rises from one hundred and nine to one hundred and seventy. Everybody has had his try at Mazarin and Richelieu, except those who have preferred Buckingham and the Stuarts. In the eighteenth century the Jacobite plots, the American Revolution, and the French aid to carry the index to one hundred and ninety-seven—the high-water mark.

From this dry, but necessary, enumeration it appears that, when we speak of historical fiction, we mean—with a few notable exceptions, including Flaubert, Pater, and Scott—that fiction which finds its subject in the centuries from the sixteenth to the present day, corresponding thus very closely to the periods which historians call renaissance and modern. The reasons for this state of things are not far to seek. It is these centuries which have been admirably treated by Scott and Dumas; and a vast amount of the writing about the Valois, the Stuarts, and the Revolutionists must be set down to imitation, conscious or unconscious, of these masters. It is clear that since these great pioneers the historical novelists have been, in the main, of a very sheeplike habit. They have hardly succeeded, as did both Scott and Dumas, in popularizing remote and unfamiliar periods, but have been content to follow these models only where their successes lay within the range of association of the average reader, although here the American colonial novels are laudable as an attempt, if not as an accomplishment. As a class, however, the writers of historical fiction show a certain lack of enterprise, in which respect, at least, they compare unfavorably with the analytical novelists, or even the amateurs of local color.

On the other side, we should hear Mr. A. T. Quiller-Couch, who writes in a recent Monday *causerie*.

> "A novelist, like any other artist, has to start by taking certain things for granted; and by hoisting (so to speak) a placard at the back of the stage—'England, Seventeenth Century,' or 'France, Reign of Terror'—he gets on terms with his audience at once, sparing himself a vast labor of invention and sparing them much preliminary boredom."

This may be admitted, and yet the practice of hoisting the placard pretentiously behind very ordinary melodrama be reprehended. Assuredly, the novelist must in the main count upon the associations already existing in his reader's mind; to a few only is it given to create associations; but that teller of fairy tales who merely rung the changes upon the

traditional "Once upon a time" would find small favor among intelligent children.

### *WHY DO MEN WRITE BOOKS?*

The mysterious working of the impulse to literary production has again been discussed in connection with the recent death of the most learned man in England, and perhaps in all Europe. Lord Acton was apparently a born author. The acquisitive hunger was strong upon him from youth. To the end of his life he worked at least eight hours a day, so that his minute and accurate yet wide-ranging knowledge was the astonishment of those who knew its vast stores. But he published almost nothing. The one man who could best have written, for example, a history of the Middle Ages, left behind him only a huge library of annotated books, and heaps upon heaps of careful notes, to show what he might have done. The stimulus to produce was somehow wanting.

In discussing the case, the *Spectator* thinks that Lord Acton may be regarded as an example of the "reticence of learning." Yet all learning is not reticent. Let a man add to his learning a strong hortatory or reforming instinct, and he is the very one to set the world right in forty volumes. The Duke of Argyll was of this type. His page was as voluminous as Sheridan said privately that he had characterized Gibbon's—though he was understood in his speech to say "luminous." Gladstone was another whom a sort of combative passion drove to profuse writing. He could not sit in calm indifference in the presence of "the feverish volubility of ignorance." Bagehot long ago described the irresistible way in which Gladstone would be driven by the expression of perverse or mistaken opinion to try to correct it on the spot. "Let me get at the crooked reasoner, and I can persuade him of the truth." That motive agitating a learned breast will cleanse it of no end of printed perilous stuff. Lord Acton was not a meagre producer simply on account of the weight of much learning. Too nice and exhaustive scholarship may, indeed, lay a kind of paralysis upon the productive faculties; yet this comes about not through modesty, or a superior Olympian indifference to vulgar error, but through a haunting dread of not having reached the ultimate filament of truth in any given investigation. Like Mr. Brooke in 'Middlemarch,' the scholar must "pull up" somewhere in his collection of material if he is ever going to become a writer.

We are forced to fall back, we imagine, upon some hidden and unaccountable spring of activity in the writer of books, when we ask why he, rather than another, actually wrote them. It is not learning; it is not money or the lack of it, fame or the hope of it or contempt for it; it is not inheritance or opportunity, which tells the whole story. Heaven knows that it is not a conscious ability to instruct or amuse which lies behind the making of many books. Take two men of equal education, similar social status, kindred tastes, equivalent talents—what fate is it that makes one a victim of the writer's madness, and allows the other to go scot free? We cannot tell. It seems to be one of the ultimate mysteries. The pen scratches, or the typewriter clicks, where it listeth. The man who writes can give no real explanation except that he sings as do the linnets; while the Miltons who remain mute and inglorious can only say that the numbers did *not* come.

It is agreed, of course, in this age of special privileges to none, that one man is as antecedently likely as another to produce books. One good novel, it is common to say, lies in every human experience. Nay, if what Gray wrote to Walpole is true, "any fool may write a most valuable book by chance, if he will only tell us what he heard and saw with veracity." This being so, what is the magic touch, the slight disturbance of brain-stuff, which makes one fool write and another stay his pen? Pecuniary motives are much invoked in current explanations of the mystery. Yet the part which money plays in the production of literature is too uncertain and contradictory to make us attach much literary value to the jingling of the guinea. The possession of an independent fortune may appear to stimulate, or may seem to stifle, literary productiveness, and you can never tell which it will do. The "spur of poverty" may incite to a Pegasus flight, or may drive the hard-ridden hack to bolting the literary road altogether. Even the dignity and propriety of the pecuniary motive are in dispute. Hawthorne said he would never have written a page except for pay. Motley thought that it was all up with a writer when he began to consider the money he was to receive. But Hawthorne needed the money to live on, while Motley had a father and uncle to back him in his literary labors.

It will have been seen that we have no wisdom to bring to the solution of the puzzle why men write books. We have, however, two practical suggestions to offer. One of them is that any man who feels the stirring of the *cacoethes scribendi* in his bosom ought to study it conscientiously, to decide whether the prompting comes from a good or evil dæmon. He can see that many others have mistakenly thought they were called to be writers; why should he add to the number of books which might better never have been born? We think it time that the reticence of ignorance were urged as a duty, as well as the reticence of learning praised. Then we should also heartily approve the plan recently proposed of paying authors for the poor books they might have written, but refrained from producing. If Mr. Carnegie would see to financing this method of rewarding literary merit, he would have to provide, we are sure, less library room for books which arouse no question so urgent as that why on earth they were ever written.

### *THE APPRAISAL OF LITERATURE.*

Although we have not placed the above title within quotation-marks, the phrase is one which connotes, or ought to connote, the name of Mr. George Iles. It is true that Mr. S. S. Green and others have sought, by various means, to prevent a well-intentioned public from seeking its information and ideas in worthless or trifling books; but of systematic "appraisal" on a large scale Mr. Iles is the great apostle. With words of conviction which have been accompanied by a notable generosity of purse, he has proclaimed for years the need of furnishing counsel with books, of assisting the reader by a note, of placing the expert at the elbow of the beginner. To the days when he was more or less a *vox clamantis* we need not now revert. At present he finds his warmest support within the ranks of the libraries themselves; he can point to several short bibliographies that have been brought out in pursuance of his views; and, through the recently published 'Literature of American History,' he can illustrate more fully than at any previous date the main articles of his belief.

The appearance of this work, to which an eminent editor and forty qualified contributors have set their hands, furnishes a reasonable ground for the discussion of Mr. Iles's project to annotate the literary output of the modern world. The subject can be approached in the most practical way by a reference to the spread of public libraries. Were it not for the existence of so many well-endowed institutions which have for their object the free and universal diffusion of literature, we doubt whether the appraisal scheme would as yet have passed beyond the academic stage. No men in the world are more impressed with a sense of their duty towards the public than the librarians. It is the whole aim of their profession to help the reader. The doors of the library are thrown open wide. Books are loaned to applicants from a distance as well as to residents of the town. A vast amount of thought and care is lavished upon the ever-recurring problem of liberality versus security. Thus, from morning to the mid-watches of the night, a good librarian is constantly excogitating devices for making his collection serviceable to all mankind.

Into the stack pours a hodge-podge of books to be used by the masses for their amusement, as in the case of fiction, or for their enlightenment in the different branches of knowledge. The catalogue introduces some order, but its function stops short with advertisement and classification. To be sure, the reading-room officials may put an ignoramus in the way of learning the elements of bibliography, but their time is so taxed that they can do little for each individual. Knowing how mixed his books are in point of quality, and how much the efficiency of the whole de-

pends upon the circulation of the best, the conscientious librarian is afflicted with deep searchings of heart. It is not a question of censorship or even of advice; but merely one of information. Good, bad, and indifferent stand side by side with their various allurements of title, print, binding, and illustration. Then in comes the "general reader" upon whom all this cost of fabric, endowment, and administration is lavished. He looks around at the shelves or into the catalogue, and possibly he asks a question at the desk; but when he makes his choice of the three caskets, the chances are considerably against him.

So much for the main consideration which gives the appraisal scheme its popularity. Yet here, as everywhere, there are objections. In the first place, a mining engineer does not give his report for nothing—and the value of an edition is often greater than that of a mine. In the second place, criticism varies just as much in its quality as bookmaking does. Into the matter of expense we shall not enter, for that is not the essential question. If Mr. Iles's propaganda succeeds in moulding the best opinion, money will pour forth for this, as for every other, branch of library development. We approach the crux of the situation when we ask, "Is it practicable to secure such judgments of books as will really be useful to large masses of readers?" Unless large masses are aided, the scheme must fall to the ground, because otherwise the game would not be worth the candle.

In our opinion the business of appraisal deserves to be organized and put on a permanent basis, if only two conditions are observed. Annotation should be restricted to certain classes of books, and the very best critics should be enlisted. As to the first of these conditions, it may be pointed out that 'Herod' and 'Virginibus Puerisque' and 'Kim' cannot have a value placed upon them in ten or twenty lines even if we admit that such productions can be given their due rank by immediate contemporaries. There would seem, indeed, to be a pretty clear distinction between imaginative literature and the literature which deals with what is matter of knowledge. In the case of poetry, fiction, and the highest class of essays less, certainly, can be done by the brief directive note than in cases where the subject falls within the realm of science. Mr. James Douglas, for example, might be justified in speaking dogmatically about a book on the metallurgy of copper, whereas no literary critic could speak with the same degree of confidence concerning the latest batch of sonnets. It might be found possible to convey information which would prove important to the tyro in pure literature through a semi-bibliographical or historical note, but to pass summary judgment on novels and poems is quite another thing. Where one is reading for amusement or the gratification of his æsthetic sense, he will follow his own taste and can hardly be brought up on the sheltered plan. Moreover, a vast body of technical literature, which the beginner could not understand or use, would lie outside the range of appraisal.

But, after we have restricted the field by limiting the definition, enough remains to satisfy even a strong believer in the theory of evaluation. There are still popular science, geography, many branches of history, and, in general, all those classes of books which are likely to exert a wide influence by supplying the facts whereon private judgment will eventually rest. We believe that a distinct service might be rendered to a large number of readers if the best specialists could be induced to look with favor upon Mr. Iles's scheme and to lend their aid. Brief though it must be, the purpose of a directive note is at least two-fold. The critic should give information about the book, indicating its scope, the nature of its contents, and the relative importance of its different parts. He should also set up some standard of comparison by which its merits or shortcomings may be made known. Of course, he should be strictly impersonal, and shun with the most scrupulous sense of honor this opportunity for enforcing his own views, unless he knows that, where there is room for reasonable difference of opinion, the opposite view will be given due representation. Over many such details difficulties will arise, and the best type of note can be evolved only after some experiment. At the same time these obstacles would not be insuperable if by financial inducement or an appeal to public spirit the students and critics of highest standing could be made the sole contributors.

One great point of advantage which such an annotated bibliography would have over Allibone springs from its unity of conception. Each note would be part of a well-modelled whole, and each would be complete in itself rather than a fragment wrested from a long article. We all know how useful are bibliographies like 'Best Books' and 'The Reader's Guide.' Following the appraisal idea, works of a much more elaborate and satisfactory character than these would soon be produced—to the great convenience of many in every town where a public library exists. The judgments pronounced would carry immense weight if they came from the highest recognized authorities and bore the sanction of the American Library Association. On this account they should be free from pure dogmatism and penned with a grave sense of responsibility. Otherwise, a source of authority might be created that would do more harm than good.

The 'Literature of American History,' of which Mr. J. N. Larned is editor, represents the most complete expression up to the present of Mr. Iles's ideal. Although rather too many of the notes are drawn from reviews which have been written with another purpose, the work has true unity of design, and although some *obiter dicta* may be discovered, they do not form a serious blemish. But we must defer closer criticism. It is the fate of this book to be rapidly read out of its covers in the large libraries—an honorable distinction which it well deserves. More important still, it is not unlikely to help forward Mr. Iles's plans for a wider appraisal of literature, by the force of a successful example.

## A FRENCHMAN'S DIARY IN OUR CIVIL-WAR TIME.—III.

January 7, 1865.—From New York to Washington, being ferried across the Susquehanna, full of floating ice. Called on Charles Sumner; went up to the Capitol. Sumner took me to the White House to call on Lincoln, saying, "You will see Saint Louis under the oak of Vincennes." We entered a large room, very simply furnished, in which a dozen persons were seated awaiting their turn. On the walls, maps were hung over the fireplace, and a portrait of President Jackson, whose hard and shrunken face bore the imprint of great energy; on the mantelpiece was a photograph of John Bright. Through two great windows I saw a white streak of the Potomac, the Virginia heights, the unfinished Washington obelisk. Between the windows was a desk, at which the President was seated. He did not heed our entering, being absorbed in a communication which some one was making to him. After this visitor came a woman, asking that her husband, a soldier in the regular army, be allowed to return to her. "Let me help you," said Lincoln; and he questioned her with the method and clearness of a lawyer. Against the white light of the window his angular profile stood out in shadow; his hand, frequently passed through his hair, raised it in disorderly tufts. While he spoke, all the muscles of his face were in motion; his voice had an almost paternal gentleness. "I cannot," he said finally, "grant your request," adding with a strange laugh, "I can disband all the Union armies, but I cannot send a single soldier home. Only the colonel of his regiment can do that for your husband." The woman complained of her poverty: "Never have I suffered so much." "Madam," replied Lincoln, changing the tone of his voice and with a measured solemnity, "I sympathize in your disappointment; but consider that all of us, in every part of the country, are to-day suffering what we have never suffered." He then bent towards her, wrote some words on a paper, handed it to the entreating woman, and dismissed her.

Next in turn came a young man who, approaching the President, but without sitting down, said to him: "I have only come to shake hands with Abraham Lincoln." "Much obliged, sir," said Lincoln, stretching out his large hand.

Perceiving Mr. Sumner, he beckons to him, and I am presented. Lincoln extends his hand, and after a brief exchange of courtesies our visit comes to an end.

We then directed our steps to Mr. Seward. The Secretary of State is much more inaccessible than the President. His photographs had not conveyed to me an exact idea of this subtle face, these small, inquisitive eyes, hid beneath gray brows, which seem ever to be searching out the inmost thought of his interlocutor. He read deliberately the two letters from the Comte de Paris and the Prince de Joinville which I brought him, and conversation began rather laboriously. Sumner turned it on the letters published in the London *Times* by "Historicus" (Vernon Harcourt), touching delicate points of international law. "It is sometimes a good thing," said Seward, "not to know too much of it. We have a solid enough base when we stick to general principles. I am not much afraid of precedents; England furnishes us a rich mine in comparison with what she can find over here."

January 8.—Religious service by Dr. Channing, nephew of the celebrated Channing, whose congregation meets at the Capitol in the Representatives' chamber. After the singing of hymns, Dr. Channing delivers a sermon in which he contrives to introduce

Laboulaye, Gasparin, Guizot, Goldwin Smith, John Bright, Sumner, Garrison, and George Thompson. In the course of the day I called with Sumner on the foreign Ministers.

In the evening at Mr. Seward's, who was in a very genial mood and conversed freely. He told me that in 1833 he went to see Lafayette at La Grange. The latter, who had just fallen out with Louis Philippe, predicted that the new dynasty would survive only eighteen years. "Would he were there to-day," said I, "to make as accurate predictions!" "You have," answered Seward, "a revolutionary cycle in France. When, in England, I saw Queen Victoria and her children, the idea never occurred to me that anything could disturb the future of that family and the order of succession [this was uttered with a smile intended for Mr. Rose, the Canadian delegate, then in Washington]. At Compiègne, when the Empress presented her young son to me, I kissed him on the forehead, thinking that if his father should die, his only portion would be exile." "It is not my judgment," he continued, "that the Emperor is hostile to us. It seems to me that I could bring him over." And again: "In France you appear to me to have four parties—Legitimists, Orleanists, Republicans, and Bonapartists. Under each government the beaten parties coalesce against the more fortunate rival."

January 9.—Visited the Supreme Court, Chase Chief Justice with seven associates. In the Senate, while chatting with Sumner on a sofa, Senator Powell, ex-Governor of Kentucky, came up and said to Sumner: "When will you accept delivery of the twenty-five niggers I've been offering you for three years? I will pay their travelling expenses. Your bill [the bill under discussion emancipated the wives and children of blacks enrolled in the army] is going to make more unfortunates—as if you had not made enough already. You are a handful of fanatics engaged in destroying the country. It is very nice of you still to talk about the Constitution; why not frankly trample it under foot?" He went on for a long time in this strain, with frequent interruptions of his wrath to eject a yellow saliva on the carpet. Sumner listened to him without a word. When Powell had retired, "That," he said, "is what I have had to bear for years. From the manner in which they treat us when in power, you may guess what it used to be."

Evening reception at the White House. Mr. and Mrs. Lincoln, Sumner, Seward.

January 10.—Soirée at Senator Harris's (of New York). Trumbull, Sprague.

January 11.—In the evening, called with my wife on Mrs. Lincoln. Her language now and again betrayed her humble origin, but she said nothing indiscreet or out of place. There was some very critical talk of General Butler, but she was very diplomatic. She spoke becomingly of an old female friend now a flaming secessionist. Of the soldiers she spoke, quite unconsciously, as a Princess might have done: "In our public ceremonies, what I always like to see best is our dear blue-coats."

January 12.—Drove to Arlington with Mrs. Hooker and Miss Motley, crossing the Potomac at Georgetown. On the Virginia side there is a pretty steep ascent of the heights on which the Army of the Potomac was so long encamped. The ground we traversed formerly belonged to Mrs. Washington; before the war, to Gen. Lee. Lee's house is small and dilapidated. It commands an admirable view. From the portico, Washington determined the plan of the Capitol of the United States.

Visited the freedmen's village on Arlington Heights.

In the evening, dined at Seward's with Sumner and Farragut. The service was of Sèvres, presented to Seward by Prince Napoleon.

January 13.—Mrs. Lincoln drove us through the suburbs. From the Soldiers' Home the prospect is even finer than at Arlington. In the evening, with Mr. and Mrs. Lincoln and Charles Sumner, we went to the theatre direct from the White House. There was no private entrance to the proscenium boxes, and we had to pass behind the spectators in the galleries. The double box we occupied was very spacious, but so plainly furnished that they had not taken the trouble to cover with velvet or cloth the front planking, but had just tacked some red velvet on the rail. The play was "King Lear," with Forrest in the leading rôle. His part was fairly well rendered, but with too much exaggeration. The rest of the troupe was wretched. The President listened very attentively. He seemed extremely familiar with Shakspere, and in several places remarked on the changes made in performance. His boy of eleven was beside him, and the father often clasped him very tenderly, as the child leaned his head upon his shoulder; and when the little fellow, as he often did, asked for explanations, Lincoln invariably made answer, "My child, it is in the play." When the traitor was thrust through with a sword, Lincoln said: "I have only one reproach to make of Shakspere's heroes—that they make long speeches when they are killed."

## THE EXCAVATION OF CORINTH.

OFF THE COAST OF DALMATIA,
June 25, 1902.

It is from no mere desire to exploit an enterprise in which I happen to be interested, but from a sense of duty towards the American public, that I have from time to time given in the columns of the *Nation* information concerning the progress of the excavations carried on at Corinth since 1896 by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens.

Last year I omitted my usual letter, because our results were not important. In fact, in my report of that year to the Managing Committee of the School, I frankly admitted that we had for the first time suffered a defeat. While holding to the principle that a war is not lost by the failure of a single campaign, I entered upon the campaign of the present year with the conviction that it would either be the last, or would show that our work would have to go on and perhaps take larger proportions than ever. The latter has proved to be the case.

It would be an overstatement to say that last year's work was an *absolute* failure. In excavations like ours, a negative result is, after all, worth something as a guide, telling us where not to dig. We happened to choose a part of the Agora which proved to be empty, and to uncover which involved the removing of an enormous quantity of earth that contained nothing of interest. But we found a considerable number of inscriptions, both Latin and Greek, of the Roman city, two statue bases inscribed with the name of Lysippus, as well as a considerable quantity of Proto-Corinthian bases, mostly in fragments. We also found part of a line of vaulted chambers on the south side of the Temple hill (similar to that found in 1898 on the east side, bordering the street leading from the Agora towards Lechæum), with remains of a stylobate of a porch thrown out in front of them, as in the east-side system. To say nothing of the fact that we cleared the Temple foundations of all the earth covering them, we got one positive result in the last three days of the campaign in the discovery of the stumps of two Doric columns resting on a stylobate. These pointed out a hopeful place for beginning work this year.

We began early in order to push matters to a conclusion, and had the longest campaign of all that we have had, from the beginning of March to June 14. The columns just mentioned proved to belong to the front line of a Greek portico running east and west back of the vaulted chambers found last year, as long as the well-known stoa of Attolos at Athens, over 100 metres long. Its breadth was so great that it was provided with an interior line of columns of the Ionic order, with intercolumniations twice as great as those of the Doric columns at the front. At its back the rock of the temple hill was cut away to make room for it. It had perhaps already been destroyed when the Roman vaulted chambers were built in front of it, inasmuch as there is an interval of only about three feet between its front and their back line. But stumps of the Doric columns remain all along the line, with here and there one lacking. Of the Ionic columns we have for the most part only the bases and capital. Enough remains of the Doric capitals and entablature to allow a restoration of the whole on paper. The architrave and triglyphon are in every case composed of a single block. The cornice blocks bear a great deal of paint on their under sides.

When we had uncovered about fifty metres of the east end of the portico, it became impracticable to carry the earth to our railroad, which had been stopped by intervening walls; and to find the dimensions of our portico we tapped the line of its front stylobate farther west, then tunnelled for a space, and then tapped again, until at last we found the end imbedded in a mass of late masonry. The uncovering will have to be completed next year by bringing the track to this west end and securing dumping privileges in this quarter. But to secure dumping privileges, "there's the rub."

As far as we did clear the portico, we also cleared back of it, following the slope of the bed rock up to the temple. We did the same back of the east line of chambers, the north end of which we excavated completely, ascertaining its extent, and found that there were eighteen chambers in all. In this part of the work we found another Greek stoa of larger dimensions than that already described on the south side of the hill, but much more broken up, only one column being found *in situ*. The Romans probably broke it up when they laid out their system in front of it and lower down. Back of the Greek stoa and much higher up the hill is the stylobate of a late Roman or Byzantine stoa, which

probably coexisted with the Roman chambers with their porch at the front. Porch above porch must have given this side of the Temple hill a fine aspect from Pirene and the Lechæum road. The whole area between this upper stoa and the back of the vaulted chambers was filled up to make a broad area for circulation of the populace.

Our excavation back of the Roman systems and to a much deeper level in front of the corner where they approach each other at the southeast, brought a rich reward in single finds. Old Corinthian and Proto-Corinthian pottery in abundance, measured by bushels; terracotta figurines, some of them extremely archaic, and at the same time finely wrought; several old Greek inscriptions, one of them at least as old as the sixth century, and in the local Corinthian alphabet; two hundred terracotta lamps with interesting representations and inscriptions on them, ranging from the sixth century B. C. to the fifth century A. D., most of them found in a large water conduit which ran about fifteen feet below the south-side porch—all these are far from making a complete catalogue of our finds.

But it is, after all, the parts of the ancient city now laid bare to the inspection of the modern world that constitute the real success of our undertaking. Corinth now claims attention as a place that must be visited as must Olympia and Delphi. Six years ago it seemed to many as hopeless to attempt to find Greek Corinth under the modern, the Byzantine, and the Roman Corinth, as it would be now to try to find Greek Byzantium under the modern Stambul. But we were singularly fortunate in getting upon the track of Pansanias at once. In the first campaign we found the Theatre; in the second, Pirene; in the third we found the Agora and the fountain Glauke, and gave the correct name of Temple of Apollo to the venerable ruin, the only landmark of ancient Corinth up to 1896. After that we ceased to be under heavy obligations to Pausanias, and in our work of this year we could give him points. We have been dealing with things that were already underground at the time of his visit.

Our work in the Theatre in 1896 was of value chiefly as giving us the necessary starting-point in the topography. We found the cavea in an absolutely ruinous condition, and decided to let the Theatre lie while we grappled with the more interesting region east of the Temple. But it had always troubled my conscience that we had made no serious examination of the stage building. This year we dug a trench from what appeared to be the centre of the orchestra, at right angles to the supposed line of the stage. As a result, we found so many walls all running at right angles to our trench, that we hardly knew what to make of them. When we reached virgin soil at a depth of about eight metres, our trench, which was six metres wide at the top, was narrowed down to about two metres, and we could not move to the right or left without going beyond the limits of a tentative excavation. But it now seems clear that the orchestra and stage ought to be thoroughly cleared. The walls which we found probably belong to two stage buildings, the Greek and the Roman. In our trench we found a great quantity of marble fragments, mostly architectural; other pieces seemed to belong to a large medallion containing a head of Medusa in high relief. In addition to these fragments there was found at the very bottom of the trench a marble head of a youth, which is not only the best head found at Corinth, but is a real prize, and would be an ornament to any museum. Close beside it was a piece of marble inscribed thus:

Σ ΑΘΗΝΑΙΟΣ ΕΠΟΙΗΣΕ

It is unfortunate that of the artist's name only the last letter, and that a sigma, survives.

It will be seen, then, that our future work is prescribed for us in two places. It would be a thousand pities to turn over work of this kind at this stage to another nation. There is no question that somebody will do it. Although I have not been able to make a large plan and carry it out as I could have done had I had a large fund put at my disposal at the outset, yet I have no more right to complain of my support than of the results. Men were thanked in ancient Rome "because they had not despaired of the Republic." I should like to thank the good men and women in America who have not despaired of this enterprise. At the head of the list I should put the name of the Hon. John Hay, who, in 1898, when we were in a tight place, grappling with Pirene, sent us £100 from London, not his first contribution, with the remark, "I am glad to be interested in your work to that extent." The late Benjamin T. Frothingham, Esq., of Brooklyn, who from the beginning sent in his contribution unsolicited, sent it this year when we were already in the field, with the remark, "I hope my contribution is not too late." I do not mention these as the largest contributors—they are not—but as showing the spirit in which the work is supported. It would hardly be befitting to parade here the names of the donors, which are given in the official reports of the School. Without trenching upon such a list I may add that Gen. William J. Palmer of Colorado Springs, on leaving Greece five days ago, put into my hands fifty pounds (not his first gift), as a nest-egg for next year. No question is more frequently asked me by foreigners visiting the excavations than: "What funds does your Government give you?" I reply, "That is not the American way. I depend on American men, and so far they have not failed me."

A whole generation of young men engaged in this work have by it become archæologists. It stirs interest to handle material which you take out of the ground yourself. As for myself, if I should live to be an octogenarian, I never expect to associate myself with so honorable an enterprise. RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

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## THE CHOISEULS.—II.

PARIS, July 18, 1902.

A short time after the death of Madame de Pompadour occurred an event of great importance—the expulsion of the Jesuits from France. Choiseul has been accused of having taken the initiative in this matter; not quite accurately, as he took sides against the celebrated society only after the Parlement had engaged in hostilities. That body ordered the Jesuits to present their *constitutions* for examination, and afterwards issued several judgments against them; finally, the Order was suppressed. The Jesuits had been expelled from Russia in 1719; in Portugal, in 1758, Pombal had taken Draconian measures against them, after an attempt which had been made on the life of the King of Portugal; in 1764 they had been turned out of Spain by Charles III. The powerful Company has survived all the attempts made against it. It has been said of its members, "They go out by the door, and return by the window." This persistence should be a lesson to those who resort to violent measures against any spiritual force.

The Society of Jesus had powerful friends at court, the Queen and the Dauphin in particular, and Choiseul became the object of their enmity. The place of a favorite was vacant, and Choiseul's adversaries tried to give it to a friend of the Jesuits, the Countess d'Esparbès. She was already on the point of being recognized (what was called *déclarée)*, when Choiseul intervened, threatening to leave his post of Prime Minister. He accompanied a letter to the King, in which he complained of all the intrigues of his enemies, with a long memoir, in which he recalled, not without some pride, all the acts of his ministry; he set forth the state of all the departments at the time when he was put at their head, and explained the situation in which he left them. After having read this memoir, the King sent for Choiseul and asked him to remain in power. Choiseul consented, without having many illusions as to the future. "Your Majesty," he said, "will have it so. I remain; but a time will come when, after all these marks of kindness, your Majesty will send me into exile." These words were prophetical. The same day Madame d'Esparbès received a *lettre de cachet*, which exiled her to Montauban, near her father, the Marquis de Lussan. The Jesuits had some hope that the Dauphin would obtain their recall; but he fell ill at Compiègne after some manœuvres, and died soon afterwards. His wife was not long in following him, and Choiseul's enemies did not hesitate to spread calumnious reports about these successive deaths; the word poison was pronounced, but it is absolutely certain that both the Dauphin and his wife died from natural causes.

It was in the year 1765 that Madame de Choiseul met Horace Walpole at the house of Madame du Deffand. All the readers of Walpole's charming letters know the pages in which are found portraits of those two ladies. Walpole was immediately drawn to Madame de Choiseul, but his sympathy, which was rather cold at first, became by degrees a real admiration, even a sort of enthusiasm. He was not so much charmed with the Duke, and found him rather too volatile. Towards the sister of the Duke, Madame de Gramont, he felt sentiments almost of hatred, and did not hesitate to give credence to the rumors which were current as to the nature of the relation of the brother and sister. In the curious collection of the drawings by Carmontelle of which I spoke lately, and which are preserved in the château of Chantilly, there is a very interesting one representing Madame du Deffand with Madame de Choiseul; they are beside each other in the chamber of the Convent of St. Joseph where Madame du Deffand lived. She is sitting, as usual,

in the sort of chair which was called a *tonneau;* the Duchess is standing and is offering her a doll, as is suitable for a "grandmother" visiting her "granddaughter." This drawing was sent to Walpole (Carmontelle generally made copies of his drawings), who was delighted; he found fault only with the likeness of Madame de Choiseul, but Madame du Deffand's likeness was pronounced perfect.

The Duchess de Choiseul spent some months every year at Chanteloup, a place she had bought and where she found rest after the agitation of court life. We have some letters which she wrote from Chanteloup to her friend Madame du Deffand. In one of them (dated July 17, 1766) she gives her opinion of J. J. Rousseau, who was filling the world at the time with the noise of his quarrel with Voltaire. She speaks of Rousseau as

"a man always subjugated by his vanity, who has made himself singular in order to become famous, who has always denied himself the pleasure of gratitude in order to avoid the slightest obligation; who has preached to all nations, screaming to them, 'Hear, I am the oracle of truth; my odd manners are only the mark of my simplicity; I am the fabricator of virtue, the essence of justice.' . . . I have always distrusted this Rousseau, with his singular systems, his extraordinary accoutrement, and his pulpit eloquence transported to the housetops. He has always appeared to me a charlatan of virtue."

Some parts of this long letter, bearing on politics and on the foundation of good government, are curious enough if you remember that J. J. Rousseau afterwards became a demigod to the Terrorists of the French Revolution. Madame de Choiseul shows herself fully in one passage in this interesting letter. After her condemnation of J. J. Rousseau, she alludes to other hypocrites who affect timidity and modesty:

"I believe no more in these than in the first. Real virtue is more simple. She is unostentatious because she believes that she has not to be proud of anything; she conceals nothing because she does not think herself to be in view, and does not expect any praise. She is neither vain nor modest because she is simple, and she is simple because she is true."

Madame de Choiseul's letters to her friend are admirable for their good sense and their reason. "Do you know why you are so *ennuyée?*" she inquires of Madame du Deffand, who was perpetually complaining of being bored; "it is precisely because of the pains which you take to prevent, to foresee, to combat this ennui. Live from day to day; take time as it comes."

There was so much wisdom in Madame de Choiseul that Madame du Deffand, old as she was, used to call her her "grandmamma," and Madame de Choiseul in turn called Madame du Deffand "my grandchild." Madame de Choiseul spoke her mind very freely to her friend. She once became incensed with Voltaire, who had dared to write these lines to Madame du Deffand on the subject of the Empress Catharine:

" I am her knight against everybody. I know very well that people reproach her for some bagatelles in the matter of her husband, but these are family affairs, which do not concern me; and then it is not bad that there should be a fault to repair."

The Duchess did not appreciate these ironical remarks of the philosopher:

"What!" says she; "Voltaire finds a subject of pleasantry in an assassination? And what an assassination! the murder of a sovereign by his subject, of a husband by his wife! This woman conspires against her husband and her sovereign; she takes from him his life and his empire in the most cruel manner; she becomes an usurper against her own son, and this is what Voltaire calls family quarrels."

Madame du Deffand had herself answered Voltaire in a less serious way:

"Never, sir, resist the temptation to write to me; you cannot imagine what good your letters do me. The last one especially had an admirable effect; it rid me of the spleen of which I was a victim. There is no *humeur noire* which could not be combated by the eulogy you make of your northern 'Semiramis.' Those bagatelles which people repeat regarding her husband, and with which you will not concern yourself, since they are family affairs, would make even the dead laugh."

It must be confessed that Madame du Deffand has here the advantage of her "grandmamma." The Duchess, though she could be very angry with Voltaire, admired him greatly, and rendered him many services while he remained at Ferney.

After the death of Madame de Pompadour, the surroundings of Louis XV. remained for several years what they were before; Madame de Choiseul, Madame de Gramont, Madame de Beauvau, Madame de Mirepoix continued to be assiduous at the King's suppers and journeys; but things changed when he distinguished Madame du Barry and felt a senile passion for her. The extraction of the new favorite, the depravation of her early youth, her vulgarity, her ignorance, produced a revolt at court. Choiseul could not but espouse the cause of his wife, who refused to associate with Madame du Barry. He tried with all his might to prevent her formal presentation. Madame du Barry triumphed over his resistance, and was presented on the 27th of April, 1769. From that day, it could be prophesied that Choiseul's power was coming to an end. The relations of the Minister and the favorite were courteous, and Louis XV. amused himself by bringing them together as often as he could. But, with all his levity, Choiseul could not be subservient to her; he was helped by his pride. He was for a moment afraid that the King would marry his young favorite (Maria Leczinska had died on June 24, 1768); the King promised him not to do so, in a curious letter in which he said: "You manage my affairs well; I am satisfied with you. . . . You know Madame du Barry; she is pretty; I am satisfied with her. . . Very certainly, you will not see me taking a *dame de Maintenon.* I need not ask you to consider this private."

Madame du Barry and the Chancellor Maupeou began open war against Choiseul, with the help of the Duke d'Aiguillon. They had on their side the friends of the Jesuits, the devout party; Choiseul had with him the Parlement, but he was defeated, and Louis XV. finally signed the *lettre de cachet* which exiled Choiseul to Chanteloup, his country place.

# Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have in press the authorized 'Biography of Bret Harte,' by T. Edgar Pemberton; 'The Uganda Protectorate,' by Sir Harry Johnston; 'A History of the Nineteenth Century, Year by Year,' by Edwin Emerson, jr.; and 'The Weather, and Practical Methods of Forecasting,' by E. B. Dunn.

The Century Co. will bring out in the autumn 'The Story of Athens,' by Howard Crosby Butler, lecturer on architecture at Princeton University, some of whose drawings will be joined with the abundant photographic illustrations.

As products of the printer's art, the three handy volumes of the Lewis and Clark Journals forming part of the New Amsterdam Book Co.'s "Commonwealth Library" are to be commended without reserve. The type employed is small but distinct, and the general appearance is tasteful. We should criticise it as a too slavish reprint of Biddle's 1814 recension of the original diaries in that it does not even contain the name of Biddle, so that the Paul Allen who signs the preface and seems to identify himself with the editor (whereas he only saw the work through the press) will impose on present-day readers. Moreover, the opportunity to supply an index and modern maps has been put by, so that the publishers exhibit the minimum of enterprise.

Since we last took notice of the commendable Temple edition (Dent-Lippincott) of the Bible, the little volumes have been multiplying apace—four for the Old and six for the New Testament. The scheme is well maintained of a popular critical introduction and of appendices synchronizing the history of the period for several ancient countries, and indexing the pertinent Biblical references in English literature; better still, the text is rationally paragraphed and the poetry printed as poetry. The limp olive-green covers are an invitation to the companionship of the pocket.

It smacks somewhat of anachronism to have, twenty-nine years after its original publication, the well-known and much-read work of Georg Brandes, 'The Romantic School in Germany,' being the second volume of his "Main Currents in Nineteenth-Century Literature," appear in an American edition (Macmillan); and it is hardly worth while at this late date to enter once more upon its grave defects and its unquestionable merits. Its arbitrary combinations, its rough-and-ready judgments, its lack of sympathy with the deepest aspirations and the finest ideals of German Romanticism, are a matter of public record. One only needs to compare it with Ricarda Hach's 'Blütezeit der Romantik' (Leipzig: 1899) to see at a glance how antiquated from the literary point of view this book is, how much closer to the heart of the Romantic movement we have come since its first appearance, how much more Romantic we have ourselves become. One sentence of the introduction, "Regarded as a whole, German Romanticism is reaction," should be enough to show that Brandes's book cannot be classed with the standard works of objective history. If it nevertheless has a vitality of its own, if in a way it is a classic production, it derives this distinction from the bold subjectivity of its author, from his fearless courage in speaking his mind, in asserting his principles at all hazards, in turning even a literary study into a political pamphlet. As a brilliant manifesto of the political and religious liberalism of the middle of the nineteenth century, this book will always retain its value.

In politico-statistical handbooks our Canadian neighbors are much in advance of ourselves. There is nothing to compare, on our side of the line, with 'Morang's Annual Register of Canadian Affairs,' just launched at Toronto by George N. Morang & Co., under the direction of J. Castell Hopkins. It is a stout volume of 540 pages, of which the last thirty are occupied by an index of names and another of "events and affairs." At the beginning is a conspectus of the Governments of the Empire in 1901 (such as are represented in the present London conference of the premiers), followed by the personnel of the Governments of Canadian Provinces, of Senate and House of Commons of the Dominion, and a list of daily newspapers. The Register fairly opens with sections on Canadian Agriculture, Mineral Development, Forests and Fisheries, Manufacturing Industries, Trade and Commerce, Finances; to which succeeds the historical chronicle of Canada and the Crown (from the Queen's death to the King's birthday), the Royal Tour of Canada, Canada and the War. Next in order (or shall we say, out of order?) come Education in Canada, Transportation Interests, Population and Immigration, Government and Politics; The Canadian Militia, Financial Interests, and, finally, Canadian Obituary for 1901. Under Government and Politics, each province is considered in turn with more or less particular report of parliamentary debates. The utility of this compilation is apparent, and time will no doubt bring improvement in it.

One of the chief obstacles in the way of the student of philosophy arises from the unsettled state of the frontiers of the subject, and the consequent difficulty of grasping its proper standpoint and its exact relations to adjacent subjects. Hence teachers of philosophy will probably welcome the late Prof. Henry Sidgwick's 'Philosophy: Its Scope and its Relations' (Macmillan), which treats of these topics in the form of a course of introductory lectures (dating from 1892). In spite, however, of an abundance of shrewd remarks and of a characteristically scrupulous and dispassionate method of discussion, the first impression of the result is somewhat disappointing, and a cursory reader may even be led to think that the subject is finally left very much where it was taken up. For Professor Sidgwick certainly never seems to reach a formal and clear-cut classification of the philosophic sciences such as is needed to remove the existing confusion, inconvenience, and ambiguity. Still, a lucid discussion of such difficult problems by the mature powers of one of the finest critical intellects of our time is bound to be instructive and stimulating to philosophers of every school, and in this sense Professor Sidgwick may be said to have succeeded. Beyond that his common-sense method of looking for formulas to which all parties might subscribe, could hardly be expected to carry him, for, as matters stand, the divergences in conception, aim, method, and terminology of the various philosophic sects seem to be irreducible. A wholly satisfactory solution, therefore, would require either the promulgation of a systematic scheme of such manifest utility as to lead to its general adoption, or the deliberate acceptance of a common terminology by all parties. Neither of these alternatives seems immediately probable, but to either Professor Sidgwick's work ought to smooth the way.

'Otto Hübner's Geographisch-statistische Tabellen aller Länder der Erde' (Frankfort: H. Keller; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) enters on its second half-century of usefulness with the annual issue for 1902, under the editorship of Prof. Dr. Fr. von Juraschek. The table of sources alone for this compilation is worth a large share of the price of the thin volume. In the first section each country of the world is tabulated, with the name of its chief ruler, its area, numerical population, racial composition, religion, budget, army, navy, merchant marine, etc.; and these details are supplemented in the second section with railroad, telegraph, coinage, measures, products, capital and chief-town statistics; while the remaining tables offer convenient economic comparisons between the leading civilized nations, and show the world's gold and silver output for two decades, its exports and imports, etc.

We have received from the publisher, Armand Colin, the *Annales* of seven of the eight sections of the International Congress of Comparative History held in Paris in 1900 (that of Music being unreported). The first volume (General History and Diplomatics) contains the names of the committee of organization, and of members, in addition to the several papers which make up each volume. Comparative History of Institutions and Law; of Social Economy; of Religious Affairs; of the Sciences; of Literatures; of the Arts of Design, furnishes the material for the succeeding volumes —the fourth (on Religion) being notably the thinnest. On some of these we may touch in detail hereafter. The letterpress is beautifully clear and open, and there are occasional illustrations.

The central piece in the current (38th) number of the Year-book of the German Shakespeare Society is a reprint of the first (the Italianate) version of Ben Jonson's "Every Man in his Humour," which has thus far strangely escaped the zeal of the modern editor of reprints. Thus once again does this excellent annual vindicate its indispensable value to the student of Shakspere and the Elizabethan drama. Other noteworthy contents are the address on the question of the origin and early versions of "Hamlet," by Professor Schick, a reprint of the closing scenes of Thomas Heywood's "If you know not me, you know nobody," various documents dating from 1602 and the following years relating to the visits of English actors to the court of Duke Philip Julius of Pommern-Wolgast, and many shorter notices and book-reviews in its field, together with the customary extensive annual Shakspere Bibliography.

The house of E. A. Seemann, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), has begun a serial publication of colored reproductions of 100 contemporary German painters ('Hundert Meister der Gegenwart'), of which the first number is to hand. It contains five examples—a head of Bismarck by Franz von Lenbach; a study of a female head by F. A. von Kaulbach; Falstaff, by Eduard Grützner; a newspaper reader, by Wilhelm Leibl; and two Dutch girls on the dunes, by Hans von Bartels. The accompanying text is from the pen of Fritz von Ostini, but other writers will share in the description of the artists and their works. The publisher's aim is not to cover the field as regards artists—for the choice of a hundred must be arbitrary—but to give characteristic specimens of the art of the group determined on. It is obvious, and it appears incidentally from Ostini's letterpress, that the scale of the original may be departed from, but this is not expressly indicated, nor is the whereabouts or ownership of the original indicated. The color process is not equally successful in all the cases to which it has been applied, but it serves well enough for a memorandum and will be popularly appreciated.

The latest number of the *Archiv für Papyruskunde*, edited by Prof. Ulrich Wilcken of the Würzburg University, and published by Teubner in Leipzig, contains several articles of special interest. The first of these contributions is by the well-known papyrologist, Jules Nicole of Geneva, who describes and translates a papyrus on which are written questions and answers concerning surgical operations, showing how medical examinations were conducted in Egypt eighteen centuries ago. Unfortunately, it is only a fragment, but its contents, so far as they have been preserved, indicate a fair knowledge of anatomy and treat the subject from quite a modern point of view. The questions are such as might be properly put in a medical school of the present day. The second paper is a History of Circumcision, by the editor, with an article on Circumcision in the Old Testament, by Professor Gunckel of Berlin. Both writers agree that this rite was common to primitive tribes, especially in hot countries, and was hygienic in its original character. The Hebrews did not borrow it from the Egyptians, but it was practised by both peoples long before the sojourn of the Israelites in Egypt. A third contribution, to which we wish to call attention, is entitled "Zwei Bankanweisungen aus den Berliner Papyri," by Prof. Otto Gradenwitz of Königsberg, who shows that banks existed in Egypt and issued and accepted checks and bills of exchange two thousand years ago; and, although the form of these drafts was more complicated than at present, they amounted simply to orders to pay a certain sum to a certain person clearly specified, and to charge the same to the account of the undersigned.

We have already indicated the general contents of the unusually rich volume of Proceedings (xv. of the second series) of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Prof. Franklin B. Dexter's communication regarding the Jonathan Edwards MSS. now in the keeping of the Yale University Library possesses a more than curious interest, as either suggesting or demonstrating traits of character which serve to make Edwards a living human figure. For instance, Mr. Dexter's conviction, on examining this mass of his papers, is that "Edwards himself was, with all his genius, altogether practical and efficient in business affairs." Later on in the volume Mr. William P. Upham publishes the results of his decipherment of Edwards's shorthand, which is shown in facsimile and in carefully drawn characters, so far as the extant script supplies material. There are twenty consonant characters, four digraphs, and signs for *some, small, world, because,* and *perhaps.*

Mr. Joseph G. Rosengarten, Philadelphia, has reprinted from the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* his translation of the Hessian Stephen Popp's Journal of his service in the Bayreuth-Anspach

regiments in our Revolution (1777-1783), to which we have already directed attention. Two of the three military pencil maps accompanying the original manuscript in the Bayreuth city library are here reproduced, together with a fourth not alluded to in the prefatory note.

The convenience of our English term "record," in the sporting sense, finds illustration in this item from *Minerva* of June 29: "L'Equador tiene il *record* dei vulcani" (Ecuador holds the record for volcanoes).

The National Central Library in Florence is rejoicing in the Chamber of Deputies' confirmation on June 27 of an agreement between the State and the municipality with regard to the long-awaited construction of a new home for this great institution—not only commodious but "worthy of the city's glorious traditions." The site chosen is on the Corso dei Tintori, fronting the Piazza dei Cavalleggeri, now occupied in part by the ex-convent of Santa Croce, of which Brunellesco's cloisters will be preserved and restored. The building is to be completed, with the books installed, not later than "December 31, 1909" (1907?), at an estimated cost of $580,000.

The assembling of nearly eight hundred of the school-teachers of the Transvaal and Orange River Colony at Johannesburg on July 2, for a ten days' conference, has great significance. In the opening address, Mr. Sargant, the Director of Education, stated that "colored children had just as much right as the children of other taxpayers to access to Government schools, and the Government recognized its duty to provide schools for them. It was impossible, however, to disregard the social usages of generations. Therefore, in spite of the extra expenditure involved, separate schools, just as well equipped, would be provided for the colored population." The instructive part of the conference consisted of a series of lectures on various subjects connected with teachers' work, technical education, mining, and voice production. The Astronomer Royal of the Cape, Sir David Gill, gave three lectures on astronomy, and Major-General Baden-Powell impressed upon the teachers the value of the cultivation of habits of observation. The citizens of Johannesburg subscribed a large sum to defray the cost of the conference, besides opening their homes to the visitors. Among the entertainments provided were theatrical performances, musical soirées, visits to the mines, and excursions in the neighborhood.

The broadening influences at work respecting the common-school or secondary education in England are indicated by the fact that the Government has provided sixteen holiday courses for the study of modern languages by teachers and others. Seven of these are to be held in different places in France, including Paris and Tours, four in Germany, three in Switzerland, and two in Avila and Santander in Spain.

A reader has done us the kindness to expose a sad lapse of the pen by which Professor Forsyth's 'Theory of Differential Equations' was ascribed in our last issue (in the brief note at p. 71) to Professor "Thorpe."

—The *National Geographic Magazine* for July contains the preliminary report, by Mr. Robert T. Hill of the Geological Survey, of his personal investigations of the Martinique disaster. A sketch of the geologic and volcanic history of the Caribbees introduces a detailed account of the actual events of the great eruption from the statements of eyewitnesses. It is made apparent that the warnings were numerous and continuous for at least two weeks before May 8. Mrs. Prentiss, wife of the American Consul, wrote that on April 23 "she heard three distinct shocks or reports in St. Pierre, which were so great that the dishes were thrown from the shelves and the house rocked." A few days before her death she records this significant fact: "The smell of sulphur is so strong that horses on the street stop and snort, and some of them drop in their harness and die from suffocation." The devastation was confined to a comparatively small district, and the changes are "merely the superficial destruction of vegetation and the veneering of a small triangular area with a thin layer of ashes and mud. . . . Nineteen-twentieths of the area of Martinique is as green and beautiful to-day as it ever was." As a result of his observations, Mr. Hill concludes that the eruptions were repetitions of old phenomena, and their cause "was not the development of a local fissure suddenly letting the water of the sea down to the depths of the hot magma, but, upon the contrary, resulted from a widely occurring disturbance within the interior of the earth's magma, which caused it to rise to meet the upper wet zone, rather than the water of the latter to descend to it, and which is as yet inexplicable." In his somewhat optimistic account of the political and economic conditions of Martinique, he contrasts the prosperity and happiness of the people under local self-government with the English West Indies, which are "blighted and dying from the colonial system of government." Prof. I. C. Russell of the University of Michigan gives the results of his observation of the eruptions on the island of St. Vincent. At one place a narrow river-valley had been filled "to a depth of fifty or sixty feet with freshly fallen débris. Through this material, surface water was working its way, and, meeting the still hot stones and dirt, was being changed to steam, which, escaping from thousands of vents, formed white columns that rose at times hundreds of feet into the air." The specimens of the products of the eruptions collected by Messrs. Hill and Russell are described, geologically by J. S. Diller, chemically by W. F. Hillebrand. There are several interesting photographs and maps. We have noted errors in the latter which should have been avoided in a scientific journal.

—'A Foreign View of England in the Reigns of George I. and George II.' (Dutton) is a beautifully printed volume made up of letters written by M. César de Saussure to his family during the years 1725-1730. The translator, Madame van Muyden, gives us, in a preface of three pages, such essential facts regarding the author as are required to explain the character of this correspondence, and the general nature of the experiences out of which it sprang. M. de Saussure's father was a Huguenot exile resident at Lausanne, and the writer himself had seen nothing of the world until at the age of twenty he set out for England by way of Yverdon, Solothurn, Basel, and the Rhine. Until now the letters have remained in manuscript, but they seem to have been read rather widely at Bern, Geneva and Lausanne during De Saussure's lifetime. The most illustrious of their readers in the eighteenth century was Voltaire. When at Montriond, Lausanne, in 1755, he heard of them, and asked to see them. On returning them he sent a card with a message of thanks written in his own hand: "Monsieur de Voltaire et Madame Denis offrent leurs obéissances à Monsieur et Madame de Saussure, et renvoyent les manuscrits. On ne peut trop remercier Monsieur de Saussure de la bonté qu'il a eue de prêter un ouvrage si amusant et si utile." That this was not altogether the language of compliment will be the opinion of those who read the letters of De Saussure to-day. They depict English life as it was seen, more or less from the outside, by an intelligent and well-educated Swiss, who was shocked that the "profane and godless Woolston" had published a treatise against miracles, but felt deep admiration for English political institutions. In the eighteenth century Lausanne was already a home of primness and schoolmasters. There is something of the pedagogic air about De Saussure, although it is not unmixed with natural sprightliness. So far as can be seen from his letters, he did not move in court or official society, but he had very respectable friends in England. At one time he became first secretary to the British Embassy at Constantinople, and at another he was made secretary to Lord Cathcart, then commanding a portion of the British fleet in the war with Spain. The most valuable feature of these letters is their close observation of national eccentricities, or of those habits which to a foreigner must have seemed eccentric. It is the England of 'Tom Jones' and 'Roderick Random'—a coarser if not a more profligate England than that of 'The School for Scandal' and the Westminster Election. Madame van Muyden's translation is smooth and graceful.

—We must confess a certain initial feeling of prejudice against 'The True Napoleon' of Mr. Charles Josselyn (Russell), which is due to its question-begging title. This phrase—'The True Byron,' 'The True Shelley,' 'The True Napoleon,' etc.—has, however, grown so hackneyed during the past ten years that the day of its departure is surely close at hand. Mr. Josselyn does not seek to come at the truth by any process of criticism, by any examination of witnesses, by any test of veracity in the case of the memoir writers upon whom he relies. His leading authorities are Bourrienne, Las Cases, O'Meara, and other writers who had a sharp eye to the public, and were not afraid of seasoning their stories with the salt of Gascony when occasion required. We are quite sure that Mr. Josselyn has not been consciously unfair in his use of historical materials, but he is uncritical and plainly the amateur. The modesty of the preface is so disarming that we are relieved from trying this book by standards which would be applied to the works of Fournier and Rose—or even, let us say, to those of Mr. Watson and Miss Tarbell. "It is not my purpose," says Mr. Josselyn, "to write a life of Napoleon; this volume is simply a compilation of anecdotes and opinion incident to himself and his times, and like J. T. Headley, author of 'Napoleon and his Marshals,' I pretend to no originality, except that, like him, I have grouped what I believe to be interesting facts al-

ready known to the world, and have used without any hesitation any reliable author that could help me." As for the spirit in which these anecdotes are collected and arranged, it may be gathered from another passage of the preface. "That Napoleon had faults, was sometimes untruthful, cruel, even vicious, is admitted, but the good he performed, the great results he achieved, may possibly overbalance many of these unpleasant and bad qualities; and these, I think, in a great measure, are buried beneath his many noble deeds." The method pursued can be briefly indicated. Apart from a section on the chronology of Napoleon's life, there are five chapters which are devoted to the following subjects: "Boy and Man," "The Soldier," "Emperor and Statesman," "Exile and Philosopher," "The Man of the World." A lack of just perception in the choice of sources is the chief fault of this book, but it is not without other blemishes. The construction of sentences is sometimes defective, the subjects of the illustrations are not, as a rule, the best, and the most cursory glance reveals signs of carelessness. For example, the first line in the table of contents runs: "Napoleon: Boy and Man, 1767-1821," while the first sentence of the first chapter informs us that "Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio, in Corsica, on the 15th of August, 1769." As partial compensation, the printing is good, and there is an accumulation of much entertaining gossip.

—'The Early History of Venice,' by F. C. Hodgson (Dutton), is a work of both coordination and research. As may be inferred from the title, it begins with the foundation of the city, and its closing episode is furnished by the share which the Venetians took in the Fourth Crusade. No writer on the origin of Venice or on any portion of its history can fail to accentuate the broad cosmopolitan character of the relations into which it was brought by its unique position, but there is room for either failure or success in the treatment of this theme. Mr. Hodgson shows skill in selecting the main lines of a complicated development, and, without sacrificing the local aspects of his subject, lets us see clearly how the town bore itself towards its Italian neighbors as well as towards the trading communities of the Levant. In all respects this must be considered a narrative history rather than a study of municipal and commercial institutions or of social life. In his notice of Venetian government and administration, Mr. Hodgson dwells strongly upon the absence of feudal instincts and influences. "If we turn," he says, "from the external aspect of the city of Venice to the political principles that prevailed there from the earliest days, we shall find that, perhaps more than any other of the states that formed the Western Europe of the Middle Ages, it embodied the ideas that had been bequeathed by the Roman Empire." It was by the route of Constantinople that the ideas of municipal government and of imperial majesty came to Venice, for the first doges were Byzantine officers who gained their appointment in days when the exarchate of Ravenna was still more than a name. Dealing chiefly, as he does, with events, Mr. Hodgson is led to emphasize the exploits of great leaders like Pietro Orseolo II. and Enrico Dandolo, and to pass lightly over those less palpable tendencies which are seized upon by the professed critic. We would not imply, however, that Mr. Hodgson is deficient in critical aptitude. His introduction gives proof alike of discriminating taste in the choice of authorities and of candor in avowing what he has not read. We are particularly glad to see that he has placed no reliance upon Daru, and that in using Gfrörer's 'Byzantische Geschichten' he is well aware of the author's bias against *Byzantinismus*. On the other hand, he seems less cordial towards Romanin than we could have wished. This is a scholarly and valuable book. It is also one which should prove attractive to mediævalists at large.

—Francisque Vial, author of 'L'Enseignement Secondaire et la Démocratie' (Paris: Armand Colin), knows just what his views are and how to give them clear expression. Clear minds, hearts filled with the spirit of justice, unanimity in high national and personal ideals, willingness to sacrifice the selfish interest of the present for the general good of the future—this is what must be cultivated in the masses of the French democracy to insure its success as a form of political and social organization. The masses must feel and act aright, and they must feel and act together. But their feelings and actions will inevitably be determined, in preponderating measure, by the character of the education which they receive. If they are to be at one in their feelings and actions, if there is to be a truly distinctive national spirit, they must be a unit in the educational influences to which they are subjected in the formative period. With the Utilitarian theory of education, however, unity is impossible. To be consistent with its fundamental principle, that theory must ever tend to greater and greater division. Egoism, intellectual and moral anarchy, a stolid indifference to the higher social and political interests and responsibilities, are its legitimate fruits. To the Liberal, and not the Utilitarian theory, then, France must look for the type of education which will satisfy the real needs of her democracy. And yet not to the Liberal teaching as it actually exists in the France of to-day. Liberal teaching itself has been caught in the flood of Utilitarianism and carried from its true foundations. It has gone from the general to the special, from principles to facts, adopting methods drawn from its enemies and foreign to its true character and aims. The author has the courage of his convictions sufficiently to take an actual programme of a course in the history of French literature, and set over against it such a programme as he would desire, in which the names of individual authors and other such narrowly specialized topics give way to the more general problems of literary evolution, with the understanding that the teacher is free to select the epochs, authors, and works best suited to throw light upon the problems under consideration. Neither the French democracy nor any other will guide its steps to any great degree in conscious deference to the reasonings of an educational philosopher; but M. Vial's book is none the less worth a careful reading, and may well have a deep influence on the inner circles of educational thought.

## ROYCE'S WORLD AND THE INDIVIDUAL.

*The World and the Individual.* Gifford Lectures [on Natural Religion], Delivered before the University of Aberdeen. Second Series: Nature, Man, and the Moral Order. By Josiah Royce. The Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. 480.

Professor Royce's second and concluding volume discusses questions of intimate interest to everybody. It is more persuasive than the first, of which it enhances the significance. The design of the whole now comes out—to introduce into the Hegelian philosophy of religion such rectifications as must result from recognition of scientific conceptions worked out during the century now completing itself since that philosophy first appeared. Of these new conceptions, some are psychological, some logical; but the chief of them are the new mathematical ideas which cluster about that of an infinite multitude. Mathematicians, perhaps, still linger on the stage, who, in their best days, used to be quite positive that one cannot reason mathematically about infinity, and used to feel, like the old lady about her total depravity, that, this cherished inability being taken away, the bottom would fall out of the calculus. Such notions are obsolete. Various degrees of infinity are to-day conceived with perfect definiteness; and the utter misapprehension of the metaphysicians about it, above all of Hegel, glares. As a first serious attempt to apply to philosophical subjects the exactitude of thought that reigns in the mathematical sciences, and this, not on the part of some obscure recluse whose results do not become known to the public, but on that of an eminent professor in a great university, to whom the world is disposed to listen with attention, Royce's 'The World and the Individual' will stand a prominent milestone upon the highway of philosophy.

Our space will permit only the most salient features of Professor Royce's theory to be roughly sketched. "An Idea is any state of mind that has a conscious meaning." In reference to meaning, logicians have never failed to recognize "quod fere in omnium ore celebre est, aliud scilicet esse quod appellativa [*i. e.*, adjectives] *significant*, et aliud esse quod *nominant*. Nominantur singularia, sed universalia significantur." So John of Salisbury, Abelard's pupil, expresses the distinction. That for the most important signs the signification is intrinsic, the denotation (*quod nominant*) extrinsic, is generally recognized. Professor Royce marks the distinction by the terms Internal Meaning and External Meaning. He conceives of the internal meaning in a special way. Another writer, a quarter of a century ago, proposed this maxim: "Consider what effects that might conceivably have practical bearings we conceive the object of our conception to have. Then our conception of those effects is the *whole* of our conception of the object." Carrying this pragmatistic spirit a trifle further, Professor Royce holds that the internal meaning of an idea is a Purpose, instead of regarding it, with his predecessor, as a germinal purpose. This purpose—obscurely recognized, since not all to which it will lead is foreseen; partially fulfilled in being recognized, since a purpose strives first of all to understand itself; but mainly unfulfilled, since it would not remain a purpose after fulfilment—is

the internal meaning, or signification, or depth, of the idea. The purpose is vague—anything that refers to the future is more or less vague; and a sincere purpose to do a thing "right now" actually does it. The purpose is to do a thing under certain circumstances. Completely to define these circumstances, it would be necessary to give a biography of the purposer from birth, without any omission. The purpose is to do something in order to produce certain results. Completely to define the result accomplished must involve a complete representation of the agent's future life. In short, the complete fulfilment of any purpose, which alone is the external meaning of the idea, is no less than the entire life of the thinker. The reviewer will say, for clearness, that neither these nor the majority of the author's positions have been satisfactorily shown to be true (in the reviewer's opinion, but the author holds them to be perfectly demonstrated). The principal of them may rank as verifiable hypotheses possessed of the plausibility and other qualifications that render them eminently worthy of further examination, even if an engine of rare usefulness must be drawn away from other work for the purpose.

That the object of an idea, then, its external meaning, is of the nature of a sign could hardly be gainsaid. But Professor Royce finds it not only a sign but an idea; not only one idea but a "concrete" idea in the Hegelian sense, and that, not relatively, but perfectly, and so of the nature of life; and not only life, but an entire life. "The Being of the real object of which you now think, means a life that expresses the fulfilment of just your present plan."

But suppose the reader to ask, How can an idea, so microscopic a piece of a life, contain within its implication a distinct feature corresponding to every feature of the entire life of which it is only a part? This difficulty is happily removed by the author in a way which ought to be instructive to those metaphysicians whose horizon is limited by the walls of a theological seminary. He resorts to Gauss's conception of an *Abbild*, which has played a great rôle in mathematics. That is to say, he likens the idea representing the entire life to a map of a country lying upon the territory of that country. Imagine a map of England, absolutely perfect in its minutest details, to lie upon the soil of England, without covering the entire country it maps. Upon this map would be shown the very ground where the map lies, and the map itself, in all its minutest details. In this map of the map, the map will be shown again; and so on endlessly. Here, then, will be a part fully representing its whole, just as the implicit meaning of the idea is supposed to represent the entire life. It is to be noticed that, each successive map lying well inside the one which it immediately represents, unless there be a hole in the country which a ring-shaped map encloses, the endless series of maps will converge to a single point, which represents itself throughout each and every map of the series. In the case of the idea, that point would be the self-consciousness of the idea. An idea, being a state of mind with a conscious purpose, must evidently be self-conscious.

There, then, would seem to be a beautiful and a needed (though not a complete) confirmation of the aptness of the metaphor. Yet here the author recoils, and refuses to admit the continuity, or even the analytic continuity, of the map. He insists that no representation represents itself; a hard saying, which exact logic appears directly to refute. "The world of Self," he says, "whatever continuity of internal structure it may, in some aspects, possess, is, in its principal form of expression, embodied in a discrete series of . . . individual expression. . . . Experience at any moment shows how I am conscious of my . . . approaches to selfhood in any way in the form of a discrete series in which one stage . . . is followed by the next." The argument which supports this assertion is not assented to upon all hands. If it be true, there are but two alternatives: either, notwithstanding this, in the respects in which an idea represents an entire life there is continuity, or, at least, a higher infinity than that of the simple endless series; or else the doctrine that to an idea a reality must in some shape correspond must fall to the ground.

According to Professor Royce, an idea fails of being a Self only because it is general and not perfectly determined; which the reader may deem a dark saying unless the sword of Hegel is invoked to cut the knot. Its implicit or germinal inward meaning would, then, be a little Self, representing the entire life as its external meaning. In a similar way, the Self of the man is perhaps included within a larger Self of the community. On the other hand, the man's Self encloses intermediate selves—the domestic Self, the business Self, the better Self, the evil spirit that sometimes usurps his sovereignty. Of course, the system of delineation for the larger and for the enclosed selves will be different. Here the author draws support from the psychological doctrine of what he calls the "time-span," a doctrine which, so far as it has really been placed beyond important doubt, amounts to little more than that our image of the events of the few seconds last past is, or is very like, a direct perception, while our representation of what happened a minute or so ago is relatively of a far more mediate character. This phenomenon had already been seized upon by several idealistic writers as affording a refutation of dualism; but there is no better way of appreciating the large calibre of Royce's thought than by comparing their styles of putting this idea to the service of metaphysics with his. He imagines that the greater selves will naturally have vastly longer time-spans than the lesser selves. Now a consciousness whose time-span, or "specious present," or "empirical present," as it is variously called, was a thousandth of a second or a thousand years would not ordinarily be recognized as a consciousness at all by a human observer of its external manifestations. The time-span of the All-enclosing Self must cover all time; and this gives a sort of support to the imagination if we wish to reconcile foreknowledge and free will after the manner of Boëthius, St. Augustine, and others.

Every reality, then, is a Self, and the selves are intimately connected, as if they formed a continuum. Each one is, so to say, a delineation; with mathematical truth we may say, incongruous though the metaphor is, that each is a quasi-map of the entire field of all the selves, which organic aggregate is itself a Self, the Absolute Idea of Hegel. So far as a philosophical conception can be identified with God it is God.

All reasoning goes upon the assumption that there is a true answer to whatever question may be under discussion, which answer cannot be rendered false by anything that the disputants may say or think about it; and further, that the denial of that true answer is false. This makes an apparent difficulty for idealism. For if all reality is of the nature of an actual idea, there seems to be no room for possibility or any lower mode than actuality, among the categories of being. (Hegel includes modality only in his Subjective Logic.) But what, then, can be the mode of being of a representation or meaning unequivocally false? For Hegel, the false is the bad, that which is out of harmony with its own essence; and since, in his view, contradiction is the great form of activity of the world, he has no difficulty in admitting that an idea may be out of harmony with itself. Prof. Royce, however, seems almost to resent the idea that anybody could suppose that he denied the validity of the distinction of truth and falsehood. He is fairly outspoken in pronouncing sundry doctrines false (a word Hegel hardly uses), even if we do not quite hear his foot come down; and nothing does he hold more false than the usual form of stating the distinction now in question, namely, that a true proposition corresponds to a *real matter of fact*, by which is meant a state of things, definite and individual, which *does not consist merely in being represented (in any particular representation) to be as it is*. For example, if I dream that I find I can float in the air, this matter of dream is not matter of fact, for the reason that the only sense in which I can float in the air is that so my dream represented the matter. Now Prof. Royce offers to demonstrate by necessary reasoning that the statement—or, as he expresses it, that "to be real means to be independent of ideas which relate to that being"—is false. His argument to this effect will serve as a sufficiently characteristic, but rather favorable sample of his general style of argumentation.

Having given us to understand that he is going to disprove the proposition, he opens his argumentation by declaring that he does not know what the proposition means. Thereupon, he proceeds to propound a general maxim of procedure for all cases in which one has to refute a proposition without knowing what it means. It is to begin by assigning to it its "most extreme form." This certainly does not signify the most extremely defensible meaning, but rather the most extremely indefensible meaning that the language will bear. The proposition having been refuted in this extreme sense, it will only be necessary afterwards to argue that other interpretations make no essential difference. This maxim, one would suppose, would prove very serviceable to anybody who should have any large amount of that sort of refutation to perform. In accordance with this maxim, Prof. Royce begins by assuming that realists hold that no idea in the slightest degree determines the real object of it, whether causally or in any other manner. Whether this does not overstep the limits of admissible interpretation, seeing that a realist who

meant this would deny that any promise can really be kept, or that any purpose can influence the real result, the reader must say. At any rate, it would not seem to be a difficult position to refute.

Now in order that he may get the realist where he wants him, there are two acknowledgments which Professor Royce endeavors to extort from him. To bring him to the first, the author assumes the principle that all causal action is reciprocal, or of the nature of reaction. This is evidently contrary to popular opinion, which holds that while the past has exerted some efficient causality upon the future, the future cannot have any *effect*, in the strict sense of that word, upon the past; and that while the future may have influenced the past by final, or ideal, causation, the past cannot possibly influence the future as the aim of the future. The reader may judge whether a realist of so extreme a type as that which Professor Royce has set up would or would not admit that the real object of an idea cannot have influenced the idea, in the absence of any attempt on the part of Professor Royce to prove his general principle of reciprocity. If he would not, old-fashioned logic (which Hegelians, it is true, hold in high contempt) would pronounce the attempted demonstration to be a bald *petitio principii*.

In order to extract the second acknowledgment from the realist, Professor Royce produces an argument which would seem to have as much force for one kind of realist as for another. He supposes two objects, B and R, to be related to one another as the realist supposes the Being, or the real object of an idea, and the Representation, in the form of an idea of that object, to be related; and he undertakes to define the relation between them. "The definition in question," he says, "is, as a mere abstract statement, easy." One would think so. The realist simply says that B is not constituted by its being represented in R; that is, he says that the fact that B is as it is, would be logically consistent with R's representing it to be otherwise. But in place of this easily comprehensible relation, what fantastic attempt do we find at the definition that was pronounced to be so easy! Professor Royce will have it that the realist holds that the relation is such that no matter how R may be metamorphosed, it is logically possible for B to remain unchanged. In such a sense, what two things in the world are independent? Change the problematic madness of Hamlet into the pacification of the Philippines, and it will become logically inconsistent with the continuance of great disturbances there. But change the doubtful *representation* by Shakspere that the fictitious Hamlet was unhinged into the *representation* that the Philippines were pacificated in 1901, and it will not have the slightest logical consequence for the real state of things. The truth is, that Professor Royce is blind to a fact which all ordinary people will see plainly enough; that the essence of the realist's opinion is that it is one thing to *be* and another thing to *be represented;* and the cause of this cecity is that the Professor is completely immersed in his absolute idealism, which precisely consists in denying that distinction. It is his element, and there is total reflection at its surface. That, however, is what Professor Royce asks the realist to admit as a premise. The conclusion which he deduces from it is that if B is linked as cause to any determination of R, there must be a *tertium quid* by the mediation of which the causation takes place. Now the premise is absurd; and the formal rule is that from an absurd premise every conclusion must be allowed to be logical; that is to say, it is needless to dispute its logicality, the premise being false. The argument, therefore, cannot be called formally bad; nor can we object that a few lines below, in a restatement of the conclusion, B's being linked as cause gets changed into B's having any causal *or other* linkage.

Professor Royce, armed with his wrong definition of realism, goes on to a dilemma to show that, whether the realist says that real things are one or are many, he equally involves himself in contradiction. But, although the characteristics of his style of argumentation become even more prominent in that dilemma, the exigencies of space forbid our following him further. But we should like to say one word to this powerful and accurate thinker who has been so completely led astray in his argumentation by his Hegelian logic: Absolute idealism depends, as Hegel saw that it did, upon assuming that position at the outset. If your refutation of realism is addressed to students who are already absolute idealists at heart, we will not undertake to say whether it will be serviceable for the development of that doctrine, or not. But if it is addressed to realists themselves, it must conform to the logical principles recognized by realists, or be nugatory. Now you know very well that realists do not admit that matter of fact can be apodeictically demonstrated. You ought to know, and surely you do know, that if you drive them into a corner, they will simply modify their admissions so far as may be necessary to avoid self-contradiction, and that from the very nature of apodeictic proof it is absolutely impossible to close off such escape in arguing about matter of fact. The history of the doctrine of parallels illustrates what logic shows to be necessarily the state of the case. But the question of realism is a question of hard fact, if ever there was a hard fact; and therefore your method must be revolutionized if you are ever to convince any master of logic.

## SCHEIBERT'S SWORD AND PEN.

*Mit Schwert und Feder:* Erinnerungen aus meinem Leben. Von F. Scheibert, königlich-preussischem Major z. D. Berlin: Ernst Siegfried Mittler & Son; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1902.

Autobiographies are always interesting if written with candor and some literary skill, and if, in describing men, conditions, and events, they supply illustrative details not found in historical works. In what Major Scheibert presents to us he is candid enough, although his judgment and the accuracy of his information frequently appear very questionable. He went through the ordinary course of study in the Gymnasium, intending to devote himself to the study of architecture; but, discouraged by the poor prospects of advancement in that line, and by the "impressions made upon him by the commotions of the year 1848," he joined the military profession for the purpose of becoming an officer of engineers. He describes his career with some vivacity, and tells us of the clever things he did in peace and war, and of the credit he got for them from his superiors—some of them men of high rank and renown—with unconcealed satisfaction. But his success, so far as it consisted in official recognition of his merits, was far from being all he desired; for when he reached the dangerous "Major's Ecke" (the "major's corner")—that is, the rank in the military hierarchy from which the Prussian Government carefully selects those who are considered fit for the higher grades—he was dropped from active service and relegated to private station with a meagre pension not sufficient to support him and his family in comfort. According to his own account, he was a jolly companion among his fellow-officers, amusing them as well as himself with droll conceits and mirth-provoking pranks, which no doubt made his friends regret his unpropitious retirement. Pressed by poverty, he took to the writing of books, as he himself confesses, to keep the pot boiling; and, as a list appended to the present volume shows, he wrote twenty-five of them on all sorts of subjects connected with the military profession. To the necessity of writing so much may be owing the somewhat slipshod character of his literary style, and the abundant padding with matter of no consequence which is observable in the work before us.

Of special interest to American readers is that part of the autobiography which touches the author's experiences in our civil war. He was sent by his Government to America for the particular purpose of observing, on the occasion of the impending operations against Charleston, the utility of the new methods of protecting fortifications as well as ships with iron armor, and the effect produced by rifled cannon upon earthworks, masonry, and iron sheathings. It was the intention of his Government that to this end he should report himself at the headquarters of the Union forces; but as he believed he could observe things better from the inside of the attacked place, and as his sympathies were altogether on the side of the South, he was permitted at his own request to make his way to Charleston, not, indeed, as an emissary of the Government, but as a "private gentleman" and at his own risk. He succeeded in running the blockade on a British vessel, and put himself in communication with the military authorities of the Confederacy, who received him very kindly.

There being at the time nothing of great moment going on in or around Charleston, he betook himself to Virginia, where he was hospitably welcomed by Gen. J. E. B. Stuart, the famous cavalry leader, and subsequently by Gen. Lee himself. He was present at the battles of Chancellorsville and of Gettysburg, but the stories he tells add little, if anything, to the stock of our knowledge. His observations of men and events are of the most superficial kind, and he frankly confesses that his judgment is colored by his sympathies. He tells us that he began an address on our civil war which he delivered after his return home, with the words: "Gentlemen, if you expect to hear from me 'objective history,' you will be disappointed; I was heart and soul a Southerner. I can warm myself only for one cause." This characterizes all his stories as well as his reflections.

As he loses no opportunity in his book to present himself as an ultra-royalist and an extreme conservative, who regards everything that smacks of free government with scorn, so he is easily convinced by a Southern clergyman that negro slavery was a very good thing for the blacks as well as the whites. He saw in the Southern army an organization of exceptionally God-fearing and brave men commanded by heroes, while the Northern army was, in his eyes, only a cowardly rabble led by blockheads and braggarts. There was, to him, no limit to the inexpressible contempt in which the Southern soldier held the mean-spirited Yankees. He found in the Southern troops not only more earnestness and temperament, but also more intelligence. He speaks even of the "indefinable difference" existing between a "people's army" in the true sense —meaning the Southern—and "troops raised by conscription," mercenaries, meaning the Northern army; being apparently ignorant of the fact that the Union army was, even more than that of the Southern Confederacy, mainly an army of volunteers—a "people's army" in the truest sense. He mentions with especial satisfaction that he was "joyfully welcomed" as a "Prussian," while the "Germans" were held throughout the Union in low esteem—mainly, as our author thinks, because the revolutionary movements of 1848 were still sadly remembered, and the Forty-eighters, thoroughly despised at home, were admitted to this country because our Government was—as we must infer, much to its regret—*obliged* to admit them. And now some of those despised Forty-eighters were, "to the astonishment of all sensible people," elected by their countrymen as military leaders. His disgust at this fact is so great that he repeats with evident relish the report attributing the Union defeat at Chancellorsville to the alleged misconduct of the German regiments. "To convince the reader," he says, "that I am not exaggerating, I quote here the report of a Union paper about the battle"; and then he quotes a sensational newspaper tale, the gross and unjust exaggerations of which have long been exposed and set right by historical criticism.

The Confederate defeat at Gettysburg was to Major Scheibert not a real defeat, but merely a miscarriage of a bold attack, after which the Union army might have met with an equally disastrous repulse had it been reckless enough to follow up its success. And so he goes on throughout. Returning to Charleston, he observed the operations of Gen. Gillmore, and formed the opinion that ironclad vessels are in a fight much superior to wooden ships, and able to run unharmed by land batteries; and that rifled guns have a very destructive effect upon masonry, but not upon well-constructed earth-works. On the whole, it appears from his own account that the Major may have brought home with him very entertaining tales of the American war, but very little information of real value, historical or other, unless we call valuable a report he gives of a conversation he had before leaving Virginia with the President of the Confederacy. It is worth quoting verbatim:

"I paid my respects to President Jefferson Davis," he says, "and was so cordially greeted by the head of the Confederacy that I saw in what manner Gen. Lee had spoken of me. The President made upon me a very strong impression. The genuine gentleman and Christian appeared in everything he said, as well as his zealous endeavor to keep the war within the limits of humanity. Like Lee, he showed himself a nature in complete equipoise. Posterity will pass upon this eminent statesman a judgment different from that of his strongly prejudiced contemporaries. At the close of the evening reception he took me into a private room, and, after we had thoroughly discussed the chances of the war, he requested me, when passing through Paris, if my time permitted it, to seek an audience with the Emperor Napoleon, and, as a military man by profession and a member of an entirely disinterested state, to explain to him the situation of things and the staying power of the Confederate army. 'If the Emperor,' he said in substance, 'delivers me of the blockade—and that he can do by a mere stroke of the pen—I guarantee to him the possession of Mexico. In 1842 [*sic*], with an army of about 12,000 men, we forced that state to submit to our will, our soldiers being accustomed to the climate and the mode of fighting of the Mexicans. We can do the same thing again at any moment, since the advantage gained by the raising of the blockade, which saps our vitality, would enable us to detach a corps of 12,000 to 20,000 men without feeling it much.' I promised to do what I could; but in Paris I received a pressing order from Prince Radziwill to come home; the short period of my stay in Paris was therefore not sufficient for me to go through all the diplomatic formalities which, even for a private gentleman, are connected with such an audience. But who knows how Providential it was that I could not discharge the highly important mission which I should have been glad to carry into effect!"

Had our author had his audience with the Emperor, he would no doubt have found that Louis Napoleon, who at heart would greatly have liked to break up our blockade, had reasons for abstaining from the attempt which the eloquence of this private envoy would not have been able to shake. But it is interesting to know that Jefferson Davis was ready to throw to the winds all reverence for the Monroe Doctrine which he may once have cherished, and actually to invite, with an offer of military aid, a European monarch to possess himself of an important part of the American continent.

The second half of the volume is devoted to the author's experiences in the Schleswig-Holstein war, in the war of 1866 between Prussia and Austria, in the Franco-German war of 1870, and in various garrisons. It gives entertaining and in great part pleasant pictures of army life, and the reader cannot but regret to see the once so jovial officer of engineers in his old age reduced to eking out a precarious existence by resort to literary drudgery.

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*An Onlooker's Note-Book.* By the Author of 'Collections and Recollections.' Harper & Brothers. 1902.

Every one who read Mr. Russell's former book will welcome a second instalment of his wit and wisdom. In this case, wisdom has come to predominate over wit. The author deliberately preaches on certain texts, and moralizes much throughout his writing. The book is composed of papers which appeared in the Manchester *Guardian* during the year 1901, and the number of subjects treated, to judge from the titles of the homilies, is very great. But, with the exception of some historical essays, which throw light on the interior of the British Constitution, the subject really examined is that part of the population known as "society." Of this heterogeneous body Mr. Russell is himself a member by birth and by education, and he speaks from his own knowledge and observation. He is not a cynic, nor a pessimist. He has a kindly nature, and bears with him a broad mantle of charity. His tone is rather that of Horace than of Juvenal or Swift. He feathers his shafts with humorous anecdotes, and does not point them with malice. All the more startling and painful is his arraignment of the vices of a decadent age.

The more obvious vices of fashionable society, Mr. Russell says, are "its utter irreligiousness, its worship of money, its frantic extravagance, its indifference to all moral issues, its cynical absorption in pleasure and self-indulgence and self-seeking, its impatience of restraint, privacy, and decorum." Lord Melbourne, after listening with indignation to a sermon on Christian duty, exclaimed: "Things have come to a pretty pass when religion is allowed to invade the sphere of private life." His opinion is carried out in the practice of the "smart set." "It keeps the sphere of its private life absolutely free from the invading forces of religion." Sunday is completely secularized. What part of it is not devoted to exercise and games of chance is given to eating and drinking. The account which Mr. Russell gives of the food consumed by men and women of social position in England recalls the stories of the gluttony of the Romans under the early emperors. Of course, such life breeds parasites as a decaying carcass breeds maggots, and the description of the arts by which they get a start in their career, and force and beg their way on, would be entertaining were not the subject so repulsive. Society, as Mr. Russell paints it, consists largely of ignorant, superstitious, unscrupulous, and selfish people, living, or desiring to live, beyond their incomes, and trying to make up the deficiency by any expedient, fair or foul; gambling, speculating, and betting being the most common.

In one respect there has been an improvement. In spite of the incessant drinking, in which women participate, there is little open drunkenness. The quantity of liquor consumed is not less, but it is not so strong. And Mr. Russell takes pains to point out some wholesome forces which he is confident will some day renovate society. But, as a whole, the society which he describes is repulsive. We may laugh at it, as he tells us stories of its follies and its sins; but we would rather be entertained with a pleasanter subject. The influence of Queen Victoria was conservative and refining. If society degenerated during her reign, what will it become under a successor whose private life has been far from pure? Decorum has gone, manners are disappearing, chivalry is a name of the past, we hear no more of the "chastity of honor," for both words are old-fashioned.

After all, has there been a decadence? Thackeray depicted 'Vanity Fair,' half a century or more ago, when Mr. Russell was beginning to open his eyes, and he told us much the same story. He did not draw comparisons with a golden age; but the golden age of Mr. Russell must have been about the time when Thackeray was writing the 'Book of Snobs.' The vices of society have become more prominent, because wealth,

and with it luxury, have so greatly increased. The change in the system of travel is enough to account for the diminution of privacy. Parasites have not changed their nature since the time of Persius; and they increase in periods of luxury, as weeds flourish when the soil is enriched. Mr. Russell has unwittingly made his picture too lurid; his colors are stronger than he thinks, or laid on without regard to the effect of contrast.

The most instructive, if not the most entertaining, part of this book is that in which the claims of the English peerage to antiquity are scrutinized, and those of the House of Lords to political equality with the Commons are exploded. If aristocracy means the rule of the best, Mr. Russell says, we may safely affirm that it never existed in any place or at any time. The most virtuous men do not dominate their fellows. If aristocracy means the rule of the best born, then there is little of it in England; and of the special virtues of the English aristocracy, Mr. Russell says: "My firm conviction is that the less said about them, the better." After the battle of Tewkesbury, Disraeli observes, a Norman baron was almost as rare a being in England as a wolf is now.

"When Henry VII. called his first Parliament, there were only twenty-nine temporal peers to be found. . . . Of those twenty-nine, not five remain, and they—as the Howards, for instance—are not Norman nobility. We owe the English peerage to three sources—the spoliation of the Church, the open and flagrant sale of honors by the elder Stuarts, and the boroughmongering of our own times."

Every one knows what sort of people Charles II. made peers; and there were 108 peers created by the Stuarts. There are dukes and earls descended from William III.'s Dutch valets; but what of that if a Howard is a "hog-ward"? William Pitt added no less than 141 names to the peerage, and the process goes steadily on.

"Lord Salisbury conferred a peerage on a political supporter who was said by his detractors to have begun life as a 'bus-conductor, and by his friends to have been largely interested in a carriers' business. But he was understood to have paid ten thousand pounds to the party chest, and his money was as good as another's."

It might be well enough to make peers for life; but the House of Lords has succeeded, without much to countenance them, in establishing the principle that the King's writ, summoning a man to Parliament as a baron, "ennobles the blood." Nevertheless—and Mr. Russell writes as a Liberal—he declares that the House of Lords is, next to the crown, the most popular institution in the country. In this judgment and in those on the monarchy, which we can but mention as valuable, we are content to follow him. It is books like this that explain influences, ignored by the ordinary historian, but without knowledge of which history is unintelligible.

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*A Grand Duchess:* The Life of Anna Amalia, Duchess of Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach, and the Classical Circle of Weimar. By Frances Gerard. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. 2 vols., pp. 582. With 42 illustrations and portraits.

In view of the dearth of English works upon Weimar as a whole and apart from the single life of Goethe, Miss Gerard's attempt is certainly worthy of recognition. How far it has actually succeeded in reproducing the substance and spirit of classic Weimar is another question. Whoever would treat thoroughly such a subject must have two preliminary qualifications; the first is a general knowledge of the political condition of Germany after the Thirty Years' War; the second is a sympathetic familiarity with the tardy growth of modern German art and letters. In neither of these lines can Miss Gerard be said to be truly at home. At more than one point her ignorance of general principles has betrayed her into misconceptions and even into misstatements. For instance, who that knows his German history would contrast "time-honored Göttingen" with "the more mushroom University of Giessen" (p. 153)? What student of German literature would call "Götz" "the product of a somewhat unhealthy sentimentalism" (p. 117)? Why speak of Mme. de Staël (p. 285) as a German? At page 190 we read that the Duchess Louise "had been educated in a school of strict propriety, such as then prevailed all over Germany." Yet (p. 291) we read of "foreign courts, and especially those of Germany, possessing a very low standard of morals." Had our author used the term "ceremony" or "etiquette," she would have spared her readers some *Kopfzerbrechen.* To mangle the words of Goethe's "Egmont" (pp. 205-206) is almost lese-majesty. We read (p. 506): "Goethe, at this period of his life, was absorbed in scientific studies, thus leaving unemployed those higher mental gifts which had been given him to use, not to bury." This is exploded conventionalism of the worst sort; it ignores Goethe's expressed declaration of the signal value of scientific study in *his own spiritual growth.* To translate "Die Mitschuldiger" by "The Culprits" (p. 318) is another ancient error.

At times the author's method is perplexing. Thus, her account of the *Tiefurter Journal* (p. 378, *seqq.*) is anything but lucid. The author has a trick of anticipating events, so that we read on page 403 of the patent of nobility conferred on Goethe in 1781, while on page 404 we read of the Swiss trip of 1779. The most provoking feature of the author's manner is her inveterate disposition to indulge in asides and superfluous comments. For example (p. 276), after quoting Merck's letter, in which he thanks Fate for having bestowed upon a poor wretch like him four weeks of golden days, our author adds: "Very nicely put, friend Merck." One must be a De Quincey, to pat one's friends on the back thus. We have not had the leisure nor the patience for adding up the number of times "the deadly parallel" has been drawn between the Weimar dames and the Girton girl; indeed, we have not always been certain which party was intended to be favored. At any rate, our view of comparisons is that of Mrs. Malaprop.

The book is carelessly put together. The note to page 49 refers us to an Introduction which nowhere appears. A like fate has befallen the portrait of Karl August at the age of eighteen, mentioned on page 172. On the other hand, we have an Appendix on the Grand Ducal Library not announced in the table of contents to volume II. Misprints, both English and German, abound; some of them obscure the meaning—for instance, the inscription on the Goethe house, opposite page 418. Some of the illustrations seem to us superfluous in a work upon Weimar.

Nevertheless, in spite of its faults, the work offers much reading that is pleasant and profitable. The author knows her Germany of to-day, and has caught enough of the old-time spirit to awaken our sympathy. It is pleasant to wander through old Weimar and Tiefurt, to awaken the echoes of the illustrious dead. It is worth the while to study the growth and fortunes of that truly great Duchess Anna Amalia, her trials and successes, her never-flagging vitality. It is especially valuable to have this study of a great woman by a woman. No man, however learned, could have entered so spontaneously into the spirit of Anna Amalia and her court. If we get the men of those days somewhat in the pettiness of their domestic foibles, that is only inevitable in the tableau. We should not forget that the great Weimar poet himself concluded his *magnum opus* with the observation: "Das Ewigweibliche zieht uns hinan." Thusnelda comes to her own, and Frau von Stein is heavily discounted; with this we are well content.

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*British Rule and Jurisdiction beyond the Seas.* By the late Sir Henry Jenkyns, K.C.B. With a preface by Sir Courtenay Ilbert, K.C.S.I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1902.

*Colonial Government:* An Introduction to the Study of Colonial Institutions. By Prof. Paul S. Reinsch. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

To students of questions of public administration the "preface" contributed by Sir Courtenay Ilbert to Sir Henry Jenkyns's treatise will be as significant as the book itself. It is a biographical sketch of a man whom it would scarcely be an exaggeration to call an ideal civil servant. After a distinguished course at Oxford, supplemented by a brief period of practice at the bar, Jenkyns was appointed in 1869 to the post of Assistant Parliamentary Counsel. In 1886, on Lord Thring's retirement, he was promoted to that of Parliamentary Counsel. In February, 1899, he retired, and in December of the same year he died. He helped to draft the legislative measures of British Governments for thirty years, including Forster's Education Act and Ballot Act, the Army Act, Gladstone's Irish Church Act, Irish Land Act, and Home Rule Bills, the Local Government Acts, and Sir William Harcourt's Finance Act. His work was by no means mechanical. When called upon to prepare a bill, he would first make himself a complete master of the subject in all its bearings, would embody the results of his researches in an exhaustive memorandum, would discuss the proposals that had previously been made for the solution of the problem, and would suggest practical conclusions, indicating the arguments for and against each alternative course. There are in existence over sixty volumes of confidential papers containing these memoranda. Sir Henry Jenkyns's criticism was constructive as well as destructive, for he possessed the imagination which could forecast the actual working of any particular scheme. His services were rendered to the ministry of the day irrespective of party. Mr. Bryce describes the author of this volume as the most powerful arguer he ever knew; Mr. Balfour calls him "a most acute critic of

other men's ideas, rich in suggestions of his own, with unrivalled experience and great legal knowledge"; Mr. Morley speaks of him as "a consummate master" of his work, and says that the only man in his experience at all comparable to Jenkyns in the difficult art of rapidly devising the right words for the bare rudiment and intention of a clause or an amendment was Herschell. But the possessor of these rare qualities was unknown, even by name, to the world at large. It was his conviction that a civil servant should keep in the background, and he therefore persistently refused to make any literary use, during his official career, of the vast mass of materials he had collected. The book now published was to have been the first fruits of his leisure. Its completion was arrested by his death, and his MSS. have been revised and supplemented by some of his friends.

The expectations induced by this introduction are not disappointed by a study of this treatise, unpretentious in form, but masterly in execution. The body of the work treats in turn of the various classes of territory under British jurisdiction, the relations between the home Government and colonial Governments, British possessions other than colonies, self-governing colonies, colonies not self-governing, colonial governors, extra-territorial jurisdiction, consular jurisdiction, jurisdiction in British protectorates, and the position of foreign subjects in them. There are eight appendices, mainly consisting of the full text of various important acts, commissions, etc. Every page bears traces of being the work of a lawyer, and in each discussion the author goes into many points of detail, with frequent footnotes; but the style is so clear that the lay reader need never be perplexed or bored. It carries the authority of full and accurate knowledge combined with wise judgment.

The chapters on "Self-governing Colonies" and "Colonial Governors" are of special value for the light they throw upon the processes of political development. Sir Henry Jenkyns lays great stress upon the distinction between representative and responsible government. From this point of view he disagrees with Professor Dicey's opinion that the Constitution of the Dominion of Canada is, in its essential features, modelled on our own, and maintains that, "even if we shut our eyes to the crucial distinction between parliamentary government and presidential government, the points of resemblance between Canada and the United States are not nearly so remarkable as the points of difference." In Canada the Ministers require the support and confidence of a majority of a popularly elected assembly, and are consequently responsible to it. Other differences lead to the conclusion that, "apart from the division of powers which is necessary in every federation, and the fixed proportion of the number of Senators from each province, it is difficult to specify any point of resemblance between the Government of Canada and that of the United States which is not also a point of resemblance between the former and the Government of the United Kingdom." The author thinks it especially necessary to emphasize Ministerial responsibility as a fundamental characteristic of the British self-governing colonies, because it is not to be discovered by an examination of their "instruments of Constitution," and is therefore likely to be overlooked by students who obtain their data mainly from Acts of Parliament or Orders in Council.

Professor Reinsch's book, as its title suggests, is of a more popular type than Sir Henry Jenkyns's, and covers the sphere of colonial government in general, though naturally the British colonies receive the principal share of attention. It is excellently adapted to its purpose, for it presents with admirable lucidity of style and arrangement a survey of the motives and methods of colonial expansion, an account of the general forms of colonial government, and an outline of administrative organization and legislative methods. While it does not avowedly appeal to specialists, they will do well not to neglect it, for the most familiar principles are freshly stated, with new illustrations from quite recent history, and it contains not a few suggestions that will be read with interest by persons already well acquainted with the literature of the subject. The bibliography appended to each chapter will be of service to all classes of readers. The present book bears closely upon practical politics, for its author, without therein ceasing to be scholarly, keeps present-day problems always in mind, and pays due attention to such modern questions as the commercial relations between mother country and colonies, the influence of capitalistic combinations upon colonial expansion, "spheres of influence," and the British agitation for imperial federation.

The corrections required are comparatively unimportant. The view taken of the position of a British Governor (p. 247) is too optimistic to suit present conditions. In the list of distinguished colonial governors (p. 249) a place should have been found for Sir George Grey, one of the greatest of them all. The statement that "the colonial governments are always consulted before any important step involving their interests is taken" (p. 242) conveys an erroneous impression. If the representations of the Ministries of Cape Colony and Natal in the summer and autumn of 1899 had not been ignored by the High Commissioner and the home Government, the Transvaal war would have been avoided. Lord Grenville (pp. 149 and 382) should be Lord Granville; S. W. Rusden (p. 275) should be G. W. Rusden; and Spriggs (p. 385) should be Sprigg. It is a mistake to say that most of the first-class clerks in the Colonial Office entered the service as second-class clerks (p. 289). In connection with the relation of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council to questions of Indian law (pp. 350 and 373), it should have been mentioned that this Committee always includes at least one member who has had legal experience in India itself. Lord Hobhouse, for instance, was for five years a legal member of the Governor-General's Council, and Sir Richard Couch sat for nine years on the bench of the High Court, first at Bombay, and later at Calcutta.

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*The Boer Fight for Freedom.* By Michael Davitt. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1902.

At the outbreak of hostilities in the Transvaal, in October, 1899, Mr. Davitt resigned his seat in the House of Commons and repaired to the seat of war, there to spend the next six months in obtaining from the Boer leaders their representation of the occasion and conduct of the contest. After May, 1900, his material seems to be drawn from the sources of information which are accessible to the general reader of current newspaper and official discussions, and altogether derives such value as it possesses from the author's reports of conversations upon controverted subjects with the officers of the Boer armies. Mr. Davitt's well-known attitude, as an Irish patriot, towards the British Government should prepare the reader to expect a passionate criticism of the motives, humanity, and modes of fighting of the English, and an equally ardent vindication of the disinterested love of liberty and justice of the Dutch republics. The book is entitled to a place among the collections of fact and belief which have already constituted a voluminous basis for that impartial history which shall some day emerge from the contradictory mass of materials.

The military student will be interested in what is said of the relative numbers of combatants in battle, as well as in the attempt to compare the aggregate forces of the opposing nations. That the Boers, with a handful of troops, constantly thwarted the plans of veteran British generals, and repeatedly captured, from an easily bewildered marching column, prisoners exceeding in number the assailants, has been confessed with chagrin by historians from the English side. In our American civil war, Forrest and Wheeler were masters in the audacious tactics which impressed upon train escorts the belief that a few noisy assailants were an overwhelming host, and the Boer burgher was upon his native heath in the pursuit of armed Englishmen, as he had stalked wild men and beasts over the same ground. Paradoxical as it seems, the strength of the Boers lay in their ignorance of military traditions. New occasions teach new duties in warfare as in peace, and, these farmer folk being without time for drill, and, as compared with the resources of their opponents, poor in arms and the other implements of warfare, it behooved them to adapt themselves to the condition of attack and resistance which every man's own intelligence, long disciplined in much the same emergencies, showed to be most promising. In short, the Boer was called upon to act in precisely the manner in which the Americans at Lexington and Bunker Hill, or Jackson's men at New Orleans, held their own against masses of veteran troops. Hence the Boer was extremely individual in his performance of military duty, now and then to the discomfiture of his own superiors; very mobile and venturesome; and, as officer or private, used common sense to override, if need be, all precedents of military propriety and order.

Mr. Davitt enters into elaborate calculations to show the great disparity of the aggregates of the opposing armies. The British, he says, had above 388,000 men, while the Boers mustered at most 31,500, and of actual fighting men, but 27,500. But he allows that some 5,000 of the Boers died in service, and Lord Kitchener has declared that 17,000 men have laid down their arms since the treaty of peace; and, adding to these the captives already in camps of detention, the more likely figure will seem to be at least 50,000 Boers in arms. To be sure, the entire estimated population of the colonies drawn upon for this army is

only 220,000 or 230,000, but boy and graybeard, to the last male capable of firing a gun, appear to have swelled the ranks. An attempt was indeed made by the Boer Government to keep an accurate record of enlistments by the system of identification-cards to be carried each by a man with a corresponding number on file in the War Department; but in popular uprisings systems of registration are little to be depended upon.

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*Lee at Appomattox*, and Other Papers. By Charles Francis Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902. Pp. 387.

Of the five pieces included in this collection, all have previously, in one shape or another, seen the light and been more or less widely commented upon, in our columns as elsewhere. The brief title-paper accords to Lee especial honor for perceiving that the cause for which the South had fought was lost, and for preventing, by honorable surrender, the prolongation of the struggle through resort to such methods as those which characterized the last year of the recent war in South Africa. The South African situation, indeed, has particular interest for Mr. Adams, and furnishes material for drawing a number of instructive historical parallels. The paper entitled "An Undeveloped Function," originally prepared as a presidential address for the American Historical Association, does not become more convincing on a second reading, but it is nevertheless a breezy, stimulating call to the historian to instruct and mould the public opinion of his generation, and contribute to the solution of present problems, rather than to content himself with adding to the store of information about the past. Taken as a whole, the volume before us is a good illustration of Mr. Adams's powers as a historian. He has command of his material, and is always readable. Principally, however, one notes the definiteness—at times, the aggressiveness—of his opinions, and the consequent freshness and vigor of much of his discussion. It is the downright expression of a well-equipped student, never obtrusive or brusque, and not always carrying conviction, but carefully fortified, interesting, and every way worthy of attention.

The longest and most important paper in the volume is that on the Treaty of Washington, being the substance of four lectures delivered in December, 1901, in the Lowell Institute course in Boston. Aside from the merits of the paper as a careful narrative of events, particularly those immediately preceding and those resulting from the treaty, Mr. Adams's account is notable because of the discussion which its estimate of Sumner, and especially its justification of the removal of Sumner from the chairmanship of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, has called out. In the paper, as now printed, Mr. Adams goes over again in an appendix the objections of his critics—particularly those of ex-Gov. D. H. Chamberlain—but without surrendering anything of his own position. In Mr. Adams's opinion, the San Domingo affair was only the remote, and not the immediate, cause of Sumner's displacement; the real occasion was Sumner's opposition to the policy of the Administration in the pending negotiations with Great Britain, and the personal hostility between him and the President and Secretary of State. Under such circumstances—and this is the main point of controversy—Mr. Adams is clear that the necessity of harmony between the Senate and the President in treaty matters justifies the latter in bringing about, if he can, a change in the head of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, as was done by Grant in the case of Sumner. The insistence upon this view, which is elaborated at some length, as the only working theory on which the President and the Senate could have proceeded, or could be expected to proceed again under similar circumstances, illustrates the essentially practical habit of Mr. Adams's historical and legal reasoning. The question is, of course, somewhat one of opinion, but the friends of Sumner are hardly likely to allow Mr. Adams the last word, or to fail to point out the striking consequences which would ensue if the precedent established in Sumner's case were given general application.

---

*Finland As It Is.* By Harry de Windt. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xii., 316. Illustrated.

The author tells us that this book was written with the understanding that it might serve as a guide to tourists. With that in view, a brief vocabulary (in which such fundamental words as *good* and *fire* are not to be found) and a list of desirable hotels, physicians, and druggists in the chief towns, are added as appendices. We miss in the volume the business-like method of a guide-book, with its carefully classified information, and do not find anything which seems well adapted to take its place. Conditions have altered so, since the book was written, that even the few hints which are given may be less useful now. The only feature which one might rely on finding unaltered, except as intensified, is the resentment against Russia which the author frequently refers to, and which one would think the censor would be apt to blot out of volumes to be sold in St. Petersburg. Regarding the book as merely the narrative of a trip of a lively newspaper man to a country with which he was entirely unfamiliar, we have less to criticise. Little known as Finland is to the average reader, this journal gives a superficial but interesting account of how the country appears to a tourist, of the unexpected prosperity and even wealth of a people with relatively slender resources, but which furnishes England with the greater part of what sells as "Danish" butter and "Stockholm" tar; besides the less notable supplies of wood-pulp paper and fir timber.

The illustrations are numerous and exceptionally good, especially the photographic half-tones; and the book will serve a useful purpose in familiarizing English and American readers with the characteristics of that country which the natives call Suomi, and the rest of the world knows as the Grand Duchy of Finland.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bailey, M. A. High School Algebra. American Book Co. 90 cents.
Gordy, J. P. Political History of the United States, Vol. 2. H. Holt & Co. $1.75.
Moore, A. W. The Alps in 1864: A Private Journal. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Pinney, Aida E. Spanish and English Conversation. 2 books. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents each.
Roddy, H. J. Complete Geography. American Book Co. $1.
Stevenson, J. H. Assyrian and Babylonian Contracts. American Book Co.
The Temple Bible: (1) The Gospel according to St. Luke, edited by M. R. Vincent; (2) The Book of Daniel and the Minor Prophets, edited by R. Sinker. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 60 cents each.

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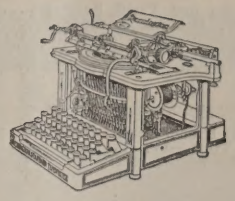

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 7, 1902.*

## The Week.

The *Evening Post's* staff correspondent in the coal regions undoubtedly gives us the real and secret motive of those who engineered the strike. They were putting their trust in politics. Their success two years ago in getting an advance in wages through playing upon the fears of politicians, led them to hazard a second attempt along the same lines. As before, they counted upon the good offices of Senator Hanna. He himself, in the remarks which he made to his employees in Cleveland on Monday night, admitted his peculiar relations with the anthracite strikers. Of course, he puts his interest in them now on the ground of his noble ambition to "bring capital and labor nearer together." Unfortunately, however, he does not clear away the suspicion that his activity this year, as in 1900, may have a political bearing. The way for him to dissipate all such doubts, if they are unworthy and unfounded, is plain. We would not ask him to live up to the Scriptural test of selling all that he has and giving to the poor, but he could at least make it certain that he is not yearning over laboring men for the sake of their votes. He could do it by saying unmistakably, as he has thus far failed to do, that he is not and will not be a candidate for the Presidency. He could also disavow any thought of making his philanthropy aid his political power, by resigning as National Chairman, and renouncing all idea of controlling the convention of 1904. Until Senator Hanna does in some such way leave himself free to work for the cause of labor, without any entangling alliance with politics, we fear that an incredulous world will hardly rank him with St. Francis or St. Dominic.

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Judged by the published text of them, the West Virginia injunctions against labor leaders do but follow well-established and sound judicial precedent. They enjoin, that is, against interference with the management and operation of the mines, and also against attempts to deter employees from going to work "by menaces, threats, or intimidation." All the incitements to strike which the injunction forbids are specifically described as "unlawful"; and, of course, the statutes of all civilized countries prescribe penalties for any act that is tainted with violence. There is in all this, it will be observed, no denial of the right of labor to organize, or of trades-unions peaceably to persuade employees to strike. The right of persuasion has been upheld by leading decisions of the New York courts. Some of them are collected in a pamphlet recently published by Mr. G. W. Alger of the New York bar. He also points out that the Pennsylvania courts have taken a narrower view of the laborers' right to induce men to quit work. In one case, the highest court referred to the plea of the striker's counsel, namely, that the Union's committee had only exercised their "right to talk to new men to persuade them not to go to work," and roundly declared, "There was no such right." The court went on slightly to qualify this denial of the right of persuasion, by introducing the consideration of "an improper time," but the decision as it stands is certainly very stringent. It may yet play a part in the Pennsylvania mining troubles, should they be taken into court.

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It is to be hoped that the managers of ex-Gov. Pattison's canvass in Pennsylvania will take their cue from the admirable address, devoted exclusively to State issues, with which Mr. Henry Budd opened the Democratic campaign in Philadelphia on Monday night. The "ills worth mentioning" which the speaker described, presented a formidable appearance, and it would be both interesting and instructive if some means could be devised to hold Judge Pennypacker and the Republican campaigners to the discussion of them. Such a course has always been peculiarly difficult in Pennsylvania. During the campaign of last year, when the principal issue in Philadelphia was the election of a District Attorney, the Republican speakers spent most of their time begging the people to "uphold the hands of President Roosevelt in his effort to carry out the plans and policies of President McKinley." Apparently the people were willing to tolerate talk of this sort, for the result was the usual Republican victory. Nevertheless, considerations of political expediency, as well as of political morality, urge the Democratic managers this year not to relax their efforts to force the Republicans to the discussion of the local issues. If they follow out the lines indicated by Mr. Budd's address, they must certainly accomplish something toward awakening the people of Pennsylvania to a realization of the political conditions which beset them.

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A horrible scandal has developed at Philadelphia. It has been discovered there that when the City Council, about a year ago, gave away, without a penny of compensation for the municipality, franchises worth many millions of dollars, a clause was inserted by somebody with the evident purpose of safeguarding the people's rights in one particular. The details of this betrayal of the very private interests which "owned" the Council is shrouded in mystery, like most deeds of darkness. But there the clause is, in the ordinance granting the franchise. "Said motors," it says, "to be supplied from underground wires, or such other system as *shall not require overhead wires or poles*." Of course the first impulse of the Philadelphia officials and their intimates who are said to be "behind" the franchise deal, on learning of the existence of this restriction, was to find out the name of the miscreant who inserted it. Members of the Council who had previously borne untarnished reputations for "standing without hitching" fell under suspicion. But second thought is better than first impulse. It soon became clear that nothing, not even the enforcement of discipline, should be permitted to delay the undoing of the mischief. The City Council is to be asked at once to repeal the clause in question. Time enough to hunt the offender after this is accomplished!

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"Devery, thou art translated," must be the secret comment of every Shaksperean in Tammany Hall, as he watches the antics of the ex-Chief of Police on the way to a district leadership. It is Devery's distinction to have thrown overboard all the niceties of the code under which he has been trained, to have so stripped off from "practical politics" the "human nature" that one may see the very bestial shape of cupidity which is the body of our political death. He has no time for the graces of district leadership, but imposes himself upon the people by the sheer glitter of money gotten in ways that he has never told, and which would not bear telling. It is Devery who pays the butcher bills of the poor, who yesterday settled the rent of several poor women—and told of it; who offers "pleasure" to the entire district; who, seeking a political office, makes not so much as a perfunctory appeal to political principles, being, in fact, profoundly ignorant of any political principle other than this, that the city is the politicians' cow, and that a place near the udder can be had only by purchase at a great price. What the answer of the plain people of the Ninth District will be to an ex-official with a malodorous record, who frankly offers to buy them up bodily with butcher's meat and picnics and the payment of their rent, we do not presume to predict. But we do not think so meanly of any portion of this city as not to feel that thousands of self-respecting citizens of the Ninth District must regard Devery with amazed contempt, and the rabble that he so easily gathers around him with unconcealed scorn. In any event, reform-

ers can cheerfully put up with any translation of Devery that does not involve his silence and obscurity. He is to-day at once the most diverting, most disgusting, and most profitable spectacle that the city affords.

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A pending transaction between the Mayor of the city, the consulting architect of the Borough of Manhattan, and the Municipal Art Commission is worthy of note. The case in brief is this: The consulting architect, Mr. Aiken, who is planning certain alterations of the interior of the City Hall, requests the Municipal Art Commission to pass upon the plans. The Mayor expresses pleasure in communicating the request, and says: "This building is so fine a specimen of architecture that I am anxious that no changes should be made in it except such as have been well considered and are believed by the Municipal Art Commission to be proper." But, some one might say, "This is only as it ought to be. No change should be made in a beautiful, historic building without the most careful consideration." The real significance of a transaction which, according to the letter and spirit of the City Charter, is merely normal, can be grasped only when one imagines the alteration of the City Hall under, let us say, Mayor Van Wyck. For Mr. Aiken seeking advice from the Art Commission, substitute Horgan & Slattery standing on their dignity as "city architects"; replace Mayor Low, with his solicitude for the beautiful building in which he serves the city, by Mayor Van Wyck, with his chronic affectation of boorishness and ignorance; finally, imagine, instead of the Municipal Art Commission, working for the seemliness of the city, a horde of sub-contractors and vendors of building supplies hanging upon the edge of the contract.

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The plan of exchanging fellowships between Columbia and the higher schools of Paris—two Americans to study in Paris, two Frenchmen in New York—is important rather for the spirit in which it is introduced than for any large practical effect it is likely to have. It would be a mutual recognition of the value of American and French university training, and it would in some degree tend to strengthen the academic relations of the two countries. It should not be forgotten that holders of French fellowships have already chosen to study in America rather than elsewhere, so that the present plan merely gives official form to relations that already exist. To establish two more travelling fellowships in Columbia will have no very great effect upon the practice, constantly increasing, of pursuing higher study in France. If the French Ministry, however, should provide for two travelling fellowships for America, it would constitute among French students a kind of sanction and advertisement of university study in America. This would tend to bring them regularly to our graduate schools, where now their presence is exceptional. Such a result would be heartily welcomed.

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Detailed statements about the United States Realty and Construction Company show that the scheme is even more comprehensive than was at first supposed. For the management of a general realty and building business, indeed, the organization is singularly complete. By means of its close association with other large financial and industrial corporations, the new organization will be able to buy its own properties, search its own titles, put up its own buildings, and dispose of the finished product, either *en bloc* or in the shape of securities. By its connection with certain large lending institutions, it will have unusual advantages in securing loans; by its association with the Steel Trust, it will be able to obtain the most essential building material on especially favorable terms—giving the latter corporation a monopoly, by the way, of a very important market. In the development of great properties, indeed, it is difficult to see how the new corporation can have any possible rivals. There are certain conspicuous building sites in New York which have been hitherto neglected for the want of a great and resourceful corporation capable of undertaking the task, but a corporation which is capitalized at $66,000,000, allied with leading financial institutions, and managed by the most expert talent in the field, would be able to cope with an undertaking of any magnitude.

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At first sight only the financial aspects of the United States Realty and Construction Company strike the mind. But those who have marked the considerable advance in handsome building under ordinary conditions will see in this great consolidation, and those which are undoubtedly to follow, an opportunity by which art-lovers should be quick to profit. It is not merely that these enormous companies will be free to undertake building operations of a magnitude too great for private enterprise, but that, like all large aggregations of capital, they will be freed from the necessity of seeking a quick profit at the expense of a permanent one. If their managers are wise enough to plan for a long future, their activities will incidentally do much to beautify the city. That it pays to build well and handsomely is already generally recognized. But these great corporations will have exceptional facilities for good building, which they should not fail to utilize. Nothing could better guarantee the public-spirited character of the company now forming than the appointment of an architectural board which should see to it that, within the limits of cost and usefulness, every building that it erects should be an ornament to the city. It may be hoped, too, that in some cases these companies will follow the example of the Astor estate and open streets through the longer blocks, thus relieving the congestion of the city while benefiting themselves. It would probably be practicable to redeem certain portions of the town for better residence purposes, by erecting great apartment buildings with a liberal provision of open courtyards and small gardens. Certain quiet and delightful parts of the Faubourg St. Germain in Paris would serve as a model; and while there might be a period of waiting for returns, a few years would amply justify so bold an innovation.

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President Schurman is performing an invaluable public service in discussing on all proper occasions our national policy in the Philippine archipelago. His address last Saturday before the Chautauqua Assembly should be carefully read by those who carelessly believe that the Philippine problem is settled. President Schurman finds that the war has united the Christian Filipinos in a common sentiment of nationality. With this sentiment we must deal with the utmost respect. To ignore it would be as fatal as it was to ignore Aguinaldo's incipient republic in 1898. Meanwhile, as President Schurman points out, we must face this alternative for the future Philippine commonwealth—statehood or independence. No one can doubt towards which solution statesmanship will incline. Nothing forbids the Republican party to promise by resolution of Congress eventual independence for the Filipinos. It will become a duty to do so as soon as the Filipinos have, under the Government now forming, proved a capacity for self-rule—an event which may be confidently predicted for the near future. A choice still lies before this nation, and that choice must be a right one—this is the tenor of President Schurman's clarifying discussion.

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In view of his proper attitude in the case of Gen. J. B. Smith, it is cause for regret that President Roosevelt did not see fit to rebuke the court-martial which tried Major Glenn. That tribunal let off this chief offender among the water-cure torturers with a petty fine of $50 and only one month's suspension, while Lieut. Gaujot escaped with a fine of $150 and three months' suspension. As we have already pointed out, the President has no power to increase the sentence of a court-martial, and disapproval in these cases would merely have let the guilty officers escape without any penalty. But it was in the President's power to rebuke a court-martial which so flagrantly failed to guard the honor of the service by imposing sentences commensurate with the of-

fence. In the case of Lieut. N. E. Cook of the Philippine Scouts, found not guilty, the President did withhold his approval of the findings. In other words, he believes Lieut. Cook to have committed the crime alleged. But here, too, the President was silent. It may well be that he considered his statement in the Smith case sufficient; nevertheless, he has let slip a rare opportunity for improving the spirit of the army. It is interesting to note in this connection that, of the six officers thus far tried, three have been found guilty by the court and three by the reviewing officers, despite confident assertions that there was no such thing as official wrongdoing in the Philippines.

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A question of considerable interest, in relation to the proposed Cuban loan of $35,000,000, concerns the prospect of floating such securities. The situation is peculiar. If the information cabled from Havana is correct, the bond issue cannot bear a higher rate than 5 per cent., and cannot be sold for less than 90. Now, a 5 per cent. loan of a strong government, sold for less than par, would be a very inviting investment. It may be that the rate and the discount would attract investors in this case. If the loan is really necessary, and if the prospect for its redemption has been prudently calculated, it is to be hoped that it can be floated, and it probably can. But the matter is not simple. The loan would have to be raised in New York city. It is almost certain that it could not be placed abroad. London is finding trouble in placing securities of its own colonies. It has lately had to withdraw from a market a British Columbian loan, already offered. Of Government securities now outstanding, bonds of states in high credit sell, to be sure, at a level which yields not more than 3 per cent. on par. But the question of credit is closely scrutinized. Brazilian 5 per cent. funding bonds sell below par; Chilian 5s, for less than 90; Argentine 6s, below par. It is true that the currency question cuts a figure in some of these quotations; but it is clear enough that, without a United States guarantee, the Cuban borrowings would be judged abroad in the light of experience with other West Indian and South American republics.

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The revenue-reduction law enacted last April contemplated, roughly, $75,000,000 curtailment in annual public income. As the surplus revenue for the fiscal year ended with June, 1901, was $92,000,000, the reduction seemed sufficiently conservative. It probably will turn out to be so, though results for the first month in the new fiscal year are somewhat curious. To begin with, internal revenue, in which last April's cuts were made, falls $6,700,000 under last July. This is about the monthly average expected. But as against this reduction, the month's customs revenue rises $3,100,000 over 1901, and $4,800,000 over 1900. This offset would be effectual but for a third change in the fiscal movement—an increase of $4,500,000 in the month's expenditure. The net result is an unexpectedly large deficit. The Treasury reports that most of this increased outlay comes from payment on old State war claims. If so, the normal expenditure would be only a trifle over 1901, and for future months the rise in customs receipts and fall of internal revenue would be left to score against one another. We are inclined to think, however, that the increase in public expenditure, under the larger appropriations of the last session of Congress, will go on.

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When Mr. Pierpont Morgan, five months ago, was explaining in court the reasons for the Northern Securities "holding company," he remarked that its $400,000,000 stock was an important consideration. The company would control the Northern Pacific, the Great Northern, and the Burlington, and, Mr. Morgan added, "it is not within the range of human probabilities that any single interest will be able to buy the control of the Northern Securities Company away from its present owners." This was a logical proposition; its practical working out, moreover, involved merely the issue of new shares for old. The Burlington purchase at 200, to be sure, was extravagant, and the issue of bonds to pay for it was an exceedingly dangerous example. But, as to this, Mr. Morgan testified that the price was paid "because we could not get the control at any lower figure." The Rock Island project, now officially set forth, shows that the theories of our capitalists to-day have drifted as far from Mr. Morgan's position of last March as that position had moved from the original "community-of-interest" plan. Where Mr. Morgan's plan contemplated companies whose control would be so costly that no one could pay the price, the new idea looks to a company whose control will be so cheap that its present owners can keep it for a trifle. In the famous Northern Pacific contest, a majority of the company's $150,000,000 stock was actually purchased, costing some $78,000,000; but Mr. Morgan thought that half of the $400,000,000 Northern Securities would not easily be purchased. Control of Rock Island, as acquired by the present ruling party, is thought to have cost some $45,000,000; but, with the present fixing of virtual control in $54,000,000 new preferred shares, which will sell at a heavy discount, the same interests can probably keep control through the use of barely $16,000,000.

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It is not so long ago that Mr. G. K. Chesterton, or some other commentator of British society, was writing on the lack of originality in millionaires, and the subject has been again treated in the "Contributors' Club" of the last *Atlantic*. Naturally, Mr. Carnegie and his perennial gifts of libraries were more or less in mind, and served as the butt of certain good-natured shafts. It was not wholly safe, even at the height of his library activities, to cite Mr. Carnegie as an awful example of a rich man in a rut, and it now appears that originality may be displayed even in the giving of libraries. Certainly it is a graceful thing to give the books which Lord Acton enriched by his marginalia to that man in England who is best fitted to use them to his own and the common profit; and when this vast collection in mediæval history finally passes into some public library, it will come with enhanced associations from the fact that, through Mr. Carnegie's courtesy, John Morley fell heir to the books and literary materials of Lord Acton. It is seldom given to be generous with this grace, and that year will be memorable in the annals of graceful giving which saw the timely purchase of the poet Carducci's books by the Queen Dowager of Italy and the transfer of Lord Acton's library to Mr. John Morley.

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Another bye-election has gone against the English Government, and so unexpectedly and with such a staggering reversal of majorities as to amount to a political disaster. North Leeds has been Conservative since 1880. It was put down as the safest of safe seats, the Tory majority in the last general election being 2,500. Now the Liberals have won it by more than 700. Moreover, they fought their campaign on what the Imperialists would call the most miserable of parochial issues—the Education Bill (which the Government has given too much the appearance of class favoritism) and free trade. Lord Rosebery's saying that the victory should be a warning to the Liberals not to support Irish Home Rule, was a singularly ill-chosen comment on it. The fact was, that the Liberal candidate, Mr. Barran, had for some time avoided in his canvass all mention of the Irish question, but at last, under pressure from his constituency, had declared himself in favor of the historic Gladstonian policy. But for this, and the winning of the Irish vote, it was thought he could not possibly have been elected. It would be a queer thing, then, for Rosebery and his Imperial League to meet to congratulate the new member, and improve the occasion to denounce the programme on which he secured his triumph. For the rest, Lord Rosebery's speech seems to have been rather a darkening of Liberal counsels, and a quite unnecessary and ill-timed insistence upon the things that divide a party in great need of being united.

*IOWA AND TARIFF REFORM.*

The Republican State Convention held last week at Des Moines, Iowa, has excited a national interest by reason of the lively controversy which preceded and attended its meeting, as to the attitude which it should take toward the tariff question. Albert B. Cummins, a representative of the younger generation of politicians, as compared with Senator Allison and other veteran party leaders, was elected Governor, last year, upon a platform which recognized the necessity of tariff reform and demanded the requisite legislation. After declaring adherence to "the historic policy" of the party in giving protection to American industry, and "pointing with pride" to its vindication in the extraordinarily rapid development of our national resources ascribed to this policy, the resolutions of 1901 proceeded to affirm that "we favor such changes in the tariff from time to time as may become advisable through the progress of our industries and their changing relations to the commerce of the world." This was followed by an endorsement of reciprocity as "the natural complement of protection," and a call for its development as necessary to the realization of our highest commercial possibilities; and then came a plain-spoken demand for "any modification of the tariff schedules that may be required to prevent their affording shelter to monopoly."

Last year was an "off year" in our politics, only a very few States keeping Iowa company in the choice of a Governor, and no national officials being elected. This year the lower branch of Congress is to be elected, and a number of States will choose Legislatures which must in turn name members of the Senate. Moreover, the Congressional election which comes midway in a Presidential term is regarded by many politicians as "the opening gun" for the national campaign, two years later. In 1901, therefore, the question which was raised by the Iowa Republicans in their tariff deliverance was largely academic, while in 1902 it is a matter of practical importance how they stand on an issue that will surely be raised in the Congress to which the other forty-four States as well as Iowa elect Representatives. It is a long time since there has been a more vigorous contest in any commonwealth as to the position which the party should take on a question not only of concern to the nation, but having a bearing on the relations of the party in one State to the organization as a whole.

Practically, the issue came down to this, whether the Republicans of Iowa ought to declare themselves in favor of such a revision of the tariff as would remove its shelter to Trusts, or ought to ignore the whole question. The division was not strictly along lines of age, but, as a rule, the older leaders, like Senator Allison and Speaker Henderson, favored a policy of silence, while most of the younger generation, represented by Gov. Cummins and Mint Director Roberts, who now controls the leading party organ, advocated a reaffirmation of the resolutions adopted last year. It was urged, on the one side, that a State Convention ought not to attempt to make national platforms for the party, but an appeal to the records showed that, a quarter of a century ago, in 1877, when the financial issue was burning, Iowa Republicans expressly demanded the resumption of specie payments. It was also argued by the conservatives that the resolution in question was virtually a plea of guilty to the Democratic charge that the tariff is the parent of Trusts; but the progressives replied that the language expressed the exact views of a large majority of the party, that it had stood the test of one campaign, and that its elimination would make it an issue in this year's campaign, put the party on the defensive, and lead the people to believe that the party was changing front on the Trust question. The fight was waged with great vigor in the Committee on Resolutions, but, when the opponents of tariff reform had been beaten there, they concluded to surrender, and not a voice was raised in opposition to the platform when it was reported to the Convention.

It is interesting to note that in this action there is a reversion on the part of Iowa Republicanism, under new leadership, towards the position on the tariff which was occupied by the party in the same State twenty-five years ago. When the late John H. Gear (afterwards Senator) was first elected Governor in 1877, he stood upon a platform which declared that "we favor a wisely adjusted tariff for revenue"; and this resolution was adopted without change by the convention of 1878—a year of Congressional elections—as well as by that of 1879, when Mr. Gear was nominated for a second term. Mr. Allison, then in middle life, and serving the first of his five terms in the Senate, was in sympathy with this attitude, and nobody questioned the orthodoxy of any Republican who held such views. Gov. Cummins and his school may therefore claim that they are only following in the footsteps of their fathers.

The action of the Iowa convention would be significant and encouraging if the Des Moines platform stood by itself as an index of Republican sentiment in the Middle West. But there is abundant evidence that a host of Republicans throughout that section agree with their Iowa brethren in this matter. If the recent Wisconsin convention had been allowed by the party dictator to express its views on national questions, it would undoubtedly have shown its sympathy with the demand for tariff reform, but Gov. La Follette insisted that the campaign should be made on State issues. Even some Republican leaders of the older generation openly and earnestly favor such a declaration of principles as the Iowa convention has made. The veteran Senator Cullom of Illinois told the *Tribune* correspondent in Washington last week that he believed the Iowa expression "just about voices the sentiment of the Republican masses throughout the West," adding: "I know it is the way the Republicans of my State feel, and I am convinced that, the sooner we take this matter up and dispose of it, the better it will be for the country and the party."

The *Tribune*, to be sure, in its editorial columns attempts to minimize the importance of the Iowa plank by emphasizing the fact that it was only a repetition of a declaration which made no great stir a year ago; but its Washington correspondent is more candid in admitting that this circumstance "does not detract from the importance of the action from the point of view of party leaders here." The same authority represents the movement as of vital importance in at least three Congressional districts of Iowa, which are now represented by Republicans who opposed "reaffirming" last year's deliverances at Des Moines, and who say they will not make their own campaigns on any tariff-revision platform. It does not need the evidence which other newspapers furnish from all parts of the country to show that shrewd politicians recognize the action just taken in Iowa as highly important.

*MR. BABCOCK RECANTS.*

Seldom can a public man have more unblushingly advertised his own inconsistency and insincerity than has Congressman Babcock, in the statement which, as Chairman of the Republican Congressional Committee, he gave to the press in Washington on July 30. He not only swallowed his own words and spit upon his own acts, but went out of his way to do it, and gloried in trampling upon his own record. "There is only one thing worse than the cant of politics," said Lord John Russell on a certain occasion, "and that is the recant." Mr. Babcock has recanted, and has added to that humiliation by appearing to be unconscious of his own shame. It is not every prominent man who can thus cheerfully give the world the option of believing him either knave or fool.

The melancholy details of Mr. Babcock's moral suicide can be briefly given. He comes out, like a master of jeers and flouts, with ridicule of the Democratic contention that tariff protection should be removed from manufactured goods which are sold cheaper abroad than at home. What if they are? asks Congressman Babcock airily. It is only "a rule of the trade," he says, that surplus products must go cheaper to the foreigner. The Democrats can make nothing of that issue. "We are not afraid to ask the

country to continue the Republican party in power in order that those policies [the present tariff] may be continued in effect." But if he was not afraid of that, did he not dread that his own previous attitude and language would be thrown in his teeth? Who was it that was making all the row last winter about removing needless and abused protective duties? Congressman Babcock. Who made himself so offensive on this subject to the party leaders that Speaker Henderson was urged to keep him off the Committee on Ways and Means? Mr. Babcock. Who introduced a bill to take off the tariff from iron and steel products, spoke for it, voted for it, divided the Ways and Means Committee on it, boasted of it, swore he would never abandon it, vowed that the party would be defeated if it rejected the measure? Why, this same Joseph W. Babcock!

Almost exactly a year ago he was expounding his unalterable convictions to the editor of the *Southwestern Wisconsin* which published his letter. "I maintain," declared the then valiant Babcock, "that it is a part of the policy of protection to protect the consumer." He explained precisely what he meant: "We can to-day produce and undersell the world. Shall we continue a tariff on articles that are, in fact, articles of export? If Congress maintains a tariff on such articles, the whole theory of protection falls to the ground, and it simply inures to the benefit of those who may secure the control of any such commodity, *since by its aid they can fix exorbitant prices in the domestic market.*" Then, with a swell of indignant virtue in his voice, Mr. Babcock asked, "How can such a policy be defended?" Well, he has answered his own question. Get yourself elected chairman of the campaign committee, show how beautifully "holler" you are fashioned in order to "swaller" with ease your own principles, and you can defend with moral vehemence this or any other policy which you have previously denounced as infamous. D'Azeglio explained the process in the case of the Carbonaro who was asked to break his oath: "Eccellenza, I cannot; it is impossible. . . . You understand, I have taken an oath—give me at least another ducat!"

Mr. Babcock's sad case is worth dwelling upon because he illustrates, in his not very important personality, the too common recklessness of American politicians in pitching their character out of the window. They seem to think that stability and unshaken honesty are of absolutely no value in politics. To acquire a reputation for sobriety and courage and independence seems to be often their aim for a time, as it was apparently Mr. Babcock's; but when the crucial day comes, they throw it away, as he has done, with incredible indifference, and the most coolly insolent assumption that the public will not perceive anything amiss, or will not care if it does. But this is really an insult to the people which they have never been slow to resent. They will not fail to do so, we believe, whenever the occasion fairly offers. Unless the whole American nation is to become a mere weather-cock like the frivolous Babcock, it will remain in its old choice of solidity and consistency and clear honesty in the men whom it delights to honor.

The affair runs beyond the mere person of the unfortunate Babcock in another particular. It shows the bottomless hypocrisy of the pretence of the Republican party that it will, all in good time, and if only let alone, reform the tariff itself. All its talk in that vein has been uniformly and historically hollow. Not one of its party platforms has, in this matter, been able to sustain the weight of a single campaign. Always, as we see again to-day, the stirrings of Democratic opposition, or mutterings within the ranks of the Republican party itself, only lead the protectionist Old Man of the Sea to grip the Republican neck with a more strangling clutch. We shall never see tariff abuses made an end of until an impulse comes from those who suffer from tariff corruption, not from those who profit by it in both pocket and politics. Congressman Babcock's indecent retreat from his own position shows that there will have to be an exterior force, a *vis a tergo*, applied, before Americans may hope to have the monstrosities of their tariff shorn away.

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*THE HANDICAP OF MILITARISM.*

That the Czar has not abandoned his hope of bringing about partial disarmament in Europe, is asserted in a recent dispatch from Rome. It explains that the late visit of the King of Italy to St. Petersburg led to an exchange of views on the possibility of an international agreement for reducing European armaments. The same subject, it is further stated, will be discussed by the Emperor William and King Victor when the latter makes his approaching journey to Berlin. What the European Powers are said to be more and more clearly perceiving is that the modern world is an industrial world, not a fighting world; that the race is to the nation which, other things being equal, carries the lightest burden of taxation; and that the risk of a war on the Continent is now so slight that the crushing military expenditures of the several countries may be cut down in a way to enable them to face with more composure "the American peril"—that is, a trade invasion by the United States.

We do not accept these reports for gospel truth. There is doubtless in them much drawing the bow at a venture. Europe will not disarm to-morrow, nor the day after. But if her rulers are not openly saying that their peoples are staggering under too great a weight of militarism, in the struggle for commercial supremacy, they are saying it privately; if they are not thinking about this evil as one which threatens public peace and content, they ought to be. King Victor is said to be a monarch of clear eyes and progressive ideas; how, then, can he fail to reflect often on the ruinous taxes which drive so many of Italy's sons over-seas every year to escape the misery that overwhelms them at home? With the military budget cut down one-half or more, the forced exile of Italians would not be what we see it. And if the autocratic rulers of Russia did not feel themselves compelled by military necessity to wring taxes from the wretched peasantry who spend their lives but one step from starvation, no one can doubt that they would find the task of government made immensely easier.

The thing that comes home to an American with sardonic force, in all this talk of Europe's shaking her toilers free of the traditional soldier strapped on the back of each of them, is that we are preparing to load ourselves down with the same burden, at the very moment that our industrial rivals over the ocean are planning to get rid of it. But a few days ago we had a long and half-official account from Washington of the scheme to use the "war game," about to be played by army and navy near this city, and especially the great concentration of the fleet in West Indian waters next winter, as a means of whipping Congress into granting "big appropriations." We must have a much stronger navy, is the cry of the War College; and to make the matter precise, we are informed that our leading "scholar" in strategics is convinced that we shall have a war with Germany in 1907—that is, unless we make our navy so powerful that Germany will not dare to attack us. This "thoughtful officer" observes that the maximum of the German shipbuilding programme will be attained five years from now; it has been revealed to him that Germany will about that time make a dash for the Dutch islands in the Caribbean; and accordingly he declares it our immediate duty to get ready a navy able to frighten off the Kaiser's strongest.

This particular bit of naval metaphysics has its amusing side. Nothing shows the officer in question to be more truly "thoughtful" than the care with which he singled out his antagonist. Does the thoughtless reader suppose he had any special enmity against Germany? Not the least in the world. It simply happens that the German navy, as planned, is the next above ours in strength. It is, therefore, the one we must first surpass. Hence this transcendental speculation about the coming war with Germany. Why did not the prophetic soul of the "thoughtful officer,"

brooding on wars to come, predict one with France, or even Great Britain? We make few pretensions ourselves to alarmist "thought" of this kind, but we would undertake to point out an even greater likelihood of a clash with the French or British navy than with the German. But, don't you see? if we were to call upon Congress at once for as many battleships as France or England has, the people would take alarm, and the whole game would be given away. So we must restrict our gaze for the present to merely the next strongest naval Power, and get up a scare about the others later.

The whole question of the connection between heavy military expenditure and heavy taxation, and between heavy taxation and a handicapped trade and discontent and revolution, had its classic discussion and its correct settlement in England between 1845 and 1860. It was not only the free lance, Cobden, but the responsible Minister, Sir Robert Peel, who laid down the true principles in this business. He bluntly repudiated the lying old maxim, "If you wish peace, prepare for war." His reasons were two: If a Government were to listen to the advice and warnings of military experts, even the most overwhelming taxation would not produce money enough, and the people would be driven to desperation. More than that, Sir Robert boldly said, it is "impossible to secure a country against all conceivable risks." Risk must be run. Peaceful nations cannot go about armed to the teeth because it is possible some mad aggressor may wickedly attack them, any more than the average citizen is in duty bound to carry sword and revolver to repel a barely possible assault by a highwayman. We have to be guided by reason and probability; and reason and probability are dead against overburdening an industrial nation with taxes that may be unnecessary, and that are certain to disable it in competition for the world market.

It was this practical consideration, mainly, that made Cobden a lover of peace. To free industry from the shackles of militarism was his dream and aim. This was why he said that he should "die happy" if he could feel "the satisfaction of having in some degree contributed to the partial disarmament of the world." Now, is it not a perverse thing, a very irony of fate, that free America, just emerging into the sight of the world as the greatest manufacturing and exporting nation, should voluntarily handicap herself in this way? Already we spend $78,000,000 a year on our navy—more than three times its annual cost ten years ago. Must this vast sum be doubled? To guard ourselves against remote and speculative dangers, must we throw away our great opportunity for the present industrial conquest of the world? If we do, under the persuasion of our military theorists, we shall be guilty of an act of national folly unparalleled in history.

### *THE TEACHING OF ART IN UNIVERSITIES.*

The announcement of the proposed formation of a Department of Fine Arts by Columbia University, and the highly interesting comments thereon of Mr. Russell Sturgis, in an open letter to President Butler, dated June 10, bring up for discussion by others the whole question of the teaching of art in universities. How much and what kind of instruction in the arts of design should be attempted by the university? That some such instruction should be attempted, we may take for granted all agree. It has been one of the greatest weaknesses of education in the past that it has been too exclusively literary, so that the most highly educated have often been men for whom the arts of design scarcely existed; men who, if they troubled themselves at all about such arts, entirely and profoundly misunderstood them, and misconceived their purpose and methods. The self-made millionaire has, at least in English-speaking countries, been much more likely to have an interest in and an eye for art than the college president. This is lamentable, but it is true, and the result is a literary narrowness that has marked some of our greatest scholars, our deepest thinkers, and even our highest poets. They have understood the poetry of Greece but not its sculpture, the history of the Middle Ages but not their architecture, the thought of the Renaissance but not its painting; and in each case they have failed to understand what is precisely the most characteristic manifestation of the race and of the age. Some teaching of art, then, is admittedly necessary to a broad general culture. What shall it be?

Mr. Sturgis's answer is this: It "should be limited to history, theory, critical examination of ancient and modern works of art, and of the schools and large groups into which we divide them for the sake of convenience; and, . . . in connection with this theoretical study, such arts as are not manual arts may may be taught "more or less well" by a is that "university education has to do with all that can be taught in words, and all that is expressible in the language of words," while "a manual art has nothing to do with the thoughts which are expressible in words; by it thoughts are expressed wholly otherwise." He would allow that architecture may be taught "more or less well" by a university, because architecture is hardly so much an art to-day as a science: sculpture and painting are distinctly "manual arts" in his view—"they are the result of the skilled hand of man inspired directly by the mind which has, by nature and by training, a peculiar ability not noticeable in the ordinary pursuits of mankind." Such training cannot be given by words or by any conceivable course of lectures; it must be given "by what used to be called apprenticeship, by the actual touch of the matured artist, watched, imitated, analyzed insensibly, studied continually by the pupil." Moreover, this apprenticeship, whether, as preferably, in the master's own workshop or, as is most likely under modern conditions, in the "art-school," should begin early in life. Fifteen is, according to Mr. Sturgis, and he is right, none too early an age for its beginning. In modern times a few artists have achieved greatness in spite of late beginnings; but they have seldom been technical masters; and in the days when men really knew how to paint, they were put to the trade in their earliest youth.

This reasoning we take to be perfectly sound and conclusive, as far as it goes. The university can never make painters and sculptors as it makes doctors and lawyers, and attempts to make musicians and architects. Does it follow that it should not try to teach some drawing and modelling? In the first place it may be pointed out that in painting, for instance, there is an art, a science, and a handicraft. The art cannot be taught at all and never has been; the craft cannot be successfully taught by a university; the science, that of visual aspects, is as much a scientific study as any other; and if all science is the province of the university, this science also should be taught there. It cannot be taught by words alone, without actual practice in drawing and painting; therefore, some practical instruction in such work should be a part of the scientific equipment of a university. We do not attempt to teach chemistry without a laboratory, or anatomy without dissection, so that, in a sense, manual training is already a part of university education.

After all, why should university education have to do *only* with "all that can be taught in words and all that is expressible in the language of words"? Is it not the ideal of the university to produce the highest human efficiency as well as the broadest culture, and is not athletics to-day really a part of every university curriculum? The Greeks would have thought little of an education that trained the brain without training the senses. To-day we seem all agreed, on utilitarian grounds, that drawing should be taught in the public schools; why should that teaching cease when university training begins? Drawing is a language and a science, and every human being would be more efficient in any department of life if he had as much of that language and that science as he was capable of mastering.

Suppose, however, that we scorn utility, and that our idea of a university is, like Lowell's, that it should be a place where nothing useful is taught. We allow that the history and theory of art, that archæology and æsthetics, are proper subjects of instruction. But it is pre-

cisely because these things have been taught by men with an exclusively literary education that they have been taught wrongly. No man without some practical training in art ever at all understood the art he theorized about; and those who have thought that education should deal only with what is expressible in words have spun words endlessly and darkened counsel. Goethe knew better, and, when he wished to saturate himself with the Greek spirit, he drew from the antique. It is not probable that he drew very well, but it *is* probable that he learned more than if he had spent the time reading Winckelmann. The few books on art that are worth reading have been written by practising artists; and more insight into what painting really is and what painters try to do is to be got from an hour of Fromentin or La Farge than from a year's study of æsthetics.

To conclude: The university will not succeed in training practical artists. Art is, however, one of the most important activities of humanity, and the works of art left us by the past are the most permanent record of the feelings and ideals of mankind. Some knowledge of and feeling for art, especially the arts of design, is requisite to any true and high culture, and the university should endeavor to give such knowledge and to cultivate such feeling. This has never been done, and can never be done to any purpose without some practical training in drawing and modelling, or both. Therefore the university, besides courses of lectures on art history and theory, illustrated by such collections of works of art or of reproductions of them as it can attain to, should give practical instruction, by the best masters, in the arts of design.

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### *EDUCATION FOR WOMEN IN GERMANY.*

The recent death in Leipzig of Fräulein Augusta Schmidt, for years one of the ablest leaders of the German movement for larger social and educational opportunities for women, has called forth respectful tributes to her ability and her high ideals from many German newspapers. Like Frau Louisa Otto-Peters, who died in 1895, Frl. Schmidt was a pioneer in this field of activity, entering it when the slightest connection with the woman's-rights movement entailed unlimited abuse and ridicule. Their opponents were quick to say that it was not more schools and industrial openings for women at which these agitators really aimed, but the upsetting of the entire social order and the unsexing of women. They were, therefore, ranked with anarchists, socialists, and Social-Democrats, even when Augusta Schmidt declined to let Social-Democratic women's clubs enter the national association of women's clubs, which she had founded after an American model. That Frl. Schmidt should have lived long enough to see old prejudices overthrown in many directions, and to have won respectful obituaries even from her severest critics, is proof positive of the marked change in the status of women which has taken place in Germany within the last thirty, or even twenty years.

Herself a teacher, it was her knowledge of the difficulties besetting young women who desired to become really qualified instructors that first led Augusta Schmidt into movements designed to benefit her countrywomen as a whole. With Frau Otto-Peters she founded, in 1865, the Leipzig society for the education of women. By 1890 she was able to take part in the establishment of a national women teachers' association, and in 1895 she became the first president of the League of German Women's Clubs, already referred to. In 1865 she was one of two or three German women to dare to speak in public. In 1902 she not only saw her cause warmly championed by the political party numerically strongest in the Empire, but even heard the Minister of the Interior declare in the Reichstag that much must be done to widen the present industrial opportunities for women. Any one familiar with the ordinary German attitude towards women, and the intense feeling existing, ten or fifteen years ago, against those engaged in industrial pursuits, must admit that Augusta Schmidt and her fellow-laborers expressed from the beginning a tendency and a movement of the times which can no more be stayed by German conservatism than by French prejudice or American indifference.

In her exhaustive study of the woman question recently published in Leipzig Frau Lily Braun has traced the growth of the movement of which Augusta Schmidt died the leader. The organization of her countrywomen in clubs she finds as significant as the similar movement in the United States has proved to be. Since the state would not help in educating women, some of these women's clubs undertook the task. The *Letteverein* began this work in Berlin in 1866, with the aid of and under the direction of men. "We demand only that the arena of work be opened to women," was the motto of Augusta Schmidt's Leipzig society. It had among its members many, like Fanny Lewald-Stahr, who worked secretly to keep body and soul together "because it was not proper for women of her class to earn money." They were not daunted by many indignant rebuffs when they applied for Government help in establishing advanced schools for women teachers, or by the general condemnation of the learned classes. Their example was rapidly followed in other parts of the empire, but it was not until well along in the eighties than an Englishwoman was able to establish the first high school for women in Berlin, by the aid of the *Letteverein* and private generosity, together with the encouragement of the late Empress Frederick.

By the end of the eighties the agitation for improved educational facilities was better organized, and became so insistent that from that time forward substantial victories were won. The universities soon began to receive German women, but only as "guests." In 1893, women were allowed to take the final examinations at the Government boys' schools called gymnasia. In many cities courses corresponding to those taught in the gymnasia were established by private associations or by the municipal authorities. In two of the smaller cities girls were admitted to the boys' schools. Munich and Breslau then attempted to establish gymnasia for women, but this was too much for the Minister of Public Instruction. He declared that he must "put out this spark before it became a devastating flame," and Governmental sanction for the undertaking was promptly withheld. It mattered not that Russia had already had such schools for thirty years, and that China was about to establish one; in this instance the forward movement met with a distinct check.

But it was only for a moment, since in 1899 women were admitted to the state examinations in medicine and pharmacy. Since then the German Cabinet has been working diligently to remove every obstacle in the path of women doctors, despite the fact that, when the first petition bearing on this matter was presented to the Reichstag in 1891, it was deemed a revolutionary document, full of pestilential American teaching about the rights of women, and not even a hearing was granted. State examinations for women seeking places as Oberlehrerinnen (advanced teachers) were established at the Victoria Lyceum and the Humboldt Academy in Berlin, and at the University of Göttingen. Most gratifying of all, however was the action of the Universities of Heidelberg and Freiburg in Baden in admitting women to all the rights and privileges pertaining to men. Even in Germany the world has moved—in this case with surprising suddenness, considering the conservativism of centuries to be overcome.

But the advocates of equal educational privileges for women are by no means content with these advances. Contrasting them with what has been accomplished elsewhere, Frau Braun finds the progress slow and hesitating, however it may seem to an outsider, and she states that in the industrial world there are few victories to rejoice over. There is, none the less, a great change in public sentiment to record. No one would have dreamed, twenty years ago, that an imperial minister would dare to ask great industrial openings for women, who outnumber the men in Germany by no less

than a million souls. Nor would any German professor have ventured in the eighties to declare publicly, as Professor Harnack did last May, that the woman's educational movement is in every sense praiseworthy, and that the woman without a profession or occupation is a dead weight in the community. He confidently expects an improvement in the morals of men and women, and better relations between the sexes, as a result of the changes now taking place. It must not be forgotten that the presence of hundreds, if not thousands, of cultured and attractive American women has helped to instil into German minds a higher ideal for womankind than that typified by the Hausfrau—too often a mere upper servant, whose ignorance renders mental companionship with husbands or sons an impossibility.

## A FRENCHMAN'S DIARY IN OUR CIVIL-WAR TIME.—IV.

January 14, 1865.—With Commodore Drayton, visited the Navy-yard. In the evening, dined with Senator Sprague: Chase, Sumner, Agassiz, Dana, M. de Gerolt.

Off for City Point, armed with a pass from Mr. Lincoln written wholly in his own hand. Arrived at the wharf of embarkation, in military occupation, I show my pass and go aboard the steamboat with numerous officers and some civilians—paymasters, army contractors. No civilian is allowed to take his baggage to his state-room—a precaution adopted against incendiaries, who might introduce combustibles. All the baggage is collected in a room guarded by a special officer. The boat puts out amid river ice. We have a view of the huge buildings of the Arsenal, the hay magazine, the hills crowned with forts. At every moment boats cross our course. Everything with an engine has been requisitioned, even to old ferry-boats.

We stop at Alexandria to take on convalescent soldiers returning to the army; on the wharf, quite a population of black stevedores. Proceeding, we perceive the white walls of Mt. Vernon, behind the trees of the promontory. State-rooms were allotted after leaving Alexandria. A young colonel of the 130th New York obligingly procures one for me. He belongs in Trobriand's brigade and praises his chief highly. The morale of the army is excellent. Since Grant interdicted whiskey, there has been no more drunkenness, and few punishments are necessary. I scrape acquaintance with a big, square-headed German with gray moustaches, a revolutionary Forty-eighter from Hesse-Darmstadt. He is an officer of engineers, and kindly sketches for me the lines before Richmond—three front lines protected by forts, a rear line likewise protected. The army is camped in this gigantic gut. In the evening the pilot perceives a great fire which is for a moment taken to be a burning steamer, but turns out to be a house.

In the morning I woke not far from Fortress Monroe, the most important on the coast. On the tiny island, the Rip-Raps, facing it, a large stone fort is in process of construction to command the entrance to Chesapeake Bay. We enter the vast Hampton Roads. At Newport News is visible on the beach the skeleton of the *Congress*, sunk by the *Merrimac* in its contest with the *Monitor;* further on, some remains of the *Cumberland*, which went down in the same fight. We pass near the *Florida*, a Confederate pirate, whose two canting masts are almost wholly out of water. The air is very mild. The broad and lazy river James flows between wooded banks. We cross the bar, meeting some transport constantly. Curious types of officers—a few foreign veterans; youngsters silent and thoughtful; old heads, bronzed, fagged, gaunt, with shaggy beards and hair; no apparent hierarchy. For a detail of costume: each officer wears the characteristic badge of his corps d'armée.—Fort Powhatan, dominating the plain reached by Grant's army after his bloody campaign across Virginia. From there the army threw itself upon Petersburg.—Deserted plantations of the Wilcoxes, the Seldons (whose house was built two centuries ago of English brick), the Harrisons. At Harrison's Landing one may still see traces of the camps in which the Army of the Potomac was shut up for two months.—At last, City Point, announced by a forest of masts. We draw near amid a fleet of schooners, transports, and tugboats. Improvised wooden structures line the levee. A railroad built on the muddy slope of the stream appears.

I exhibit my pass and am directed to headquarters, which overlooks the harbor and is indicated by a large stars-and-stripes. I am taken to the Office, a log cabin consisting of but a single room. Lt. Col. Bowers reads Charles Sumner's letter to Grant brought by me, and examines my pass in Lincoln's handwriting. He tells me the General is ill, but he himself is entirely at my disposal. As there is no empty tent to-day for night occupation, I must sleep at the hotel, a big wooden affair run up in several days.

Walked about the camp and came upon a black regiment. Dined with the officers of the General Staff; a short and silent meal. At the Office in the evening.

The next day I set off by rail, Col. Bowers giving me a young officer named Porter to accompany me to Meade's headquarters. We traverse great woods, at this moment given over to remorseless choppers. Meade Station—Hancock Station—Parke Station; before us is Meade's flag, at the top of a small knoll. I seek Gen. Hunt, chief of artillery, who breakfasts me and takes me to the lines. Visit Fort Wadsworth, Fort Wilcox, situated on the extreme left, whence we perceive the line of Federal pickets marked by smoke; beyond, the line of Confederate pickets; and still beyond, a Confederate fort. Visited the Federal pickets. At present there is a tacit truce. We see distinctly the Confederate sentinels pacing deliberately, gun under arm. We examine them at our leisure with a field-glass; we might talk with them if we raised our voices slightly. During such truces the pickets of the two camps communicate with one another, in spite of their officers' orders. They exchange coffee for tobacco, New York papers for Richmond. I chat a moment with a group of German pickets, who tell me, laughing, that a moment before our arrival some Confederates had gone for wood to a thicket where the Federals were cutting, and had retired without being molested. The Johnnies and the Yankees are almost friends at this extreme limit where the armies are closest together. The General is disturbed only by the new Confederate fort, which is going up in a good position, and intends to mount guns of heavier calibre in Fort Walsh.

I bid adieu in German to the soldiers with whom I have been talking, and we return to headquarters. Smoke hangs over the camp and fills the aisles of the pine forest. Distant drums, military brass, galloping steeds, braying mules, lowing cattle in their pens, fill the air with strange sounds. Night falls. The tent-lights, the sparkling smoke, spot here and there the illimitable pitchy background. We dine in the tent. After a modest repast, Gen. Hunt conducts me to Gen. Meade's wooden house. I see a tall, lean-faced man, with gray beard, retreating and bald forehead, large nose suggesting a bird of prey, a face without much character. The General himself accompanies me back to the station through the quagmire. In default of passenger-coaches, I return to headquarters in a baggage-car in company with a German officer of the topographic service.

I spend some time at headquarters. The General Staff is very small, and its work enormous, yet done methodically and without fuss. An Indian colonel, with the copper color of the Redskins, is one of the workers. On the eve of my departure, Grant, hitherto silent, asks me to walk with him after dinner. He talks of Sumner, who had given me a letter to him, and expresses his sympathy for him, his policy, and his character. He speaks of Lincoln with equal respect and sympathy. He hopes the war will end with the capture of Richmond. Slavery will not survive the war. His language is simple, frank, decided, stripped of all ornament and artifice. I was infinitely touched by this confidence.

In Washington once more. Dined at Senator Morgan's with Mr. Seward, his daughter-in-law, Secretary Welles and his wife, Postmaster-General Denison, Charles Sumner, Admiral and Mrs. Farragut. A very sumptuous dinner; Seward very lively, very chatty, as usual. It would be difficult to say against which he is most incensed for their attitude towards the United States, England or Napoleon III.

January 25.—From Washington to New York. Called on General Scott; fine and imposing face, and a very grand air. He has just published memoirs. In the evening saw Booth as Hamlet, the best acting of the part I have ever seen: a Dantesque, poetic face, no little grace of movement. He represents a simulated madness, and very happily accentuates the incoherences, oddities, the distraught and unconscious side of the rôle.

Went with Bancroft to Bierstadt's studio (he is the landscape painter of the Rocky Mountains and the Yosemite Valley), and to that of Church, more poetic, very much of a colorist, an imitator of Turner. American landscape painters seek the grand rather than the humble, the fantastic rather than the simple.

January 30.—Weymouth. Extracts from a letter of this date to the Duc d'Aumale.

"Monseigneur—I send you a little drawing which will explain to you better than many words the result of my visit to the Army of the James. . . .

"Neither shall I undertake to describe

camp life to one who knows it better than anybody. The little I saw of it left only agreeable impressions. I am grieved to say that I found in all grades of the Army (I except Grant and Meade, who are not very communicative) great irritation against England. Perhaps as great exists against France, but out of politeness was concealed from me. I recall among others a young officer from Vermont, who returned with me from City Point to Washington, saying, 'I have served my time out: I have been three years in the army, and been in fifty-eight engagements or battles. I believe I have done my duty, but I do not like war. What I have done, I have done because my country needs soldiers. I am glad to return to my family and business, and I hope never again to draw the sword. But, sir, if war were declared against England, were it ten years hence, or twenty, I would not wait a day to enter a regiment, as a private if need be.'

"Such is the feeling. I do not discuss it, I simply relate. It is this that renders very difficult the work of Sumner and Seward, who are truly friends of peace. Nevertheless, I have not much faith in the breaking out of war between America and England. The latter country can retrace her steps in time; but every day I grow more apprehensive lest the Mexican affair should drag ourselves into war with the United States. I believe that the American question and the Mexican question are destined to become one of the principal battle-grounds of the French Opposition. It would truly be too unfortunate if some day, through the Emperor's fault, it should be our lot to bear the cost of a war with the United States, after having lost the opportunity of conquering, without drawing the sword and by a few simple words of sympathy, a precious alliance. The grand policy which governs us and whose profound combinations are so much admired, is quite capable eventually of converting traditional sympathy, already chilled by its fault, into sentiments of genuine hostility. Who is to profit by this policy inspired by the simple necessity of doing something different from what old France did? Russia, who alone had the sense to declare her friendship for the United States without making the least sacrifice; and England, who will be charmed to see America's flood of wrath and bitterness diverted from herself, and to whom, in case of war between the United States and France, will fall the world's commerce and the decision of all the great questions relating to the law of nations.

"Unfortunately there is nobody in France to say all this. No one there has yet comprehended the immense scope of the war and of the revolution in the United States. We Parisians prefer the geography of Schleswig-Holstein to that of a vast continent in which Schleswig-Holstein would be but a fly-speck. A great minister like Richelieu or Cavour would have done everything to assure the friendship of the United States. Old World affairs have found lodgment in those of the New World, and will never be absolutely detached from them. America has felt her strength, and will want to make use of it like the bird that feels its wings. We ought to have held ourselves in readiness to profit by this new force, material as well as moral."

February 4.—Boston. Meeting at Music Hall, in which Garrison proclaims his confidence in Lincoln. He will not, like Wendell Phillips, make the question of negro suffrage a weapon against the Government. The right of suffrage is not a natural right. The black man once liberated, the task of the abolitionists is at an end; the social place of the freedmen in the United States will be determined by manifold considerations over which the abolitionists have no control. Gen. Butler, who succeeded Garrison, pleaded at length in favor of the political equality of the two races. His delivery was pompous and vulgar. Butler was relieved from command of the Army of the James. He is almost traitorous in his attacks on Grant and Sherman.

Weymouth.—The Universalist Church of this town has for pastor a woman, the Rev. Olympia Brown, who studied theology at Oberlin College (Ohio). The church edifice is small and of wood, and looks like a lecture-room. Miss Brown occupies a platform at the far end of the hall. Her dress is black and she has no ornament in her hair. Pale and thin, her face has distinction. After the singing of a hymn, she offered prayer, followed by another hymn. She then read her discourse, her one theme being the amendment of the Constitution. This great change has been due not to the war, for war has no liberal action, but to God, to the action of immutable laws. All this was very well phrased, in a firm voice and refined manner. The audience were serious; some of the women wept when the speaker referred to the victims of the war. What especially pleased me in the sermon was that it had a genuine religious accent, and did not appear to have been patterned upon newspaper articles.

After the closing hymn, Miss Brown announced to her congregation a temperance meeting to be held shortly. Then, to my great surprise, she remarked that, one of the members of the congregation having asked for some particulars about a French philosopher, Diderot, of whom she had recently spoken, she would put at his disposal a book from her library. Finally, she gave notice that, at the afternoon service, she would, by the request of several persons, preach on the belief in hell.

February 14.—James Russell Lowell came to spend the day with us at Weymouth. He is witty, and not stingy of his wit. He spoke much of England; he loves her, for is she not "the old country"? Politically, he is a decided partisan of the present Administration. He considers Lincoln to be a superior man, whose glory will equal Washington's. He began to appreciate him after the speech at Gettysburg. Lowell is greatly attached to the memory of Clough, a dreamy spirit, disquieted and poetic, who passed a year at Cambridge, Mass.

I met Lowell again at the *Atlantic* Club, where we dined with Longfellow, Holmes, Agassiz, Governor Andrew, E. P. Whipple. It was very diverting. Holmes related his impressions as a lecturer:

"When I go from place to place, I seem to be constantly meeting the same public everywhere. It is a sort of multivertebrate animal, a serpent that comes every evening to uncoil itself at my feet, looks at me and listens, ready to devour me. The hardest moments for lecturers are those spent in waiting for belated trains. Often, in some out-of-the-way station, in bitter cold, we wait and listen; the slightest noises become perceptible—not only the far-off snapping of a branch under the weight of snow, but the subjective sounds of the human organs. Sight undergoes exaltation as well as hearing; the stars seem to grow bigger. At last the locomotive draws near, the train arrives; we jump on the car platform—the vividest image of salvation."

George William Curtis, one of the most popular lecturers, once went to a village in the State of New York. In view of party differences they begged him not to talk on politics. He had nothing in readiness except a lecture on Thackeray. Nobody in the audience had read one of his novels. Curtis's allusions and criticism fell upon the void. At the close of the lecture, the chief personages came to greet him. "Mr. Curtis," said the schoolmaster, "you must bring about an agreement among us on one point. For a week here we have been disputing over Longfellow, whether he is dead or isn't dead." "I dined with him," answered Curtis, "a fortnight ago." "Ah," said the schoolmaster, visibly disappointed; then, presently: "Anyhow, I'm sure somebody is dead."

Farewell supper at Norton's in Cambridge, with Longfellow, Lowell, and Child.

Attended a philosophical soirée at the house of William R. Alger, a Unitarian clergyman. Mrs. Howe read an essay entitled, "Limitations," second in a series she is about to publish. The next day I dined with her and her oldest daughter, a charming young person.

AUGUSTE LAUGEL.

## THE STATUS OF HISTORY IN SOUTHERN EDUCATION.

RANDOLPH-MACON COLLEGE, VA.,
July, 1902.

One would naturally expect a keen appreciation of historical studies on the part of Southerners. Nowhere in the Union is there such tenacious reverence for the past and its traditions, nowhere else does each individual so readily make the history of his State or section a personal matter. Yet there is no section of the country in which both local and national history is so little studied and so imperfectly understood. To be sure, there are Southern writers and strictly Southern text-books, but the writers are in the main special pleaders, and the text-books are dependent on books written at the North, not on investigation of the sources at hand. I propose to inquire briefly into the causes of this backwardness.

The ruling classes of society are usually responsible for the kind of training the young receive, and this applies particularly to collegiate training. Education is directed from above, since the teachers in general take into the lower schools the ideas prevalent at the higher. For this reason the status of history in colleges will receive my principal attention. The Southern college is modelled after the University of Virginia; and Thomas Jefferson was the oracle of that institution. His idea of education was favorable to versatility rather than mastery; so the curriculum of his great high-school was arranged according to the humanist ideals of the sixteenth century, *i. e.*, with Latin, Greek, mathe-

matics, and philosophy as the four foundation-pillars of learning. The sciences, both natural and social, were made adjunct to these, or at least secondary. The subjects of study for a Roman youth of the early Imperial period were made the principal subjects of study in Virginia eighteen hundred years later. All that the world had learned during the long interval of time, all it had experienced, was of but secondary importance. As this university grew, the idea of a universal knowledge for the young student gained constantly in the minds of Jefferson's successors. The Master's degree soon came to mean the completion of all the studies offered there, and not special excellence in a single group.

As Jefferson anticipated, the youth of the land, more particularly Southerners, "flocked to the Virginia fountain." They returned home feeling that education meant the ability to scan a line of Latin and render into fair English a Greek play. And the class of men who went to the Virginia University were those who built up other schools, who controlled the politics of the South. But, parallel to this influence in education, another had grown up and was quite powerful during the fourth and fifth decades of the last century, when the two coalesced, so far as educational policy was concerned. It was the party of Christian education, reinforced by the success of similar teaching at the North, especially in New England. The Presbyterians, the Baptists, and Methodists all agreed before 1830 on the policy of an educated clergy. And so (in Virginia) Randolph-Macon, Richmond, Emory and Henry, (in North Carolina) Wake Forest and Davidson Colleges, were established during the years 1830-40. A little later (in South Carolina and Georgia) Furman and Mercer Universities were opened. All these schools adopted outright the policy of the University of Virginia, with the exception that philosophy was modified so as to serve the ends of Christian education. As history had only a secondary place at the University of Virginia, it likewise received little attention at the younger institutions. In a few instances there were older institutions which had acquired considerable influence before Jefferson's university was established. The College of Charleston, South Carolina; Hampden-Sydney and William and Mary, in Virginia; the University of North Carolina, and Franklin College, in Georgia, were the most important. None of these had ever given any systematic courses of instruction in history, and there was little change necessary when, about 1830, they readjusted their curricula, owing to the success of the great institution at Charlottesville, Va.

It was not until after the civil war that any break in the ranks of the college quadrivium was made; and this was done by Prof. Thomas R. Price, now of Columbia University, New York. He succeeded in getting the first chair of English in the South established in Randolph-Macon College, and from this high-grade denominational school the University of Virginia secured its first professor of English. Gradually the other Southern schools followed suit. This gave the college five culture (or disciplinary) courses, and these compose to-day almost the entire work of the Southern college student. The conservative forces of nearly all our educational institutions deny positively that any other subject has anything like the culture value of one of these. It will be asked, Did not history form any part of the training given by the colleges? It did. The University of Virginia required its language professors to teach the history of the people whose language was being studied. Hence arose the custom of associating the history of Greece with the Greek language, the history of Rome with Latin, and so on with France and Germany. And, as has been seen, what "Virginia" did, the other colleges imitated.

About 1880, Johns-Hopkins University established the department of historical and political science, with Herbert B. Adams at its head. In a few years graduates of this institution began to clamor for the creation of chairs of history; and in 1892 Trinity College, North Carolina, then under the control of an able Northern man, President Crowell, yielded to the demand, and the first independent department of history in the South was established. This new department immediately showed signs of great vitality, and history soon commanded a place beside Latin as an educative subject. From the beginning Trinity College has led in the scientific study of history in North Carolina, and in some respects in the whole South. The department has never been wanting in students.

Such an object-lesson could not long remain without influence, especially since the Johns Hopkins continued to send out many well-equipped students ready, like missionaries, to undertake and push forward the study of their chosen subject. The State universities, the denominational and technical colleges—the most important of them—have established chairs of history, though in most instances combining with history some other subject, such as economics or sociology. But even now, in nearly all first-rate colleges, history is not accorded full rank as a culture subject. It is given to a teacher who as often as otherwise makes some other subject his specialty, which, of course, practically destroys the so-called less important course. Again, the college president who has some spare time from administrative duties is often given the department of history. To illustrate the insignificance of the subject as viewed by some college trustees, one of the largest denominational schools in the South has just given its professor of Latin the new department of history, and, in order the better to advertise their indifference, the Trustees elected a specialist in history to the chair of English! But this is not general. A spirit of advance is to be found in the most progressive institutions.

Yet the status of these departments, relative to others—such, for example, as Latin or Greek—is not satisfactory. For the A. B. degree the humanities have the right of way. History, as shown by the catalogues of a large number of Southern colleges, is required for this course (1) in the universities, three hours a week for one collegiate year—a course which gives only the outlines of general history, beginning with the early Greeks and closing with the year 1789; (2) in the high-grade denominational colleges, three to five hours a week, the same sort of instruction. In the technical schools, neither in Virginia nor in North Carolina, is any knowledge of history, either European or American, required. Georgia and the States further south generally require from three to five hours a week in American and English history for the B. S. degree. In the largest universities, in the courses looking to the Master's degree, three additional hours are required if history is one of the *elected* subjects; and the same holds for the denominational colleges. In the technical schools there is seldom any demand for other than the primary work done in the same schools for the B. S. As for highly specialized study in particular fields of history, the University of Texas alone makes any creditable showing.

As to the number of men teaching history, only two universities employ more than one man; and some institutions having from six to eleven hundred students enrolled, and enjoying incomes of from seventy-five to one hundred thousand dollars a year, have no need for more than one man! The number of students who take history even in preparing for the law is amazingly small, which indicates the nature of the work done; and as for becoming specialists, one seldom finds a young man so visionary.

Why the study has found such tardy recognition, and why it is even now opposed most persistently, is a question which naturally arises. I shall attempt to give two or three answers in explanation:

(1.) It was the influence of the humanist teachers in the early part of the last century, when Southern life was being fixed in certain grooves. Southerners are the most conservative people in the United States; and when a certain kind of training has come, whether reasonably or not, to be recognized as part of a gentleman's education, any change at all is the same as an attack on the existing order of things. It is this sheer conservatism in favor of the classics in the first instance that causes Southerners to neglect the study of history, even of their own section.

(2.) Another cause is the complete change of all economic conditions in the South since 1865, which has revolutionized society in general, and which has turned backward the tide of intellectual advance. In 1850 the percentage of illiterate whites in the South was not so great as it is to-day! So there is no great demand for development in intellectual matters. Few teachers of history are required in the secondary and high schools. A large number of those who attend colleges everywhere expect to devote their lives to teaching. They study what must be taught again—that is, the more conservative subjects. And, again, as a result of the upheaval of 1865, the wealth of the country has changed hands, and it is too soon for the owners of this wealth to be so cultured as to care for a liberal education for their sons—and history must always be more or less of a culture study, a study for people who have leisure.

(3.) The last explanation is the condition of public opinion. Notwithstanding the radical changes which have taken place, public sentiment has been and is still controlled by men who were either participants in the great Civil War or whose fathers were. This public opinion positively demands that teachers of history, both in the colleges and in the high schools, shall subscribe unreservedly to two trite oaths: (1) that the South was altogether right in seceding from the Union in 1861; and (2) that the war was not waged about the negro. No investigation,

no honest unbiassed work can ever be hoped for when such a confession of faith is made a *sine qua non* of fitness for teaching or writing history. To illustrate this, I have but to cite the case of a fine old gentleman of ante-bellum antecedents, a member of a good family, whose knowledge of history consists in having memorized the standard texts of some twenty years ago. This gentleman is professor of history in one of the largest State universities in the South. On a vacation ramble about a year ago the writer happened into his lecture-room, and learned from a well-worn copy of Oman's 'History of England,' and from some students who still lingered about the classic walls, that this single text constituted the whole work of the senior history class in that college! On the margins of the pages were recorded in very small characters the stock stories and jokes doled out to patient students from year to year. The text was repeatedly marked, "Tell joke No. 1, or No. 2, at this point."

What is it that keeps scores of such good old gentlemen at the heads of the most important departments of study in Southern schools? Clearly, a public sentiment which taboos the most vital subject in American history, a sentiment which demands from every one a full justification of the South in all its past history. Behind these men is the individual influence of the Confederate veterans, who, having once had a share in making history, now demand that their views of its teaching and writing shall be everywhere accepted. They meet together in great assemblies, and, without critical knowledge or even careful examination of the books used in schools and colleges, make out a list of authors whose works may be used. It is not difficult to say what class of writers are commended.

Next to the Confederate soldier's influence in retarding the advance of true historical studies is that of the Southern publisher, who makes capital of the so-called patriotic sentiment. He feels the pulse of the Confederate veteran and takes the measure of the reviewer, who is usually of the accepted type, and then publishes his *Southern* text-books. The representative of the largest publishing-house in the South recently refused so much as to read the manuscript of a piece of investigation in Southern history, though posing all the while as the champion of Southern history-writing, its very Mæcenas.

It will be seen that, under such conditions, no healthy criticism can exist. The results of investigation are fixed for an author before his work begins. The sentence of the reviewer is likewise dictated by an uncompromising public dogmatism. These, then, are some of the conditions which check the development of scholarship, which prevent the higher institutions of learning from taking their rightful stand, and which seriously retard the educational and intellectual advance of the South. They are natural conditions, to be sure—conditions which, until recent years, prevailed at the North, but which, as is indicated by the discussion of the recent proposition of Charles Francis Adams to erect a monument in Washington to R. E. Lee, are fast disappearing, and it is to be hoped they are also passing away in our section.

In truth, healthy beginnings are being made at many points. In every Southern State there are honest and able young students who are beginning to address themselves to the task of writing in true characters the history of their sections—students who are becoming authors of books which require no recommendation, and which find publishers in any part of the country. In South Carolina a great scholar is giving to the public a history of that State in the Revolution which compares favorably with any similar work ever produced by an American writer; in Alabama there has arisen a small coterie of competent critics who, by the aid which the State is freely giving, promise much for that part of the country; in Texas, at its great University, in North Carolina and Tennessee, magazines of history and biography are doing pioneer, almost missionary, work in their fields. So it is not altogether an unpromising future which we face. And there are at present two movements of quite recent origin which brighten still more the promise of the future. These are the educational revolution of which the Ogden Association is a part, and the campaign, best illustrated in North Carolina, for the establishment of rural and town libraries. In North Carolina alone about five hundred small libraries were established last year. An educated public may be influenced and a reading public may be convinced. May not these beginnings be the harbingers of intellectual emancipation, of independent literary production?

WM. E. DODD.

# Correspondence.

## THE ATLANTIC FISHERY AND PROTECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is one of the most remarkable anomalies of the twentieth century that the two leading republics of the world, France and the United States, the two countries that boast the loudest of their freedom, should be each distinguished for their adhesion to an absurd antiquated system of protection, which utterly disregards the true interests of the people, and is dictated solely by a ring of monopolists for their own selfish ends. Take, for instance, the question of a drawback on Cuban sugar. Every motive of national honor and sound policy demanded liberal treatment for the southern island by her great republican neighbor and protector, yet, as we have seen, notwithstanding President Roosevelt's stirring words, American good faith, the reputation and character of a great country, was to be trampled in the dust and brought into contempt before the whole world simply to protect the beet-sugar monopolists.

When we come to look into the workings of protection in both France and the United States, the plain man finds absurdities and monstrosities worthy of the grotesque politics of Laputa. France easily leads the van. Here in North America the national Government, in order to keep up a fishery in Newfoundland, gives (1) a bounty exceeding the intrinsic value of the fish; (2) a drawback quite equal to the bounty; (3) 50 francs a head for every one engaged in the transatlantic fishery, plus 50 francs more per fisherman given by the Municipal Council of St. Pierre for every Frenchman engaged on the Newfoundland coast; (4) a bounty of 4,000 francs distributed among her shore fishermen. Outside the cost of three expensive war-ships, France pays $240 per man for every one of her subjects engaged in this trade.

The follies and utter absurdities of protection could hardly go further. But when we come to examine the American policy of excluding foreign fish, and preventing the public from obtaining this most necessary and valuable food at reasonable rates, we can perceive that their system is just as illogical, as absurd, and as mischievous to the nation as the ridiculous methods of France. A high tax on a necessary article of food which amounts to an actual prohibition of its free consumption by the public, is a burden which no free people should suffer. The English people would not bear it for a moment. The Americans are a patient people; they suffer the monopolists gladly who plunder them on fuel and light. Only the odious Meat Trust seems to have stirred them up. This outrageous attempt to raise the price of food touched their stomachs, a tender point with the great republic. Has it ever occurred to the citizens of this great nation that, for a century, they have been burdened with a tyrannical monopoly in their food supply as grievous as the attempted Meat Trust? There is not a shred of an argument of any kind in favor of the fish monopoly. It used to be claimed that it manned the national navy. The official naval experts have completely exploded this idea. The men protected are not even Americans; by far the greater portion of the deep-sea fishermen are provincials and foreigners. To aid this motley alien crew and the fish rings, all Americans have to eat dear fish.

The toiling millions of Europe could not exist without eating cheap fish food. Take such a common product of the sea as the herring; all over England and the Continent its cost is two cents, or three for five cents. In the States a single herring costs five cents, or three times the price at which the English workman enjoys his bloater. What makes all this so monstrous and absurd is the ridiculously small number of people, a few hundred, who benefit by this protection to their petty trade, in comparison with the seventy millions who have to pay for the monopoly. The American deep-sea fishery to-day is a poor decaying industry. It is not even American, and a considerable portion of its product is not even caught by Americans. It does not furnish one-fourth of the supply of sea fish which should be consumed in the same proportion as in Europe..

The policy of the American Government in dealing with this vital question of the Atlantic fishery, for a great nation, has been contemptible in the extreme. They ask in the meanest way every favor from their smaller British neighbors, but they will give nothing in return. It is thoroughly well known that, without free access to the Newfoundland bait, the Bank fishery could not be carried on by the American fishermen. It is also officially reported to the revenue officers that the so-called "American industry," the winter frozen-herring business, is a gigantic fraud. Brought in free as "American products," there is not one thing American about the whole business except the Yankee gold that pays for the fish. All are caught and frozen by the English residents. What I have pointed out in former papers on this

subject is not only the cruel absurdity of a tax on food in the twentieth century; in this special case the monopoly acts as an actual barrier to the public supply of most valuable sustenance. If these barriers were thrown down, British North America could furnish the States with an abundance and variety of cheap fish, as full and ample as England now enjoys.

Sir John A. McDonald always maintained that there was nothing to expect from the liberality or enlightenment of the American Government. Their dealings with British America were always a compound of arrogance and selfish meanness, as short-sighted as contemptible. It is now certain that this peddling policy in regard to the fisheries will be checkmated in a thoroughly effective way. The union of Canada with Newfoundland is a foregone conclusion. The island colony is even now making the American fishermen pay a fixed price for his bait, besides a big fee for his license. When the Dominion obtains control of all the British fisheries, the Americans will be simply at their mercy. The Newfoundland bait supply, on which they depend, will either be prohibited altogether, or else made too dear to be purchased. Gloucester has already sounded the note of alarm, and sees a reciprocity treaty looming in the distance. What will the American Government do in these circumstances? Will it wait until free trade is forced upon them, or gracefully accept the inevitable?

D. W. PROWSE.

ST. JOHNS, NEWFOUNDLAND, July 28, 1902.

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## CONGRESSIONAL ENCOUNTERS, NEW AND OLD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In looking through some old numbers of Charles Dickens's magazine, *Household Words*, I chanced upon a paragraph or two that might well be republished—without comment—to-day. In No. 330, under the title, "The Congressional Prize Ring," comment is made upon the then recent assault of Preston S. Brooks of South Carolina upon Charles Sumner of Massachusetts in the Senate on the 22d of May, 1856. As certain events and casualties of the session of 1902 are fresh in interest, it may be edifying to print the following quotation:

"The forcible mode in which debates are conducted in the parliament of the United States, and the personal encounters which sometimes follow them, are believed by the present generation to be novelties and only recently brought to a culminating point by the Hon. Preston S. Brooks's life-preserver upon the head, face, eyes, and body of Senator Charles Sumner. This is a mistake. Fifty years ago, exciting debates often ended in a regular stand-up fight in the lobby of the House of Representatives. The combatants stripped, a ring was formed, bottle-holders appointed, and the latter fought and reported quite in the style of Moulsey Hurst and Bell's *Life in London*.

"In corroboration of this statement, we present to our readers the following paragraph copied from the New York *Evening Post* of December the thirteenth, eighteen hundred and five, into the Annual Register for eighteen hundred and six:

" 'On Friday last, the well-known Leib, one of the Representatives of Pennsylvania and leader of the Duane party, and Joseph H. Nicholson, one of the Representatives of Maryland, met in the Congress lobby about one o'clock, when Leib immediately called Nicholson a liar; and thereupon commenced one of the best-fought battles recorded in the annals of Congressional pugilism. The fight continued till the sixty-fourth round, when Leib had received such blows as deterred him from again facing his man. He protracted the fight, falling after making a feeble hit. In the round which ended the fight, those who backed him advised him to resign; which he did after a combat of one hour and seventeen minutes. The combatants were both very much beaten.' "

ALBERT C. PHELPS.

NEW ORLEANS, July 22, 1902.

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## NICE DISTINCTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The War Department acknowledges receipt of a report relative to the action taken by Gen. Chaffee in the case of Lieut. Lytle Brown of the Engineer Corps, U. S. A., who was recently tried for assault and battery on Charles O. Ziegenfuss, a citizen of Manila. It appears from the testimony that Lieut. Brown took offence at an article in the paper conducted by Ziegenfuss, and, in consequence thereof, proceeded to the latter's house one night, and "did then and there unlawfully, wilfully, and maliciously assault said Ziegenfuss by striking him with his, the said Brown's, clinched fist, and the said Brown did then and there otherwise beat, bruise, wound, and illtreat the said Ziegenfuss, knocking out two teeth of him the said Ziegenfuss. Said Brown did kick and jump upon the said Ziegenfuss with the feet of him, the said Brown, and did cause him, the said Ziegenfuss, to suffer great bodily pain and anguish." So the charges and specifications read.

That which seems incomprehensible, to the ordinary mind, at this distance, is the principle upon which army officers base their code of honor. Lieut. Brown was found guilty of the charge of assault and battery and sentenced to be "reprimanded." Of the second charge, of "conduct unbecoming an officer and a gentleman," in connection with the same offence, he was found not guilty. It is presumed from the finding of the court that nothing less than the killing of the said citizen would be regarded by it as unbecoming an officer, and such killing, in truth, would not—in the section of the country south of here from which Lieut. Brown undoubtedly hails—be regarded as unbecoming a gentleman.

On the other hand, suppose it had been a private soldier who, smarting under adverse criticism, had at night entered the house of a citizen and comported himself in the same manner as that of his superior officer, would the court-martial have been satisfied with imposing the farce of a "reprimand"? We are of the opinion that, under the circumstances narrated, the law-breaker would have been turned over to the civil authorities and would have had to expiate his offence by a goodly number of months in jail, suffer the loss of pay and emoluments, and thereafter dishonorably be discharged the service.

Privileges and distinctions of this nature can hardly be regarded as conducive to good order and military discipline. VETERAN.

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## THE WASHINGTON-JEFFERSON LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It has been known that, after Washington's death, Tobias Lear permitted Alexander Hamilton to withdraw from his papers certain letters and documents. It was also rumored that Jefferson enjoyed the same privilege and used it to destroy all evidence of an interchange of caustic letters between Washington and himself. At intervals this rumor reappears, with variations and embroideries, and has almost attained the dignity of an historical fact. It is always difficult to treat such elusive matter, for the evidence supporting it is, as a rule, mere hearsay evidence, and yet is attributed to such sources as give it every semblance of truth. It was with pleasure that I found what is perhaps the earliest evidence in writing upon this Jefferson-Washington correspondence. Whatever Custis may have been, he was not a reliable witness on any question concerning his guardian. Weak of will, and possessed of an inordinate vanity, without real ability in any one line, and depending for his position and reputation on his connection with Washington, he babbled and romanced to any one who would listen to him. The solemn assertions in this letter, written to a kinsman, are ludicrous when examined according to the simplest rules of evidence. His promise of a more definite account in his volume on Washington was not kept, for that work is even less full and satisfactory on this point than the letter. In 1854, the chapter as it appears in the memoirs was printed in the *National Intelligencer*. The editor published a short note from Custis, in which he said:

"The story of the Lost Letters of the Rawlins Book I have put off to the last. It is a painful subject to me, but it was a bounden duty upon me, as Washington's Biographer and the last of his domestic family, to place this matter in the only light in which it can ever appear to the world."

The famous letter of Jefferson to Mazzei was first published in Italy, at Florence; a translation into French appeared in the *Moniteur*, and from that paper it was translated into English for the *Minerva*, the Federalist paper at New York, in which it was printed May 14, 1797. So far as is known, no letter passed between Washington and Jefferson after that date. There was too much to be explained on Jefferson's side, and too great sensitiveness and dignity on the part of Washington to make even an inquiry or explanation likely. I was unable to find any evidence in Washington's letter-books of mutilation, and am quite familiar with the books in Rawlins's writing. Now that we have what is intended to be the solemn testimony of one who always claimed to be in possession of the facts of the matter, it is safe to reject the whole story. The narrative of Custis is almost childish in its simplicity, but that is the least of its many weaknesses. He believed his own story, but his own evidence is against him.

WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

BOSTON, July 24, 1902.

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Arlington House, Oct$^{r}$ 8$^{th}$ 1832.

My D$^{r}$ Sir

Your very interesting Letter of the 25th ult$^{o}$ came duly to hand. Cholera among my people, and myself much indisposed, must plead my excuse for the too long delayed answer.

I have a most vivid recollection of all that happened at Mount Vernon, touching certain Letters supposed to have passed between General Washington, & Mr. Jefferson, subsequent to the famed *Letter to Mazzei*. All the details

you have given of the conversations in the sitting Room, &c., are correct. As relates to myself, over & above my share in the general conversation, I have to observe that Colo. Lear called me into the Hall, and pressing my hand affectionately, remarked with emphasis—The gentlemen are mistaken, I tell you my Dear Washington. THERE WERE LETTERS. He then retired, without entering into explanations respecting the character or tendency of the letters he had thus solemnly declared to have passed between the parties.

Some time afterwards Colo. Lear visited me at Arlington House, previous to his journey to Boston, for embarkation to Algiers. I renewed the subject of the Letters, and pressed the Colo. to enter into the necessary explanations as a mean of healing the breach which had occurred between himself, Dr. Craik, & other of the friends & relatives of Washington. He complained sorely of the coolness, which he had experienced from those with whom he had been in long years of friendship & intimacy, prior to the conversation at Mt. Vernon; declined saying further on the subject of the Letters, but promised that he would write to me on his arrival at Boston. He wrote, but it was simply a most kind & affectionate adieu, and thus the character of the Letters, so far as Colo. Lear was concerned in developing the same, partake of the silence of his untimely grave.

To one who feels the devotional enthusiasm that I do for both men & things of the Revolution, it is with painfull regret that I disturb the ashes of the author of the Declaration of Independence, or of my old Master and early friend, who whatever may have been his faults (if any he had) towards others, was ever most kind to me. But truth my Dear Sir, "is mighty," and should allways prevail. The Lives & actions of distinguished men belong to their countries, and to History. No action in the long & meritorious life of the Great Washington, shuns the light, and the light and truth of History shall still beam upon the long hidden & mysterious affair of *The Letters* if I can dispel the darkness, so help me God, amen.

I am happy that you are about to anticipate my *Private Memoirs of the Life & Character of Washington*. The Public should be put in possession of the facts touching the *Letters*, & no one can doubt that *there were* Letters after the repeated & solemn declarations of Colo. Lear to that effect, to whose sole care was entrusted all the precious deposits of the Cheif, for History. The volumes of his public & private correspondence. Of the character of the Letters we have the evidence of Rawlins, who copied the same under the orders of the Cheif, and here it may be proper to be known, that Albin Rawlins was of respectable birth & connections, in the County of Caroline, State of Virginia, an intelligent, & amiable young man, whose correct moral deportment, pleasing manners, and attention to business, won for him the esteem of the whole Family of Mount Vernon, where he resided several years. Rawlins when questioned, declared that there were *three Letters* on the part of Washington, the first courteous, & a mere letter of enquiry. To this was returned an answer in the usually elegant style of Mr. Jefferson, who was assuredly the most finished epistolary writer of the age in which he flourished. In the second, the old Cheif pressed the Philosopher home, bringing him to the point of guilty or not guilty. The answer was said to be couched in terms of conciliation, spoke *much* of antient friendship, and of the long and happy intercourse & kindly reminiscences of by gone days. The last letter of Washington, to use the words of Rawlins, was awfull, so that R declared, my hand trembled as I wrote it down.

The subject of the Letters will be found at large & treated from facts only, in my *Recollections & Private Memoirs*, of the Life & Character of Washington, a work too long delayed from the American public, which has most kindly received various extracts from it, as published in the papers. My "poverty not my will" has heretofore prevented my visiting Europe, a mission indispensable to the completion of the work, & which I hope at no distant period to be able to accomplish. Enough is now elicited my Dr Sir, to convince the American Public, & the World, that *Letters did pass between Gen'l Washington & Mr Jefferson subsequent to the Letter to Mazzei.* And that the said *Letters of Washington were of no friendly character.*

Ever yrs

George W. P. Custis

P. S. Copy this badly written scrawl.

Addressed: Majr Lawrence Lewis, Audley, near Battle Town, Frederic County, Virginia.

Endorsed: "1832. G. W. P. Custis respecting correspondence between Genl Washington & Thos. Jefferson, confirming what I have stated on several occasions."

# Notes.

A uniform series of reprints of standard historical novels is to be undertaken by Henry Holt & Co., and, "so far as practicable, the series will present a somewhat systematic general view of history"; always with regard to "high literary quality" as well as interest and (the most dubious item of the three) "trustworthiness." Some account of the author and his work will be given.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. promise for the coming autumn an *édition de luxe* of John Fiske's works; two compilations of Masterpieces of Greek and Latin Literature, respectively, chosen from the most famous English translations; a "Cambridge Edition" of the late Professor Child's 'English and Scotch Popular Ballads,' edited by his daughter, Miss Helen Child, with an introduction by Prof. George L. Kittredge; and 'A Study of Prose Fiction,' by Bliss Perry, editor of the *Atlantic Monthly.*

The late W. E. Channing's 'Thoreau, the Poet-Naturalist,' published by Roberts Brothers in 1873, and long since out of print, is to appear in a new and enlarged edition, edited by his literary exector, Mr. F. B. Sanborn. It will be brought out handsomely in October by Charles E. Goodspeed, Park Street, Boston, in two editions—the more expensive with extra illustrations.

'The Career and Conversation of John Swinton,' a sketch by his friend Robert Waters, will be published next month by the author in West Hoboken, N. J. (Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co.).

'De la Formation des Maîtres de l'Enseignement Secondaire à l'Étranger et en France,' par M. Dugard (Paris: Armand Colin), is one of the numerous publications which show how widespread, in all civilized countries, is the feeling of a need of better secondary schools. The author states the problem clearly and treats it in a systematic way. The book may be consulted with interest and profit.

The decline of Spain as a political Power and the loss of its prestige among modern nations in art and literature are now leading many thoughtful and patriotic Spaniards to inquire into the causes of this lamentable decay, and to suggest means of resuscitation and regeneration. Such is the purpose of a work of 207 pages, entitled 'Psicologia del Pueblo Español,' by Professor Altamira, the second volume of the "Biblioteca Moderna de Ciencias Sociales," a series of treatises on sociology now being published in Madrid. The author maintains that this national degeneracy is due not to any defects or incapacities inherent in the race, but to the imperfect development and systematic suppression of the superior qualities with which it is naturally endowed, and that a remedy must be sought in a more careful and general cultivation of the intellectual faculties. The state, under the influence of the Church, has grossly neglected popular education, and in many provinces, in which the public money is lavishly expended for bull-fights, the school-teachers are not paid even their meagre salaries, and are thus reduced to the ignominious choice between starvation and beggary.

The first volume of Dr. Ernst Steinmann's 'Die Sixtinische Kapelle,' just published by Bruckmann in Munich, describes the construction and decoration of this unique specimen of ecclesiastical architecture under Sixtus IV., and is an exceedingly valuable contribution to the history of the Renaissance in the latter half of the fifteenth century from a political as well as from an artistic point of view. The author is a German scholar residing in Rome, who has made a thorough study of the subject, and presents the results of his researches with remarkable completeness and (what is rare in German works of this kind) in a very attractive style. The text is profusely illustrated with excellent reproductions of the architectural details of the edifice and of the paintings of Perugino, Pinturicchio, Botticelli, Ghirlandajo, and other artists. The second and concluding volume will be devoted chiefly to Michelangelo.

"Municipal Socialism," the first title of the Consular Reports for July, is an interesting array of facts relating to the ownership by municipalities in England of public or semi-public enterprises, as street-railways, waterworks, etc., and to the housing of the poor who are dispossessed for sanitary reasons. This is the absorbing problem in Liverpool, which, "it is said, owns more revenue-producing real estate than any other municipality in the world; its income from this source being about half a million dollars a year." The report closes with two observations: "Speaking generally, municipal government in Great Britain is honest, intelligent, and energetic; and, as a rule, politics has but little to do with the engagement or retention of civic employees." The Antwerp Labor Exchange, whose recent opening is chronicled, is an outcome of the great dock strike two years ago. At that time a federation of employers and workmen was formed to protect and develop the interests of the shipping trade. The members, numbering now over 5,000, are "guaranteed an indemnity in case of lack of work, and mutual-benefit associations among the dockers are encouraged. . . . Never has there existed a more complete understanding between masters and men than under these conditions. Day work has now proved so efficacious that the necessity for overtime work has greatly diminished." The Exchange, a workman's club in fact, with lavatories and a dispensary, "furnishes at cost excellent beer, coffee, and tea, but no gin." The lack of forests in China leads our consul at Niuchwang to believe that there will be a permanent and extensive demand in that country for our Pacific Coast lumber. He states

that "probably more wood is used for coffins than for any other purpose."

*East of Asia* is the title of a handsomely printed eighty-page magazine, 11x7 inches in dimensions, issued at Shanghai at the *North China Herald* office, and richly illustrated with reproductions from photographs showing how the Russian, German, and British occupation of parts of China is influencing architecture, the landscape, and the old landmarks. Dr. Arthur H. Smith writes on The New Peking, describing the fortified area of the legation district. Mr. C. F. Voskamp pictures brightly "the story-teller and his methods in China," where every common object grows myth and legend as a moist stone collects moss. Mr. L. Odontins's readable digest in German of the remarkable pamphlet of the reforming Viceroy or governor-general of the two Hu provinces is here put into English from the German. Mrs. Timothy Richards treats with woman's insight of Chinese social customs. There are articles, by competent hands, with reproductions of photographs taken this year, on the German Kiao-chau territory, on Port Arthur, the Russian place of occupation, and on Wei Hai Wei, the British portion; and between text and picture one gets a good idea of contemporaneous northeastern China. The plot of a Chinese play entitled "The Cattle Butcher's Retribution," and a spirited full-page colored print, make up a very attractive magazine interpreting modern China. Most striking of all the numerous illustrations is that of the cutting of the double eagle, with appropriate inscriptions (in both German and Chinese), deep into the face of the natural rock at Tsingtao, on the spot where the first German troop, under the command of Admiral von Diederichs, took possession in 1897.

Strikingly illustrative of the methods and spirit of the rival political parties and leaders in Japan that are to measure their strength at the polls during August, 1902, is the literary magazine the *Waseda Bungaku*. About twenty years ago Count Okuma—incorrigible optimist and "martyr to the cause of the foreigner in Japan," ex-Premier and cabinet officer, who founded and has been for years the leader and oracle of the Progressive party—established the School of Literature, Politics and Law at Waseda, in Tokio. He has made it by his ability and energy a worthy rival, in some respects at least, of the Imperial University. Everything is taught in Japanese by native professors, except English and Chinese. The object is to educate Japanese young men and women thoroughly in the three literatures and languages most needed in this generation. In coöperation with the school is a translation and publishing department—long conducted at a loss, but now more than paying its expenses—which puts the substantial modern literature of many countries (chiefly English, French, and German) into excellent Japanese. Of the several hundred copies of the *Waseda* monthly magazine that have passed under our review, that for June, 1902, is typical. In the list of works noted in this literary digest we find the names of Dicey, Barton ('Semitic Origins'), Dunning ('Political Theories'), Hanna ('The Scotch-Irish'), Brandes, De Nolhac, Helmholt ('Weltgeschichte'), Jacquemot, Kröger, and others, whose works are translated in part or commented upon, besides those by Chinese and Japanese authors. Some of the numbers contain critical articles on Japanese topics—political (but non-partisan), legal, economic, and literary—which are invaluable to the scholar in Japanese. Twenty thousand copies of this literary magazine are distributed monthly.

"Kikuyu," by Major R. Crawshay, the most noteworthy article in the *Geographical Journal* for July, is an account of a district on the Uganda Railway. He draws a most attractive picture of the little villages "with their toy-house-like granaries with tiny conical roofs," surrounded by herds of cattle and flocks of sheep and goats, the men and women at work in the plantations, the boys herding the live stock, the innumerable fires lighted for no other purpose than the companionship of their smoke. The people, an unusually manly and intelligent race, differ from the neighboring tribes in having a patriarchal form of government with graded punishments for various crimes, in their morality, their industry, their trustworthiness, and their splendid physique. They also are exceptional in that "they have none of that wild-beast-like craving for meat for which the majority of African tribes are so famous. . . . They eat no other flesh than that of domestic cattle, sheep, and goats." Their vice is drunkenness. In an account of the recent eruptions in the West Indies, Mr. H. N. Dickson infers, from the reports of earthquakes in April and May in both hemispheres, "probably one of the most profound and widespread disturbances which have affected the earth's crust within historic times." Mr. E. André gives the results of his observations of St. Vincent, in the course of which he says "the whole country looks as if millions of barrels of cement had been emptied over it." Referring to Dr. Sven Hedin's return from "one of the most remarkable and successful expeditions ever undertaken in Central Asia," Sir Clements Markham says that "his maps alone, if spread out, would cover nearly a quarter of a mile." The principal maps, accompanied by notes, are of the glaciers of Kangchenjunga and of Lake Nyasa.

It is nearly a century and a half since Voltaire wrote to Rousseau the letter in which he acknowledges the receipt of the 'Discours sur l'Inégalité' and so wittily defends letters and science against Rousseau's attack. Those who imagine that no such defence is called for in our own day would be surprised at the seriousness and ability with which the German teachers, at their recent meeting in Chemnitz, discussed the subject of "The Importance of Popular Education to the Morality of the People." The proceedings of the meeting of this largest of all teachers' associations—its membership amounts to 85,000—are published in recent numbers of the *Paedagogische Zeitung*, and show that it is still important for the friends of popular education to meet the arguments of its enemies, new and old. The stenographic reports are full of interesting historical facts and well-taken points. We can here mention only the statement of an old prison teacher, who said that, during his twenty-five years of service, he had found that, of all the criminals under his instruction, only one-fourth were in possession of what might be called a satisfactory education.

In Germany even novelists are obliged to be savants. At any rate, one gets that impression on reading about the examination which Paul Heyse passed at the University of Berlin, fifty years ago. Becker questioned him about Romance literature and language, Trendelenburg about Spinoza, Boeckh about Greek literature, conversing with him in Latin, Ranke on the history of Spain and the Crusades, Von Hagen on the history of German poetry. The result of the examination was a "multa cum laude" for Heyse. His dissertation was entitled 'Studia Romanensia,' and the special theses he had to maintain orally related to Goethe's 'Wilhelm Meister,' to Spinoza, and to Michelangelo. What would happen to our American novelists under similar circumstances?

In a recent academical address, Professor Hjelt, Rector of the University of Helsingfors in Finland, gave an interesting account of the education of women in that institution. The first female student was a young girl, who passed the required examination and was matriculated in 1870. A serious obstacle to the movement was a decision made by the Russian Government in 1882 that no woman should be admitted without special permission, in each individual case, from the authorities in St. Petersburg. The result of this bureaucratic regulation was that only seventeen women entered the University during the next eight years. In 1890, men and women were placed on an equal footing in this respect, in consequence of which the number of women applicants rapidly increased, so that till now 749 have pursued their studies at Helsingfors; at present they number 120, and form nearly a fourth of the whole body of students. Professor Hjelt regards coeducation in Helsingfors as a success. The presence of young women in the lecture-rooms has exerted a wholesome influence and promoted the proficiency of the young men in learning. Only two women have studied theology; 7 per cent. have devoted themselves to jurisprudence, 65 per cent. to history and philology, and 28 per cent. to physics and mathematics. The women excel in modern languages, æsthetics, literature, and history; but their average standing in philosophy is not as high as that of the young men. The instances of superiority in mathematics are striking, but exceptional.

A twofold service was rendered to literature by the late Mr. C. Kegan Paul, who will be remembered both as an author and as a publisher. His best-known books were biographical—the 'Life of Godwin,' 'Biographical Sketches,' and 'Memories.' The second of these consisted of a series of valuable critical memoirs of Edward Irving, Keble, Maria Hare, Rowland Williams, Kingsley, George Eliot, and Newman, of most of whom Mr. Kegan Paul had personal knowledge. When the development of his Positivist views—to be succeeded later by submission to the Church of Rome—resulted in the resignation of his position as an Anglican clergyman, he became literary adviser of Mr. Henry S. King, in which capacity he had much to do with the production of the International Scientific Series. Later he associated himself with a son of Archbishop Trench in the purchase of Mr. King's business, and remained the managing director when it was transformed into a company under the name of Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. His 'Memories' contains many interesting particu-

lars of his relations with Tennyson, Bagehot, and many other prominent men of letters, as well as some lively recollections of the perils to which a publisher is exposed. On the business, as a whole, however, he pronounces the judgment that, "supposing any one to have the capital and the literary skill, I can imagine no more interesting work."

—The August *Century* has some fifty pages of interesting matter on earthquakes and volcanoes in general, and the Martinique and St. Vincent disasters in particular. The opening paper of the group is by Professor Kemp of Columbia University, who goes extensively into the causes of seismic and volcanic action. This is followed by a vivid description of the Martinique catastrophe in the form of a detailed report to the Bishop of Martinique, absent in Paris at the time, by the Vicar-General of the island, the Very Rev. G. Parel, whose sense of duty to the people under his care freed him of all fear and kept him alert to all that was going on. Another valuable addition to the record was secured for the *Century* by the chaplain of the *Dixie*, in the form of a file of the leading newspaper of St. Pierre, *Les Colonies*, for the week immediately preceding the disaster. Several pages of extracts from this paper are printed, and they warrant the conviction that it was for a time the policy of the editor to belittle the real danger. The St. Vincent disaster is described by two eye-witnesses, Capt. Calder, Chief of Police of St. Vincent, and T. McGregor McDonald, owner of one of the most famous plantations of the island. The group fitly closes with a translation of the two famous letters in which the younger Pliny describes to Tacitus the great eruption of Vesuvius in the year 79. Still further papers are to be added in the September issue. Aside from this collection, the most important feature of the number is "The Tragedy of the Range," Mr. Baker's continuation of his series of papers on the Southwest. It is a story of almost incredible mismanagement and waste of great natural resources, due no more to the folly and ignorance of the immediate agents than to the lack of concern manifested by the legislative and executive departments of the United States Government.

—Martha Baker Dunn, in the August *Atlantic*, writes helpfully of "The Browning Tonic," but the logic of her argument is spoiled in the end by a mistaken application. Courage and endurance are good qualities, and the soldiers in the Cuban war doubtless displayed them in as great a measure as was possible when fighting for a dubious cause; but it does no honor to these qualities to invoke them in behalf of an attitude of silence towards suffering produced, not by the real necessities of warfare, but by the incompetence and dishonesty of officers employed to provide the men in the field with such food, clothing, medical attendance, etc., as will make them most efficient in the work they are set to do. An article on the poetry of Edward Rowland Sill, signed "W. B. P.," might easily be understood as distinctly unfavorable, but is better considered as showing the solid worth of the poet by calling attention to the disadvantages against which his fame is steadily making its way. Verner Z. Reed contributes some entertaining moral and sentimental reflections on the Desert, a subject which has taken a strong hold on the imagination of magazine writers, assisted, no doubt, by the recent volume of Prof. John C. Van Dyke. While Mr. Reed draws from the desert solitude the thought that "whatever is is right," it is the temper of the age to draw from its material unproductiveness the idea that the desert itself is all wrong, and to proceed *vi et armis* to reduce it to cultivation.

—It may seem quixotic to recommend to the "summer reader" any rival to the "superb vitality" of Dorothy Vernon of Haddon Hall; yet if the summer reader has not parted with all his good sense and good taste and his intelligent curiosity as to the human comedy, he may well be allured by a modest and charming volume which has no fault except that it is instructive as well as amusing and entertaining. The title of this, we hardly dare to say, is 'Translations from Lucian,' by Miss Augusta M. Campbell Davidson, M.A. (Longmans, Green & Co.). If Lucian's vogue is on the wane, as Miss Davidson observes, it may be partly because he has been superseded, in a way, by Voltaire; but the Attic sauce with which his dissertations are served up might pique the appetite of the most jaded and indolent mind. The reader who glances into this ancient mirror of a decadent age—if he has a grain of sense and seriousness in his composition—will see in it the reflection of our own times—our fashionable fads and crazes, our scepticism dashed and mingled with the grossest superstition; he will recognize that his own generation consists largely of Lucian's "dead people warmed over," as Dr. Holmes used to say; only the clothes and the scenery are just a little different. We need hardly go back to the memoirs of Mme. Roland to parallel the sycophancy and snobbery and bad manners that are pictured in the sketch of the sorrows and trials of "Paid Companions," nor to a Cagliostro to match the magnificent impudence and world-wide success of that juggler and impostor, Alexander of Abonoteichus, whose astounding career is described in one of these excerpts. As to his dupes, are they not the same people as our neighbors on the next street, if not our own friends and intimates? Besides these lively sketches, Miss Davidson has included "The Sale of Philosophers," "The Orator's Guide," "Hermotimus," the delightful bit of satire and burlesque entitled "Zeus the Tragedian," and also "The True History," a witty and fanciful extravaganza, the precursor of Munchausen, which possibly suggested some ideas for Swift's Gulliver.

—As to the quality of Miss Davidson's translation, there can hardly be two opinions. It is the work, so to speak, of a lady and a scholar—a rather remarkable specimen of well-bred, racy English, which recalls the letters of Dorothy Osborne. It is characterized by ease, urbanity, sprightliness, and an unfailing fluency of idiom without the slightest taint of slang. It reveals great skill and ingenuity in turning the phrases of a highly idiomatic writer so successfully that it reads like an original, not constrained by any foreign mould. It is naturally somewhat free, and occasionally becomes a discreet paraphrase; but it is entirely adequate for the purposes of the public for whom it was designed. We regret that we cannot illustrate these virtues at length; but, as literature, we can commend Miss Davidson's workmanship to the attention of our own Ph.D.'s, masculine and feminine, who are too apt to scorn culture in their wooing of science, and, while learning foreign languages, to forget how to write their own.

—In the *Annales* of the Paris International Congress of 1900 that discussed Comparative History, the report of the fifth section, concerned with the History of Science, contains nothing of greater consequence than one might expect as the printed residuum of such a meeting, after the separate publication of several contributions. The leading spirit of the section was evidently M. Paul Tannery. Heiberg prints for the first time the Greek text of Anatolius on the first ten numbers, a Pythagorean Christian tract by an Alexandrian Peripatetic of the third century. It contains an otherwise unknown fragment of Heraclitus, and has a certain interest as probably representing a lost book of Nicomachus. Several of the longer papers of the volume relate to mediæval medicine and surgery; and there is one by Nicaise on the state of anatomy and physiology at the time of Vesalius and Harvey. Tannery prints nine letters addressed to the celebrated Père Mersenne, who, at the time of Descartes, acted as a medium of scientific intelligence. Sigismund Günther gives an interesting account of the different compromises between Ptolemy and Copernicus that were proposed in the sixteenth and later centuries. In a paper by André Lalande, the pendulum of opinion about Francis Bacon swings to so wide a deflection that Descartes is almost represented to have borrowed from him the idea of explaining all physics on mechanical principles. It is the 'Valerius Terminus' to which appeal is made for support of this. Galitzyne communicates letters and pictorial sketches sent to Catharine II. in 1783 by the Russian Minister in Paris, to inform her about the ballooning exploits of Montgolfier and Charles. There are some interesting papers about Comtism; for the rest, not very much to attract other readers than minute students in special departments of the history of science.

—In the Historical section of the *Annales* the Abbé Pierling investigates a curious incident in the career of the False Dmitri, who, in 1605, after the death of Boris Godunoff, succeeded in imposing himself on Russia as the son of Ivan the Terrible, who had died in 1584. At Cracow, in 1604, the Pretender, in the hands of the Jesuit Sawicki, had professed Catholicism, and abjured the Orthodox faith; he had promised to render Russia Catholic and to lead a crusade against the Turks. To insure the success of his enterprise, however, his apostasy had to be kept secret, and he hoped to procure a papal dispensation to enable him to take, from the Orthodox Patriarch, the communion which was an essential feature of his coronation. Rome delayed, however, and Sawicki was distracted with doubt, both as to this and the complications that would inevitably follow. He consulted the nuncio at Cracow, and the latter referred the question to the Roman Holy Office. Dmitri was crowned July 31, and must have taken the Eucharist from the hand of a heretic (which was unpardonable), while the Inquisition dallied, and it was not until November 5 that it evaded

decision by telling Sawicki that he must consult the canons and act according to his conscience. Then the question presented itself anew, for Dmitri had promised to marry Marina, daughter of George Mniszek, Palatin of Sendomir, a powerful Polish magnate, who had aided his enterprise. She, of course, was a Catholic, and at her coronation she too would be expected to take the sacrament. Mniszek assembled a trio of theologians, who concluded that Dmitri should be urged to omit the communion in the ceremony, and that Rome should be asked to grant a dispensation in view of the enormous advantages anticipated for the Church. On the one hand, Dmitri succeeded in suppressing the communion at the coronation of his bride; on the other, as evasion would no longer serve, the Inquisition again examined the question thoroughly, and in a solemn session held March 2, 1606, under the presidency of Paul V., it decided adversely with but one dissenting vote. In this it proved to be wise, for prolonged dissimulation would have been useless, seeing that Dmitri was put to death on May 17, and with him vanished the dreams of subjecting Russia to the Holy See.

## ROSE'S NAPOLEON I.

*The Life of Napoleon I.* Including new material from the British Official Records. By John Holland Rose, M.A. The Macmillan Co. 1902. 2 vols., pp. 471, 547.

Now that impartiality is looked upon as a prime virtue of the historian, a new field is thrown open to the English biographer. It becomes legitimate for him to write about Napoleon in any one of several forms. If learned, he may prepare a work of erudition for specialists; if well informed, he may dispel many prejudices which still haunt the mind of the general reader; and even if he be a mere bookmaker, he will deserve to escape the reproaches of the reviewer so long as he approaches the subject with a mind unwarped by patriotic prejudice. In the moments which immediately followed his first abdication, Napoleon spoke thus of England. To Caulaincourt he said: "She has done me much harm, doubtless, but I have left in her flanks a poisoned dart. It is I who have made this debt, that will ever burden, if not crush, future generations." A century after the Peace of Amiens that debt has not been paid, and perhaps there will be a survival of rancor in the English heart until the distant day when the nation shall have cleared off the last account which can be laid to the charge of the "Corsican usurper." In the meantime it would be unreasonable to expect from the generality of Englishmen any outburst of hero-worship. Under existing circumstances, the historical spirit wins a notable victory whenever an isolated scholar in Great Britain comes forward to treat the career and character of Napoleon with fairness.

As a mere academic statement, this may sound trite, but it is necessary that some such comment should precede any detailed review of Mr. Rose's work. From a great variety of passages, some general and some minute, one can see how carefully the author has sought to guard against prepossessions of whatever kind. Mr. Fyffe, by the degree of his antagonism to Napoleon, recalls the days of Scott and Alison. Freeman, going farther still, recalls the suggestion which the *Times* made when the *Bellerophon* arrived at Torbay: "The first procedure, we trust, will be a special Commission, or the appointment of a court-martial, to try him for the murder of Capt. Wright." Dr. Fitchett, whose volumes circulate widely, informs us that "Napoleon's amazing success is not explained by his intellectual gifts. His epoch explains his career. An exhausted Revolution needed a military dictator and was certain to crystallize into one. If Napoleon had not played that part, Moreau [*sic*] would, or Hoche, or Bernadotte." Such is the attitude of recent well-known writers in England.

On the contrary, Mr. Rose holds his balance with a firm and even hand. We have mentioned Fyffe, Freeman, and Fitchett. There remain the late Sir John Seeley and Mr. Goldwin Smith, from both of whom Mr. Rose dissociates himself. With a fuller knowledge of Napoleonic literature than has yet been shown by any Englishman, he has a graver sense of the inherent difficulties and a clearer determination to face the thousand problems of fact and motive. While on the one hand he escapes from the bias of inherited antipathy, he succeeds, more conspicuously than Lord Rosebery has done, in keeping his mind free from the overmastery of Napoleon's genius. If Mr. Rose's views have been deeply affected by those of any contemporary, we should venture to conjecture that he has felt the touch of the late Lord Acton, who receives the dedication, and whose article on Napoleon in the second volume of the *English Historical Review* discloses much of the same spirit.

We dilate upon this aspect of the work because, where it is a question of the Reformation, the French Revolution, or Napoleon, everything depends upon the animus, the point of view. Mr. Rose confronts as delicate and hazardous a subject as Dr. Creighton did when he set out to write the history of the Papacy during the period of the Reformation. They are alike, also, in learning and openness of mind. It is therefore interesting to see that Mr. Rose concludes his preface with the following words: "That I have escaped altogether the pitfalls with which the subject abounds is not to be imagined; but I can honestly say, in the words of the late Bishop of London, that 'I have tried to write true history.'"

Napoleon and his age are so important, while among all the books which have been written about them so few are really good, that it is a duty to single out and praise the rare work of merit when it appears. Mr. Rose has won high honor where most fail lamentably or absurdly. Though his special researches may have been less arduous than those of Chuquet and Vandal, of Houssaye and Lumbroso, he has made his original contribution to knowledge of fact, and, by gathering up the results of a thousand monographs into a connected biography, he takes his place beside Fournier. Thus, while he helps to redeem his countrymen from the reproach of having studied Napoleon casually and in a wrong spirit, he has produced a book that will be of great value to all who speak English. It deserves moreover, to be translated into the languages of Continental Europs. We shall not overpraise Mr. Rose by saying that he has produced a Thucydidean classic, or that his view of Napoleon will convert the world. He has written, in the narrative form, at which, he says, history ought always to aim, a learned and thoughtful, a compact yet animated, account of Napoleon's life.

Having thus referred to Mr. Rose's outlook and attainment, we may now pass to the subject of his own independent research. He says in the preface: "I should not have ventured on this great undertaking, had I not been able to contribute something new to Napoleonic literature. During a study of this period for an earlier work ['The Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era'], published in the 'Cambridge Historical Series,' I ascertained the great value of the British Records for the years 1795-1815." Drawing from the War Office and Admiralty Records and from the Foreign-Office Archives, he has carried out an investigation which has already been pursued in the case of Russia, Austria, and Prussia. The importance of this quest for Napoleonic material in British instructions, dispatches, and reports is supported by a passage taken from M. Lévy's 'Napoléon Intime': "The documentary history of the wars of the Empire has not yet been written. To write it accurately, it will be more important thoroughly to know foreign archives than those of France." Mr. Rose's comment upon this quotation runs: "I think that I may claim to have searched all the important parts of our Foreign Office Archives for the years in question, as well as for part of the St. Helena period."

Here no allusion is made to what Mr. Rose has discovered in British state papers regarding the period of the Consulate. Yet, like Mr. Bowman, he has examined the Peace of Amiens in the light of information gained from this source, and he has found something new about the part of British officials in the Royalist Plot of 1804. As the conspiracy of Pichegru and Georges Cadoudal was the immediate means of raising Napoleon to the purple, the incident has some significance of its own, while it illustrates forcibly the First Consul's methods of meeting his enemies, and the mental feebleness of the Addington administration. Mr. Rose calls it "the most famous plot of the century," and the fresh facts which he has established deserve to be selected as an example of his diligence.

During 1803-04 two plots were in progress at the same time. The Comte d'Artois and other leaders of the *émigrés*, with certain allies in France, were seeking to effect the assassination of Napoleon; and he, watching their stupid manœuvres, with all the confidence of superior skill, was trying to enlarge the circle of the conspirators until it should include some of his most formidable opponents. By the help of Mehée de la Touche, a skilful *agent provocateur*, Fouché kept the First Consul informed, "while he also wove his meshes round plotting *émigrés*, English officials, and French generals." What has repeatedly been alleged, on the authority of memoirs and other evidence of varying quality, Mr. Rose now proves from British archives, namely, that British officials were guilty of helping forward Pichegru's scheme. Among the Foreign Office Records there is a letter (August 30, 1803) from the Baron de Roll, a Bourbon emissary, to Mr. Hammond, Permanent Under Secretary of the Foreign Office, asking him to call on the Comte d'Artois

at his residence, No. 46 Baker Street. During October of the same year, a secret memorandum follows, in which the Comte d'Artois reviews Bonaparte's career, showing how, at the present moment, all the leading generals and politicians of France are against him. Active complicity is proved by a document of November 18, wherein is noted the payment made by the British Government to royalist officers "who had set out or were ready to set out." "Another 'most secret' Admiralty letter, of January 9, 1804, orders a frigate or large sloop to be got ready to convey secretly 'an officer of rank and consideration' (probably Pichegru) to the French coast. Wright carried over the conspirators in several parties, until chance threw him into Napoleon's power and consigned him to an ignominious death, probably suicide." Finally, Mr. Arbuthnot, Parliamentary Secretary at the Foreign Office, wrote to Sir Arthur Paget (March 12, 1804) about the "sad result of all our fine projects for the reëstablishment of the Bourbons: . . . we are, of course, greatly apprehensive for poor Moreau's safety."

In view of these facts, Mr. Rose brushes away all ministerial denials. Perhaps it was a plot which embraced young and hot-headed officials rather than the respectable chiefs. Perhaps it may be slightly condoned by a French plot of the same kind against George III. "But," Mr. Rose concludes, "when all is said, the British Government must stand accused of one of the most heinous of crimes. The whole truth was not known at Paris, but it was surmised; and the surmise was sufficient to envenom the whole course of the struggle between England and Napoleon."

When he comes to the wars of the Empire, Mr. Rose is likewise able to increase previous knowledge by details that he has drawn from the British records. These are especially interesting for the war of the Third Coalition, during the course of which Napoleon won such brilliant victories over Continental troops supported by English subsidies. We can hardly say that the new evidence thus gathered will cause many verdicts of history to be reversed, but it is always interesting and often valuable. Napoleon is the subject of the book, not British diplomacy; yet few of the incidental topics are so important as the latter. In the end, after ridiculous inconsistencies, the British Foreign Office came to have a settled policy.

"Nevertheless," says Mr. Rose, "the splendor of the finale must not blind us to the flaccid eccentricities that made British statesmanship the laughing-stock of Europe in 1801-3, 1806-7, and 1809. Indeed, it is questionable whether the renewal of the war between England and Napoleon in 1803 was due more to his innate forcefulness or to the contempt which he felt for the Addington Cabinet. When one also remembers our extraordinary blunders in the War of the Third Coalition, it seems a miracle that the British Empire survived that life-and-death struggle against a man of superhuman genius who was determined to effect its overthrow."

We would not have it inferred from what has been said that Mr. Rose exalts Napoleon's relations with Great Britain above everything else in his career. The duel between the Emperor and England is but one feature, however striking, in an experience of unparalleled activity and diversity. Mr. Rose has studied a particular aspect of the subject more thoroughly than any of his predecessors, and this fact we have sought to bring out. At the same time he writes a remarkably well-modelled biography, in which the English element is given no more than its due share. The first volume closes with the collapse of the Boulogne flotilla; the second extends from the campaign of Ulm and Austerlitz to the last hour at St. Helena. If any period has, of conscious purpose, been treated briefly, it is that which comes between 1809 and 1811, when imperial prestige reached its height. Everything essential has been discussed—origin and training, personal and family relations, wars, political aptitudes, the creation of institutions, contact with the Revolution, effect upon European statecraft, character and genius. These things have been taken up by Mr. Rose, not in a loose and nebulous way, or as affording themes for phrases, but with a sure grasp of fact and in stern subordination to a well-wrought plan. If necessary, he can stop to tell a story, even though the telling occupies a whole page—as in the case where he relates how Joseph and Lucien tried to dissuade Napoleon from parting with Louisiana. The story is a good one, but it is not told merely because it is an amusing anecdote.

In any life of Napoleon war must fill a large share of the space, and for this reason the author is sure to feel at a great disadvantage unless he has received special training in military history. Mr. Rose cannot claim to have the grasp of strategy and tactics which the late Mr. Ropes possessed, and we imagine that he would be the last to suggest such a comparison. He writes of war like the intelligent amateur who, after comparing the judgments of the best experts, has used common sense in reaching a conclusion of his own. The campaigns are fully described and with admirable clearness. Even where a moot point arises, like the share of Augereau in the credit for Castiglione, or the reconstruction of what actually took place at Marengo, or Napoleon's mistake in the disposition of his forces just before the battles of Jena and Auerstädt, Mr. Rose is not afraid to state his opinion, since it has been formed after a careful scrutiny of the evidence.

We shall not try to state in a single word what Mr. Rose's attitude is towards either the genius or the character of Napoleon. These are complex questions which cannot be disposed of with a plain yes or no. But there is one manifest disposition of the writer that can be briefly indicated. Mr. Rose is fond of analysis and the investigation of motives, yet at times he reaches the point where he stops short in a mood of pious agnosticism. For example, he will not decide definitely whether in 1805 Napoleon planned his expedition for Ireland seriously, or whether he simply meant it for a feint while he dealt the chief blow at London.

"Both Nelson and Collingwood believed him to be aiming at Ireland. But Napoleon is often unfathomable. Herein lies much of the charm of Napoleonic studies. He is at once the Achilles, the Mercury, and the Proteus of the modern world. The ease with which his mind grasped all new problems and suddenly concentrated its force on some new plan, may well perplex posterity as it dazed his contemporaries."

And again, after describing the wonderful battles of February, 1814, he says:

"Whatever the mistakes of these leaders, and they were great, there is something that defies analysis in Napoleon's sudden transformation of his beaten, dispirited band into a triumphant array before which four times their numbers sought refuge in retreat. But it is just this transcendent equality that adds a charm to the character and career of Napoleon. Where analysis fails, there genius begins."

Finally, Mr. Rose does not blink the Emperor's shortcomings, but he grows eloquent over his achievements. It is in the following strain that this thorough and mature work closes:

"The man who bridled the Revolution and remoulded the life of France, who laid broad and deep the foundations of a new life in Italy, Switzerland, and Germany, who rolled the West in on the East in the greatest movement known since the crusades, and finally drew the yearning thoughts of myriads to that solitary rock in the South Atlantic, must ever stand in the very forefront of the immortals of human story."

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*The Service.* By Henry David Thoreau. Edited by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. 1902.

The brief article which Mr. Sanborn has had so handsomely printed (500 copies on French hand-made paper and 20 on Japan), has had a curious and interesting history. It was sent by Thoreau to the *Dial*, bearing the date July, 1840, the same as that of the first number of the *Dial*, in which he made a double appearance, in poetry and in prose. Margaret Fuller, then one of the editors of the *Dial*, turned it over to Emerson, one of her two associates, with a comment intended for Thoreau, which probably he never saw. She found it full of thoughts, but these so out of their natural order that she could not read it without pain.

"It is true," she continued, "as Mr. Emerson says, that essays not to be compared with this have found their way into the *Dial*. But then these were more unassuming in their tone, and have an air of quiet good-breeding which induces us to permit their presence. Yours is so rugged that it ought to be commanding."

Whence it appears that Emerson desired its publication, but, on becoming sole editor of the *Dial*, the courage of his opinion was not equal to the act he had advised. After Emerson's death, the manuscript found its way somehow into Mr. Sanborn's hands, and now the stone which the lapidaries rejected has been set in a manner equal to, if not beyond, its just deserts.

It will add nothing to Thoreau's reputation, but it will furnish the critics of Transcendentalism with one of their most striking illustrations of its occasional extravagance. Here is a kind of writing which makes the most unintelligible passages of the earlier Emerson seem miracles of clarity. Jeremiah Mason would have been twice confounded by it, and hardly could his "gals" have understood it. Here are colors floated off from Emerson's palette, and here are the stiffness and the involution of English prose before Dryden took it in hand. As for the militant rhetoric, Mr. Sanborn considers this a counterblast to the peace sermons that were getting written in 1840 and about that time. One of the most notable of Channing's had appeared in 1839.

The article has a triple division, the first part being headed "Qualities of the Recruit," the second, "What Music Shall We Have?" the third, "Not How Many, but

Where the Enemy Are." There is evidence on every page of Thoreau's familiarity with natural things and with classic literature. But the natural things seem to exist for him only as symbols of spiritual realities, their frank concreteness affording him no such relish as it did further on. That playing upon words and that delight in paradox which were ever his besetting sins, have here some of their grossest exhibitions, and these sins are mingled strangely with some of the rarest virtues of his thought and style. For example:

"They who are alarmed lest virtue should so far demean herself as to be extremely good, have not yet wholly embraced her, but described only a slight arc of a few seconds about her, and from so small and ill-defined a curvature you can calculate no centre whatever; but their mean is no better than meanness, nor their medium than mediocrity."

And this for paradox:

"What shame, then, that our lives, which might so well be the source of planetary motion, and sanction the order of the spheres, should be full of abruptness and angularity so as not to roll nor move majestically!"

There are sentences and passages of singular beauty, and some of great nobility and splendor, while others jostle them that are absurd either in their expression or in their thought, as where Thoreau finds that "the grand and majestic have always somewhat of the undulatoriness of the sphere," and declares that this is "the secret of majesty in the rolling gait of the elephant, and of all grace in action and in art." He instances the great Tippecanoe and Tyler ball which the grave citizens of Concord rolled from the Concord battle-ground to Bunker Hill. "I seem," he says, "to discover each striving to imitate its gait and keep step with it, if possible to swell to its own diameter." Doubtless Van Buren Democrats, witnessing the same phenomena, gave them a different interpretation, fancying an excessive use of the hard cider of that silliest of all political campaigns. But the main intent is admirable—a variant of Emerson's self-reliance and Channing's greatness of the soul—and there is much striking illustration.

"A man's life," we read, "should be a stately march to an unheard music; and when to its fellows it may seem irregular and inharmonious, he will be stepping to a livelier measure which only his nicer ear can detect. There will be no halt, ever, but at most a marching on his post, or such a pause as is richer than any sounds, when the deeper melody is no longer heard, but implicitly consented to with the whole life and being. He will never take a false step, even in the most arduous circumstances; for then the music will not fail to swell into greater volume, and rule the movement it inspired."

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*With the Wild Geese.* By Emily Lawless. With an Introduction by Stopford A. Brooke, M.A. London: Isbister & Co. Pp. xxvi, 95.

Miss Lawless is rightly esteemed one of the best authors of modern Irish fiction, if not the best. She here appears as a poet. The contents of this volume have, it appears, already been handed around in privately printed form. It is due to Mr. Brooke's persuasion that they are now given to the public, upon condition that he "would write a preface to them which should explain certain matters—among the rest the title of the book—to those English readers to whom Irish history is an unknown wilderness." The preface is not only an explanation necessary for such readers, but a warm appreciation of the work.

"Wild Geese" is the name given to those Irish exiles who, "like the wild birds and with their wailing cry, migrated to the Continent before and after the battle of Aughrim and the surrender of Limerick in 1691." Between that date and 1745, 150,000 Irishmen are said to have died in the service of France alone. Others fought for Spain and Austria.

"No words that I have read," says Mr. Brooke, "have realized with more insight and sympathy the temper of these daring, high-bred, honorable, reckless, and sorrowful men than those with which Miss Lawless has clothed the bitterness of their exile, their passion for fighting, and their longing for their native land."

Besides a fine prefatory address to the Atlantic, laving the shores from which most of the "wild geese" took flight, we are given eight poems on the author's main theme, two dirges on the Desmond War, six themes suggested by life in the Aran Islands, and five miscellaneous pieces. The intensity of feeling and passion in many of these will, at least to those who have felt deeply about Ireland, suggest the spirit running through 'Childe Harold.' The collection opens with a poem of seven stanzas entitled "After Aughrim," in which Ireland is supposed to speak:

"She said, 'They gave me of their best,
They lived, they gave their lives for me;
I tossed them to the howling waste,
And flung them to the foaming sea.'
. . . . . .
"She said, 'Ten times they fought for me,
Ten times they strove with might and main,
Ten times I saw them beaten down,
Ten times they rose, and fought again.'
. . . . . .
"She said, 'God knows they owe me nought,
I tossed them to the foaming sea,
I tossed them to the howling waste,
*Yet still their love comes home to me.*'"

Two poems are entitled "Fontenoy"—one describing the joy of the weary Irish soldiers at the prospect of engaging their English foes; the other the weird return to Ireland of the spirit of the victorious dead:

"*Jesus save you gently! why are ye so white*
*Sitting all so straight and still in this misty light?*"
"Nothing ails us, brother; joyous souls are we,
Sailing home together on the morning sea."

A lovely address, "To a Tuft of White Bog-Cotton, Growing in the Tyrol," is in a different strain from most of the other pieces. We quote the first of the seven stanzas:

"And is it *thou*, small playmate of the fens,
Child of damp haunts and pallid sea-borne fogs,
Light flutterer over dank and oozy glens,
White-tufted, starry friend of Irish bogs!
What dost *thou*, tossed upon this mountain here,
Flaunting thy white crest in this alien air?
Thy little pennon swelled by this loud breeze
Far out of reach of every low compeer;
Far from thy barren moor lands, waste and bare,
And distant moan of sullen Celtic seas."

The last piece closes with the hope of Ireland's future:

"I see her in those coming days,
Still young, still gay; her unbound hair
Crowned with a crown of starlike rays,
Serenely fair.
I see an envied haunt of peace,
Calm and untouched; remote from roar,
Where wearied men may from their burdens cease
On a still shore."

We are mistaken if this volume, attractive in its typography as in its contents, be not destined to take a permanent place on the bookshelves of lovers of Ireland.

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*Forest Neighbors.* By William Davenport Hulbert. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Biographies of a beaver, a brook trout, a lynx, a porcupine, a loon, and a deer make up this book. Though the author vouches for some of the incidents, he does not say that he has drawn his material from the life of any particular animal which he has known, or that he has made a composite sketch of several such lives; he appears, rather, to have combined experiences common or possible to the kind in a bit of clever fiction that does not contradict scientific truth. The book gives evidence of reading and observation joined with marked perception of the conditions of an animal's life, and considerable skill in portraying them. Even the seasoned reader of nature stories gets here a fresh realization of the animal's struggle for existence, in which it must hold out against hunger, accident, disease, the rivalry of its own species, and the violence of predatory animals and hostile man. The pain and fear of the trapped creature come home to one sharply in the stories of the beaver and the lynx. Without sermonizing, the book quickens sympathy and makes cruelty hateful. "The King of the Trout Stream" contains good work in embryology, and is perhaps the best illustration of the author's knowledge of natural history and his ability to show the interesting side of even an unpromising subject. "The Making of a Glimmerglass Buck" is the most dramatic of the stories. It ends with an unusual incident:

"As he [the buck] neared the spring, treading noiselessly on the soft moss, he heard two little clicks, and stopped short to see what they meant. Both were quick and sharp, and both had come exactly at the same instant; yet they were not quite alike, for one had come from the shutter of a camera, and one from the lock of a rifle. Across the salt lick a photographer and a hunter were facing each other in the darkness, and each saw the gleam of the other's eyes and took him for a deer. . . .

"The buck stood and watched, and suddenly there came two bursts of flame—one of them so big and bright that it lit the woods like sheet-lightning. . . . The flash-light printed on the sensitive plate a picture of a hunter in the act of firing, and the rifle sent a bullet straight through the photographer's forehead. The buck saw it all as in a dream—the white flame of the magnesium powder; the rifle belching out its fire and smoke; the camera, silent and harmless, but working just as surely; the two men, each straining his eyes for a sight of the game; the water gleaming in the fierce light, and the dark ranks of cedars all around."

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*Topical Architecture:* A Library of Classified Architectural Motives and Details. Edited by William Rotch Ware, Fellow of the Boston Society of Architects. Boston: American Architect and Building News Company. Renaissance Doorways: Italian, I. (1901). Door and Window Grilles in Bronze and Iron, I. (1902).

Two parts have reached us of the above work, but there is no statement as to whether these are Parts I. and II. of the whole work, or whether others have appeared already. We are therefore unable to inform the reader how far this work may be expected to go. Each volume before us is a collection of plates without text, and with legends merely sufficient to give locality, name of building, and sometimes date or approximate date. Thus, we have, "Doorway leading to the Sacristy, Badia di Fiesole. [1462.] Brunelleschi, Architect," and, in another case, "Doorway to the

Palazzo Brignole, Genoa. Galeazzo Alessi, Architect"; the first of the plates so named being a half-tone print, the second a reproduction from a print in line and credited to the *Revue Générale de l'Architecture*. Some of the doorways are shown in full front—that is, in photographs taken exactly opposite the axis of the design, or by reproduction from elevation drawings; others, though probably the minority, are very picturesque drawings made in the artistic way, or, if wholly photographic, then from a point of view which gives more interesting results. It is, however, with deliberate purpose, no doubt, that the more formal way of presentation is chosen. The chief utility of such books as these is to draughtsmen in offices, nor can there be any doubt that those gentlemen prefer the front view, upon which they can apply their dividers without the trouble of making mental calculations as to the true significance of the details before them.

In what we have said, we have dealt only with the book on doorways. The metal gratings show a more diversified scheme, for some of them are modern and some are ancient; some are on a large scale, and occasionally there are two or even five in a plate; some are in pure photography, and others are photographic copies from outline prints. It need hardly be explained that some of the pieces are very commonplace indeed. Fortunately, it is also true that some there are which have a peculiar charm, and even the great merit of being well and originally designed light metal work.

It is right to say of the books that, although there is no text, there is a two-fold table of contents; the one part managed as an index by location (as Berlin, Prussia, with two specimens; London, England, with four; New York, with perhaps thirty), and the other an index by authorship—that is to say, by the names of the architects who are the designers (as Clinton & Russell with five plates; McKim, Mead & White with five plates; the majority with one plate each). We have tried to describe exactly these books for the benefit of possible purchasers, and the description of a folio of miscellaneous examples hardly allows of much enthusiastic praise. It is quite evident that the books will be of great value for those to whose use they are especially devoted.

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*Les Syndicats Industriels de Producteurs en France et à l'Etranger.* Par Paul de Rousiers. Paris: Armand Colin. 1901. Pp. viii, 290.

The author of this volume is well known in France as a student of American and English industrial conditions, for he has already published several trustworthy works in that field. The present one is a comparative study of industrial combinations, and is divided into three roughly equal parts, dealing respectively with the United States, Germany, and France. M. de Rousiers investigated our own Trusts during a visit to this country in 1896. During 1899 and 1900, he examined German combinations, and, in 1901, studied the French selling-pools. In discussing industrial development outside his own country, he is probably better informed than most foreigners who have taken up the subject, and his work is entitled to respect, although every one who reads it is likely to feel that it is more instructive upon foreign conditions than upon those prevailing in the reader's own country. We think that this is particularly true of the sections relating to the United States. M. de Rousiers has availed himself of most of the recent sources of information, like the work of the Industrial Commission, and has read all the recent books on the subject—such as those of Jenks, Ely, and others. Despite this careful study, he sometimes strays rather far away from his material. The discussions of French and German conditions give the same impression. As a whole, the volume is distinctly sketchy.

M. de Rousiers analyzes the nature and organization of the principal combinations in the three countries of which he treats. He finds that the chief differences between them lie in the extent to which industries have been concentrated, and in the degree of ruthlessness with which consolidation has been brought about. The United States is regarded as the extreme type of concentration in industry. Its Trusts have been formed for the sake of industrial domination; their managers have not hesitated to trample rivals under foot, and the private ownership of railways has enabled large producers to get illegitimate advantage in the shape of discriminating freight rates. Conditions in Germany have been less trying for the small producer. While it is true that the principle of monopoly has been recognized by the Government, some Trusts being directly supported by it, there has been far less effort to exclude the small manufacturer from the market. The consolidations have been unions of producers at the expense of the consuming class, and their main end has been to limit output and so maintain prices at a point that may be profitable for all. In France, most combinations have aimed simply at certain economies of production and distribution and at an equitable division of business. In all three countries, however, M. de Rousiers recognizes the existence of certain tariff Trusts which control special lines of production through Government favor, without any of the reasons for existence that prevail in other industries.

The author is weakest when he deals with the combinations from a theoretical standpoint. The only explanation of the existence of the Trust that he gives is that "industrial and commercial concentration, necessitated by modern economic evolution, compels those who are engaged in industry to draw closer and to unite their efforts in order to rise superior to new tendencies." As Gen. Walker once said, "Some evolutionists ought to be hanged." What is needed in the discussion of the Trust problem is not a mere reference to evolution as the "cause" of the Trust, but some clear indication of the industrial result to be expected from the combinations and of the changes they are likely to introduce into economic theory. About all that M. de Rousiers has to offer on this aspect of the question is the well-worn observation that the combinations do no harm so long as they confine themselves to industrial affairs and hold aloof from political activity.

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*Prisoners of Russia.* By Benjamin Howard, M.A., M.D., etc. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

Those who, some five or six years ago, in this city, heard the late Dr. Howard lecture on his "personal study of convict life in Sakhalin and Siberia," or have read the lecture in the Proceedings of the American Geographical Society, are already acquainted with the admirable spirit of fairness, sympathy, and common sense which distinguishes this volume from many others on allied subjects. Dr. Howard's long familiarity with prison problems in other countries also rendered him eminently qualified to pronounce with authority on the merits and demerits of the Russian exile system, which is seen in its worst representatives in Sakhalin, to which this work is mainly devoted. He, in common with some of Great Britain's Fenian ex-prisoners (whose comments on this subject we printed a number of years ago), regards the Russian system, with its principle of making use of the criminal for the good of the State, allowing him comparative freedom and exercise, with the ultimate prospect of a free life, as infinitely superior to any system in vogue in other lands. He makes a strong argument from the conditions formerly prevailing in Australia, and the effect upon the moral character of prisoners in somewhat similar circumstances. There is some repetition on this point and a few others, indicating that his chapters originally figured as separate lectures or articles.

Revision in this respect, and in regard to the Russian quoted, would have improved the volume as to literary quality and accuracy. The author also falls into errors when he makes statements about the rites of the Eastern Catholic Church, such as, that the children receive the Holy Communion in advance of the priests; that little white loaves, with spear-shaped incisions, are purchased after the morning service by the congregation at will; that it is a rare and unusual thing (so much so that he had never met a foreigner who had had the experience) to see the various services connected with baptism, chrismation, and ablution on the eighth day, "all, and in their proper order of succession, on a single occasion," together with the "Prayers for a Woman on the Fortieth Day after the Birth of a Child" (corresponding to the "Thanksgiving of Women after Child-birth" in the Anglican-Episcopal Church); and, most astounding of all, that the "Athanasian Creed, according exactly to the English version," is recited during one of these services. As to these statements, it may be said that the Athanasian Creed is absolutely unknown, in any form whatever, to the Eastern Catholic Church, the sole one in use being that of Nicea-Constantinople; that the priests invariably communicate first, although in some places (chiefly in the Greek branch) children under seven years of age are given the bread and wine before consecration, which is probably what Dr. Howard saw; and that the first three rites above mentioned, originally separate, are now performed in immediate succession, and can be seen almost any Sunday in the year, even in the Russian churches in various American cities; while the last is equally frequent, though not generally performed at the conclusion of the others. The little loaves, moreover, have been purchased before the service (not at the end), and spear-shaped particles

have been removed by the priest in the sanctuary, accompanied by prayers for the health of the living or the repose of the dead persons indicated by the purchasers, who merely receive back their loaves at the end of the service. Hence, Dr. Howard here misses the import of the custom as well.

Dr. Howard is under the impression that no work exists, in any language, on the subject of Sakhalin, by any person who has ever actually lived there. In this he is mistaken; a fine one does exist, by a "political," who lived there for years, and who even sets forth, in plain language, the affair at Onor to which Dr. Howard alludes by a quotation from an English newspaper of 1892. He is also mistaken—obviously so, in the light of this last fact cited—in his remark: "As the result of my inquiries, not only in Sakhalin itself, but in various parts of Russia as well, I came to think that it is rather the policy of the Russian Government to discourage any definite information about Sakhalin from reaching the Russian people"—and so forth. Yet the ex-political's book above mentioned was licensed, pictures and all, by the censor!

On the whole, however, Dr. Howard's book should be read by every person who is interested in Russia, or in prison problems (and he makes valuable suggestions on other points as well). It is delightful in style, and inspires one with a high and affectionate regard for the man who could write such an impartial, eminently practical work.

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*Tetraeuangelium sanctum juxta simplicem Syrorum versionem ad fidem codicum, massoræ, editionum denuo recognitum.* Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. Pp. xvi, 608.

The *editio princeps* of the New Testament in Syriac appeared at Vienna in 1555. Less than forty years had passed since the *editio princeps* of the Greek text had seen the light; now this new venture came to add its element to the breaking up of old things which Erasmus had wrought. The unmatched authority of the Vulgate had been blown down the wind; was the Greek original in its turn to yield to something still more original? That Widmanstadt, the editor of the Syriac, had any clear idea on this may not be certain; it is certain from his rambling preface, full of strange learning mixed with personal history, that he felt himself launching out on an unknown sea of vague possibilities. He did not belong to the first fresh dawn of humanism, either Latin or Greek, but to that later time when the world was opening east and west, and the Orient was beginning again to pour its treasures on Europe. The place of Greek fugitives as teachers of new lore was taken for him by Syrian Christians in the schools at Rome. Names on his lips are those of Magellan, Reuchlin, Ximenes, Pico de Mirandola, Leo Africanus—above all, Theseus Ambrosius, the first of Syriac scholars in Europe. Of his meeting with the last and the inspiration gained from him for this edition, he gives a vivid account. It was the Oriental renaissance. And thus it is not strange that the conception of Syriac as the native tongue of Jesus should have haunted him; so he had learned to think of it from his Maronite teachers. He had clearly grasped the modern position that a sound exegesis and understanding of the Gospels must be based on an appreciation of the fact that their ultimate sources, written or oral, were Aramaic; that the life in them had been lived in an Aramaic atmosphere.

The *editio princeps* was followed by others in rapid succession; there were at least seven more in the sixteenth century. But neither then nor until now was there one which could claim to present a new and critical text. The sources of the editions of Urmia and Mosul, which came closest to this, were unknown, and these editions could rank only as single and probably good MSS. To all appearance, the Widmanstadt text had come to be regarded as a sufficiently faithful reproduction of the original Peshita, the accepted version of the ancient Syriac Church.

It took the great critical controversy over the Greek text itself, which culminated in the edition of Westcott and Hort, to shake this trust. The Syriac accepted text agreed most closely with the "received" Greek text, and disagreed most strikingly with the now reconstructed critical text. Did, then, this Syriac text actually represent the text received by the Syriac Church in the fourth century and earlier, or had it been corrupted in process of time as was alleged to have befallen the Greek text? So stood the problem. The defenders of the *textus receptus*, notably Dean Burgon, buttressed themselves with the Syriac, and branded the Westcott and Hort text as the most corrupt ever printed. To maintain this position and to resolve the question, an elaborate critical edition of the Gospels was planned by the late Philip Edward Pusey. He had collated many MSS. and collected much material when, in 1880, his lamented death intervened. Thereafter the work was taken up by the present editor, George Henry Gwilliam. He has made use of forty-one MSS., ranging from copies of the fifth century down, of the Urmia edition and of the Nestorian Massoretic MSS. His result, which can hardly be impugned, may be given in his own words: "We can demonstrate that the Peshitto version of the Gospels has not been corrupted in later times; but, on the contrary, that whatsoever variations it exhibits from the Greek, date from a most remote antiquity. Our authorities are products of both the great schools of Syriac Christianity, while our most ancient copies connect our readings with those of the undivided Syriac Church." The fixed fact, then, appears to be that the Syriac version crystallized much earlier than did the Greek text, and, since that crystallization, has been handed on with a unity of recension which reminds most of all of the Massoretic text of the Old Testament; further, that this crystallized form, existing certainly in the fifth century, was in close agreement with the Greek *textus receptus*. Mr. Gwilliam would be inclined to go much further, but so far there can be no disputing his results.

Yet this simply raises new problems. We have now got the ecclesiastical text of the ancient Syriac Church. What relation does it bear to the Curetonian MS., to the Sinaitic MS., to the version used by Aphraates, to the old Latin version, and to the Codex Bezæ? Here be questions! The fountains of the great deep, which were thought effectively and finally sealed by Westcott and Hort, are broken up again, and those who followed in the forlorn hope of Dean Burgon are meeting with their reward. It may not turn out to be precisely what they expect or want, but it was no mare's-nest which they found.

Of Mr. Gwilliam's present edition it is hard to speak in other terms than of the most absolute praise. He has executed his task admirably, and it is in the hope that he is now at work on the remainder of the New Testament that we would venture the following criticisms. The Latin version—added for the benefit of theologians who do not know Syriac, and of these there should be none—is too literal. It will often mislead the non-Syriac reader as to what the Syriac really means. Next, the chapters should be indicated on each page; at present, only luck or patience enables the reader to find his place. Again, the proof-reading of the Syriac could be more careful. But that is a thorny subject; in proof-reading the heart knoweth its own bitterness. The annotations, too, contain an excellent *apparatus criticus*, but there is also in them a number of notes, grammatical and otherwise, which would perhaps be better away. The user of this edition may be presumed to know his Syriac grammar and such matters as differences of spelling between Jacobites and Nestorians. But all these are little things, and we leave this edition with an expression of renewed hope that it may soon be completed.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Budge, E. A. W. Egypt in the Neolithic and Archaic Periods. H. Frowde.
Hutton, Edward. Studies in the Lives of the Saints. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Purser, L. C. M. Tulli Ciceronis Epistolae, Vol. III. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Woodward, R. P. On a Donkey's Hurricane Deck. I. H. Blanchard Co.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST* 14, 1902.

## The Week.

Mr. Bryan's explicit declaration, at last, that he will not be a candidate for the Presidency in 1904, should be worth thousands of votes for Democratic Congressmen next November. Many who are desirous of recording at the polls a verdict against the Republican party, have been hesitating through fear lest they might seem to be endorsing Bryanism. They are anxious to express their disgust and resentment at the betrayal of Cuba, at the refusal to amend an iniquitous tariff, and at the other misdemeanors of the Republicans, but have been debating whether, after all, a vote which might be construed as in favor of Bryan would not be the chief of political sins. But now he has definitely taken himself out of the running. He has not done it voluntarily or gracefully, nor do we doubt that he would proclaim his ambition again if he saw any hope that it might be gratified. It has, however, been demonstrated to him that he is in a hopeless minority. With State after State turning against him, it is evident that he would cut a most pitiable figure in a contest for the nomination. Se he withdraws betimes; and the disappearance of no candidate could mean so great and immediate an advantage to his party.

---

It is encouraging that the first Democratic Congressional convention to meet in New Jersey this year should have cut loose from Bryanism and adopted a platform which concerns the issues of the present day. It is the district which, under the new apportionment, is composed of Warren, Morris, and Union Counties, and the candidate is De Witt C. Flanagan. The platform "reaffirms," not the Kansas City, free-silver deliverance, but allegiance to the "true principles of the Democratic party as enunciated by Jefferson." It condemns the gerrymander of Congressional districts by the Republican Legislature; calls for a reform in the rules of the national House, so that it may become a representative body; and pledges resistance to the Ship-Subsidy Bill. The Philippine question is treated as not a sharp issue between parties at present, the resolutions affirming only that the situation "demands radical remedy," and pledging the nominee to "support such legislation as will bring about the betterment of these poor people," without any specification of what such legislation ought to be. Chief stress is laid upon the tariff question, and, among the declarations on this subject, we read: "The tariff law that enables special industries to control both production and output of necessities of life, should be removed so as to enable open and fair competition; and it is overwhelmingly agreed by the American people that the reduction of the duty upon articles the manufacture and production of which is effectually monopolized, should be made." From first to last, the whole disastrous history of Democracy since 1896 is ignored, and the unspoken demand is for a new national leadership of the party.

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One of the beneficial results of leadership by such men as ex-Gov. Pattison of Pennsylvania is shown in the efforts now making by the Democratic organization in Philadelphia to purge the voting lists of names illegally placed there. Before the ex-Governor became active in the local organization work at Philadelphia, the men who called themselves Democratic leaders in many of the districts were in fact Quay men in disguise. They were in many cases publicly known as "Quay Democrats." Mr. Pattison's first efforts to break up this system caused a great commotion, and he was finally obliged to resign the chairmanship of the City Committee, which he had assumed in order to reorganize the party machinery, if possible. But his interest did not end with his resignation, and, with the aid of a reorganization committee, he was able to begin the work of remodelling the organization. All this happened a year ago. Now, although a candidate for Governor, Mr. Pattison's powerful influence is still being used to break up the Democratic alliance with Quay in Philadelphia. The chief object of this alliance is the perpetuation of election frauds, by which thousands of illegal votes may be counted for the Republican candidates. If these frauds can be checked this year, one great obstacle to reform in Pennsylvania's political condition will have been removed.

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Perhaps Judge Pennypacker of Pennsylvania counted the cost, and thoroughly understood what he was doing, when he consented to represent Virtue on the Quay ticket, but if not, his present experiences are likely to prove more or less uncomfortable. His latest trouble is the threat of the organization leaders of Allegheny County to drop his name from the head of the regular ticket there if he accepts the nomination which has been tendered him by the citizens' organization. This was formed for the purpose of destroying the rule in Pittsburgh of the State-house ring. The purpose of the citizens' movement is purely local. It is participated in by both Republicans and Democrats, and is much the same combination which won a notable victory in the local election last February. It has been decided, for purposes of expediency, to place the Republican nominees for State offices at the head of the fusion anti-machine ticket, and the consent of Judge Pennypacker has therefore been sought. Just how the Republican candidate can refuse this endorsement it is difficult to see. In view of his relations with Quay, and Quay's present agreement with the Harrisburg leaders, it is also difficult to see how Judge Pennypacker can justify to his new intimates an acceptance which he can scarcely avoid.

---

Senator Hanna explains that it was all a joke. It was also the stupid reporters again. They have small sense of humor, and they are compelled to "condense" so much that it is no wonder they gave the country the impression that he said at Urbana, on August 6, he was going to resign from the Senate in order to wreak himself upon the labor movement. To remove all misunderstandings of that sort, the Senator now declares explicitly that he has "never given a thought" to leaving the Senate. He also takes occasion to contradict the rumor that he means to give up the chairmanship of the National Committee. All that he has he intends to hold, and he again strangely omits to state that he has no ambition for the Presidency. His friends are saying to him, as Rufus Choate said to Sumner when the latter was elected Senator from Massachusetts, "Glamis thou art, and Cawdor, and shalt be——?" And Macbeth Hanna smiles and does not say them nay, and turns with renewed ardor to his beloved workingmen.

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Michigan is one of the States where there is a growing sentiment in favor of trying the experiment of a primary election law, which impresses many people at first thought as promising entire relief from the evils of the caucus and convention system, and the Democrats are doubtless shrewd in making this one of their issues. Local self-government is another important plank, the Republicans of late years having been great offenders in ruling cities from the State capital. There is an earnest demand for equal taxation and equal assessments, and a vigorous condemnation of legislative extravagance, with an endorsement of the initiative and referendum, as well as of municipal ownership of public utilities. Barring these last two planks, which it considers "a harmless concession to the newer school of political faddists," the Detroit *Free Press*, the independent Democratic newspaper of Michigan, ventures the opinion that the platform expresses the sentiments of 90 per

cent. of the voters of the State, whether they are Democrats or Republicans, although it does not claim that the platform and ticket will command the support at the polls of even 50 per cent. of the voters. Whatever the result on election day, however, it will do the commonwealth a deal of good to have such vital questions talked over and thought about.

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Whatever may be the final result of the agitation in the Northern States for the direct primary, it is almost certain that the primary system which has long been in vogue in some of the Southern States, will soon be the rule everywhere below the Potomac and the Ohio. This system is quite different from that known in the North as the direct primary. The candidates go about together, conducting joint debates at every stopping-place; and when the primary voting takes place, it has most of the characteristics of an actual election. As almost all of the white voters belong to the one party, there is little danger of manipulation across party lines. The formal election which comes later is an affair of much less importance than the primary. Louisiana is now in the midst of an agitation to secure the establishment of this system. Florida adopted it two years ago, and of the result Gov. Jennings said recently: "We would not go back to the convention system for anything. It does not cost any more to be a candidate for office under the primary plan than under the convention system. We have found that the primary, instead of closing the doors to the nomination of poor men, opens them the wider, and the poor men in Florida are the very people who proposed the primary and who carried on the campaign which resulted in its adoption." This answers one objection which has frequently been urged, so far as Florida's first trial of the experiment is concerned; but there are other States in that section where it has been longer in vogue, and where the complaint is that it is unduly expensive to candidates.

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Mr. Roosevelt seems likely to make over the Supreme Court largely—especially if he should be given a second term. Justice Gray, who has just resigned, was the oldest member of that bench—seventy-four, last March; but Justice Shiras was seventy last January, Chief Justice Fuller will reach the same age next February, and Justice Harlan next June. Under the law allowing retirement upon a full-pay pension at seventy, after ten years of service, all three may withdraw within the next twelvemonth. Of the other five, Brown is sixty-six; Brewer, sixty-five; Peckham, sixty-three; McKenna, fifty-nine; and White, fifty-six. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes, the present Chief Justice of Massachusetts, will not reduce the average age so much as is desirable when a new man comes—indeed, he violates the rule which it has been sought to establish, that no man should be appointed who was past sixty; but heredity gives him promise of a vigorous old age. The substitution of one Massachusetts man for another does not disturb the balance of the court from the point of view of locality. New England still has one of the nine places; New York and Pennsylvania, one apiece—Peckham and Shiras; the Middle West, three—Fuller of Illinois, Brown of Michigan, and Brewer of Kansas; the upper and lower South, one apiece—Harlan of Kentucky and White of Louisiana; and the Pacific Coast, one—McKenna of California. Three are Democrats—Fuller, Peckham, and White; and no change in this division is made by putting one Republican in place of another. Fortunately, it has been long since the suggestion was heard that either section or party had any influence in the decisions of this court.

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The news that in many instances the titles to the friars' lands in the Philippines have been transferred to secular companies, has reached the Vatican tardily, for the facts had been fully brought out in Gov. Taft's testimony before the Senate committee. It remains only to say that the Insular Government finds itself confronted by a state of things which arises whenever expropriation of the religious orders is attempted. Today, in Italy, and in other countries which have suppressed the convents and monasteries, the title to historic establishments is vested in private and ostensibly secular companies, while the monks remain in full occupation and control. Many of the religious schools in France have taken this means of evading the Associations Act. Of course this interposition of a company between the monastic chapter and the Government does not essentially affect the problem of suppression or expropriation. In fact, it often gives the Government a discretion, in applying the law, of which it is very glad to avail itself. Some delay is involved when it is necessary to prove in each separate case the equivocal nature of the ownership; but a body of nuns or monks cannot be concealed, and their presence is sufficient evidence against any establishment that the Government desires to close. Furthermore, it is often an advantage to be unable to apply wholesale and harshly a law which dispossesses an entire population of friars and sisters. In short, the evasion of proscriptive laws by the religious orders has seldom hampered a resolute government in taking any necessary measure of self-protection, while it has often relieved a radical government from something of religious odium. Such will unquestionably be the case in the Philippines.

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The provincial press of Cuba is filled with details of the increasing distress in the island. In Matanzas work is suspended on so many plantations that twenty-five thousand laborers are out of employment. From Pinar del Rio comes the report of dozens of the best and largest mills closed. In Las Villas the peasants are killing their cattle for food. So it goes. To add to the prevailing misery, the Cuban Company is laying off hands. In some towns the funds for public works are exhausted, and even street-cleaning is abandoned. Beggars are multiplied in field and village, and the people are everywhere giving their first and most anxious thought to the question, not how to make their new government work well, but how to escape starvation. This is the actual picture which we have to look upon in Cuba itself, at the same time that our bureau chiefs at Washington are putting out their smug report on "What We Have Done for Cuba." The beet-sugar Congressmen sniffed at the talk about threatened Cuban misery. Where was the evidence? Now they may see signs enough of suffering, but it is too late. They have done their work. They have saved their beets, but they have plunged Cuba into distress and despair.

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The crop estimates issued on Monday by the Department of Agriculture, bring few surprises, confirming unofficial forecasts of a generally satisfactory harvest. Only the figures of the probable corn crop, which reach the enormous total of 2,561,490,000 bushels, call for comment. The partial failure of last year's crop naturally led to an increase in the acreage sown with this cereal of not less than 12,000,000 (approximately one-eighth), while an average condition of 86.5, as against 54 on August 1 a year ago, fully justifies an extraordinary forecast, which would be still larger but for a decline of 10.7 per cent. for the month of July in the fourteen Southern States. The wheat crop, at 646,611,000 bushels, is well above the average for several years past, though 74,600,000 below the record yield of 1901. Rye, barley, and oats are reported as in better condition than at this time last year. Further than to recall the general fallibility of prophecy, there is little occasion to question these optimistic estimates. We note that the figures for oats are withheld, because the crop is now being dealt in in the exchanges of the country. It seems to us that in this suppression the department shows a not wholly justifiable scruple. Surely even speculators are entitled to information from the Government experts, while unquestionably the publication of official estimates tends to reduce the speculative element in grain operations.

Mr. Chamberlain's Colonial Conference has ended, with failure written all over it. So abortive have the proceedings been that they are not even to be published. All that Parliament and the public are to get is the very Platonic resolutions adopted, which amount to little more than the expression of a pious regret that it is not possible to do anything. Mr. Chamberlain had begun to forecast these meagre results in his speeches. In his address to the London Grocers the other day, he gravely put the "educative influence" of the Conference above its "substantial results." He is quite right; and one of the persons to profit most by the education is the Colonial Secretary. He has learned that the great English colonies are self-governing democracies, which will stand up for their own interests and their own peaceful development, in the face of all Imperial blandishments. The existence of laws of trade, also, and the calm strength of the teachings of political economy, which he had sneered at as "pedantry," have been taught him in this Colonial school. Mr. Chamberlain's sobering and chastening, through all this process, have been, in fact, so marked that we should be quite willing, for our part, to class them among the "substantial results" of the Conference.

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It would seem highly probable that one result of the colonial negotiations in London will be the establishment of a Canadian line of fast steamers. The positive announcements already made on this subject are doubtless premature; but, with the two Governments so deeply interested, and with the Parliamentary committee likely to recommend action, it appears almost certain that something will be done. No general system of shipping subsidies is in contemplation. That was condemned, at the Parliamentary hearing, by both commercial and military experts. Mr. Pirrie of Harland & Wolff forcibly argued that an indiscriminate subsidy led to inefficiency, and that unless the builders and owners of ships made the needs of trade the chief consideration, failure was destined. Admiral Beresford, for the navy, said that it would be tactical folly for England to enter upon a subsidizing policy, since it would be certain to involve Great Britain in a war of tariffs and bounties with the United States and Germany and France and Russia. Such a course, said the bluff sailor, "would be madness." Yet he was perfectly willing to endorse the plan of giving extra postal pay to a few 22-knot steamers from Canada, which might be used as auxiliary cruisers in case of war, as may the White Star boats which Mr. Morgan has bought, but which he has offered to put in the same way at the disposal of the Admiralty.

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Canada's contribution to the plan must be, of course, in the nature of a direct subsidy, or guarantee. Her motives are different from those of the English Admiralty. It is not the exigency of war that she has in mind so much as the needs of peace. Her rich farming lands of the Northwest she wishes to develop. The Canadian Pacific is as keen as the managers of the American steamship and railway combination to see the advantage of through rates under a single control from the Manitoba grain fields to the Liverpool docks. Accordingly, the Canadian railroad authorities are hot for a Government grant in aid. An offer of $750,000 a year has been, in fact, already made by the Canadian Government, but the shipping people say it is too small. They assert that $2,000,000 a year is necessary, though, as Senator Drummond of Montreal told the Committee of the House of Commons, if it were now proposed to give him $1,750,000 a year, "I might be tempted." With such plans advocated and such motives operating in Canada and England, it is apparent that the chances of the ultimate establishment of such a fast service are very good.

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It was fully expected that Mr. Balfour would put the Education Bill over to the fall, after having secured the passage of the more vital clauses—those which lodge control in the county and municipal councils, and those which assure to the denominational schools now to be supported by the rates a two-thirds majority of denominational managers. Although the Liberal opposition bears most heavily upon the non-popular and non-elective character of the educational authority, the real grievance against the bill is a religious one. Under the law as it now stands, there will be 8,000 parishes in England and Wales in which the only school is that of the Church of England. These so-called "voluntary" *(Anglicè,* private) schools remain largely under their old management, and, in the case of the 8,000 mentioned, will be the only public primary schools in their neighborhood. Naturally, Nonconformists are reluctant to send their children to a "Church" school which by a scratch of the pen has become a public school; quite as naturally, these "chapel people" object to paying taxes for what was and is the parson's school. Various suggestions for compromise have been made. That of allowing all the religious denominations to give instruction at stated times is in the line of our own Faribault system and the Manitoba plan, but it is evidently easier to apply such a method in a school which admits all comers without prejudice than in one which is committed to a particular form of faith. This arrangement is urged by so prominent an Anglican as Bishop Hereford. To one who does not know the rural conditions of England, the whole quarrel looks pettier than it is. Denominationalism is deeply intrenched in the life of the people. All English education bills are likely to be bad as long as public education must adjust itself to denominational convictions.

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King Edward's coronation on Saturday had something of the air of a narrowly escaped tragedy; yet the personal congratulations which he received were surely all the heartier for that. Meanwhile, the real rulers of England appear in the Cabinet, whose partial reconstruction is now announced. The new names are very much what was expected, and represent rather the humdrum order of statesmanship. The appointment of Mr. Ritchie to the Exchequer is that of a safe man whose name, if it connotes nothing brilliant, at least arouses no apprehensions. His task will be a thankless one, as the budget is unpopular even with his own party; but then, the Liberals will tell him, he may not need to remain long in an onerous office. The promotion of Mr. Chamberlain's son is a testimony to the dominant influence of the Colonial Secretary, and lends point to the fling of that unreconciled Tory, Mr. Bowles, that, whereas the old Cabinet was a single family, the new one is to illustrate the principle of the double family.

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The gift of the Dutuit collection to the city of Paris is an example of personal benefaction which will recall to New Yorkers the gathering of the Marquand collection for the Metropolitan Museum, and the piety with which the descendants of Peter Cooper have fostered and enlarged the ideals which presided over his foundation of Cooper Union. For years the entire Dutuit family gave themselves to the collecting of the rarest objects of art, keeping ever before themselves the fact that they were purchasing for exhibition in perpetuity, and so must admit no object of questionable or merely ephemeral value. To this end the brothers Dutuit and their only sister gave unsparingly of their fortune and of their time. The idea grew, it is said, out of the disappointment of Auguste Dutuit's ambition as a painter. Soon recognizing, in Couture's atelier, that he lacked original talent, he persuaded his brother and sister to join him in permanently associating the family name with the great art of the past. They gladly seconded his enthusiasm, and the children of the Marseilles docker gradually built up a collection worthy of the city of Paris. Between the generosity which merely leaves great sums for good works, and that which gives also the labor of a lifetime to framing its benefaction solidly and well, there is no comparison. There is no more pleasing symptom of the times than the disposition signally illustrated in the case of the Dutuit family—to execute as well as to endow works of beneficence.

*THE TARIFF WILL NOT DOWN.*

Secretary Shaw's opening speech of the Vermont campaign on August 5 reads, in those parts of it which touched upon the tariff, as if he thought his Green Mountain hearers were green indeed. Such a medley of inaccurate history, bad logic, and short-sighted policy can be defended only on the plea which Luther irreverently used in connection with what he thought an unsound argument in one of St. Paul's epistles. It was "good enough for the Galatians," said the audacious Reformer; and it is "good enough for the Vermonters," Secretary Shaw may be imagined saying of his tariff address. Certainly, we should not advise him to try it on the Republicans of Iowa or Minnesota, who have got far beyond such a futile prophesying of smooth things about trusting the party to be "wise," and do what is "best" for the country.

To begin with Mr. Shaw's rather surprising history, he tells us that in 1882 the Republican party appointed a commission to consider the tariff question, and that, "in obedience to its suggestions," the tariff was revised in 1883. Yet, he says, the people were not satisfied, and incontinently turned to and elected a Democratic President in 1884. This quite takes away one's breath; the truth being, of course, that the commission recommended a general reduction of protective duties, but that Congress displayed its "obedience" by increasing them! This fact would help the Secretary to understand what is apparently a mystery to him—namely, why "this revision did not satisfy the people."

What he is most positive about, however, is that nothing the Republican party could do in the way of tariff revision would "satisfy our opponents." But we thought the great object of political parties was to satisfy the people and their own members. Mr. Shaw is very strong on the folly of making any "concession to Democratic clamor." But the country has been hearing a good deal of Republican clamor from the Secretary's own State. Does he propose to concede nothing to that? Will he tell the Republicans of Minnesota and Wisconsin and Michigan, as he did those of Vermont, that this is no time to talk of revising the tariff?

The Secretary's attitude seems to be that of admitting the evil while refusing the remedy. He does not deny that there are "inaccuracies and inequalities" in the present tariff. Valiantly he affirms that the Republican party "never attempts to defend" a demonstrably unfair tariff schedule. No, it does not defend it, but simply maintains it. It falls back on the impotent position taken by Secretary Shaw. He says, in effect, and almost in words: "I confess that many of the existing duties ought to be modified. But if we should succeed in changing or repealing some of the worst ones, there would remain countless others nearly as bad. And if we pull out one unjust schedule, its beneficiaries threaten to tumble the whole edifice down about our ears. So I ask you, is it wise to talk about doing anything at this time?" Surely, no enemy of the Republican party ever accused it of being more imbecile, more helplessly tied hand and foot and delivered over to a combination of plunderers, than Mr. Shaw does, by fair implication, when he acknowledges that it has put wicked tariff laws on the statute-book, but is powerless to remove them.

Let such timid souls as the Secretary deprecate the agitation for tariff reform as they may, the movement is afoot, the Republicans of the Northwest are up, the Democrats will force the fighting, the people are thinking and talking of little else than the flagrant injustices of the tariff and its inexcusable sheltering of monopoly; so that the conflict is irrepressible. The complaint is precise. The remedy demanded is definite. It is not one of those questions of vague discontent or social unrest which are the nightmare of statesmen because it is so difficult to deal with them. Specific allegations are made. "Your tariff on cattle and beef products," declared the National Association of Retail Butchers in Chicago the other day, "aids the odious Beef Trust, and we want you to reform that duty altogether." So in those Western States where the tariff question is most aflame, it is not indefinite outcry that we hear, but clear-cut and exact descriptions of what is wrong and what should be done to set it right. The Western Republicans strike their hands upon the tariff and boldly say, "Thou ailest here and here." In Minnesota, for example, the chief demand is for the reduction of the lumber duties. The Republicans of that State know what hurts them. So unmistakably have they made their wishes known that Congressman Tawney, seeking renomination in the First District, has been forced to pledge himself to "work for a reduction of duties, including the duty on lumber." He even went so far as to promise flatly that, "if the Republicans control the Fifty-eighth Congress, there will be a revision of the tariff." Certainly there will be, if the Democrats control it. Tariff reform, therefore, must be put down as one of the certainties of the near future.

In the growing demand for it, the Republican managers will see, if they are wise, not, as Secretary Shaw seems to, a thing to pooh-pooh or take fright at, but a great opportunity to be embraced. "Political skill," said Frederick the Great, "consists rather in taking advantage of favorable circumstances than in preparing them in advance." The occasion is propitious for the formulation of a definite tariff policy by the Republicans. To remove every needless duty, to cut off every schedule which shelters a Trust—that is a programme reduced to its simplest terms. With less than that the American people will not be satisfied. Is there enough courage, enough true statesmanship, in the Republican party to take up this burning question, and settle it on grounds of justice? If not, the people will throw away so useless an instrument, and select or create another that is capable of executing the popular will.

*NEW CUBAN QUESTIONS.*

We see no occasion for rash jumping to conclusions in connection with the proposed Cuban loan of $35,000,000. It is not yet authorized. When it is, and if it is, there will be still six months to wait before it is floated (if it can be floated at all on the terms proposed), and still further delay before it can be ascertained whether the loan is, in fact, in violation of that one of the Platt amendments which forbids the Cuban Government to incur a debt too heavy for the island revenues to carry. It seems to us, therefore, that the newspaper jurists who have already decided that the Cubans are caught in the act of trampling upon their Constitution, and that we shall have to intervene, are running before they are sent.

Nor can we accept, much as we should like to, the theory of a dark conspiracy behind the project of a Cuban loan. It is thrilling, of course, to hear of secret plotters and mysterious syndicates and disguised agents, all engaged in a subtle complot to force Cuban annexation; but when a simple and natural explanation lies in plain sight, we are prosaically compelled to prefer it to the fairy stories. There seems to be, after all, no great mystery about this loan proposed by the Cubans. They need the money. We hope no American will question that first principle of human conduct. Cuban agriculture is prostrate, thanks to we know whom, and the Government asks for $4,000,000 to loan to the planters, to help them tide over their evil day. It has always been expected that funds would have to be found to pay the Cuban army, to take up the Cuban bonds that have been recognized as lawfully issued for value received, and to cover some other expenses of the struggle for independence. Here is reason enough for a loan, without invoking conspirators and fellows in the cellarage. We may be all wrong about this, and certainly it is an awful pity not to be able to credit this engaging and complicated romance about an annexationist conspiracy; but we are bound to say that the explanation of the matter given in the Cuban Congress and the Cuban press seems to account for everything, without any of these cloaked schemers in the background saying "Hist!" and "Aha!"

One question that our glib journalistic legists do not appear to have considered

at all is, how the United States is to intervene in this affair of the loan. Why, it is hastily said, the loan is in violation of the Platt amendment, and the Platt amendment is now an integral part of the Cuban Constitution; of course it is our right to step in and prevent the Cubans from violating their own Constitution. But we have an obstinate doubt or two. Who is to decide whether the Cuban Constitution is violated? It seems to be thought that any newspaper correspondent in Havana can settle the thing by telegraph. If not, then Minister Squires appears to be counted upon to inform us, or Secretary Shaw, or Assistant-Secretary Hill, or any stray Congressman that turns up in Washington, or the man in the street, or the inner consciousness—everybody or anybody. Unfortunately for all these ready reasoners, however, the Cuban Constitution itself explicitly lays down the method of deciding the matter in question. In the section treating of the "Judicial Power," it is expressly stated that the Cuban Supreme Court shall have power, among other things, "to decide upon the Constitutionality of laws, decrees, and rules, when a controversy may arise upon such points" (Title X, Art. 83). This, it is clear, is copied from American practice. Under it, we can easily see, it would be just as impertinent for Minister Squires, or any outsider, to say that a given Cuban law was unconstitutional, as for the English Ambassador to notify his Government that the Oleomargarine Bill was in violation of the Constitution of the United States. There are courts in Cuba. Legal controversies must go before their judges, who may conceivably differ from or even overrule their brethren of the American press.

That we have a perfectly legitimate interest in all that is going on in Cuba, as well as a direct responsibility for it, we do not dream of disputing. If there is commercial distress in the island, we know at whose door the guilt must be laid. If the embarrassed Government of the young republic finds itself in thickening difficulties, and scarcely knows which way to turn, that fact is but one reproach more to this country. Had we hearkened to our own President, these troubles had not befallen our wards in Cuba. And what we say now is that our own grievous faults in this whole business should make us exceedingly wary and patient in all our future dealings with the island. We regret to observe an assumption, in some quarters, of a high moral tone in lecturing Cuba as to her duty to keep all her pledges, and not to do anything so wicked as to levy high tariff taxes on our exports. Satan rebuking sin would be a miracle of consistency compared with Americans who should turn upon the Cubans in such a way. We are unquestionably under a serious and continuing obligation as regards Cuba; but in view of our own shortcomings, our first duty is to be tolerant and hopeful, instead of exacting and distrustful, and to go out of our way to aid the struggling Government of our own creation, instead of picking a quarrel with it.

### *THE MICHIGAN CAMPAIGN.*

Senator James McMillan of Michigan, who died suddenly on Sunday, belonged to that class of rich men in public life whom it is fashionable to sneer at. Until the death of his colleague, Francis B. Stockbridge, in 1894, both of his State's seats in the upper branch of Congress were filled for a number of years by men of great wealth. Their opponents used to ridicule them as men who would have cut no figure in politics except for their money. Mr. McMillan was undoubtedly much helped in the attainment of his political ambitions by his money, but he appears to have been the sort of man who would have forced his way to the front if he had devoted himself to law instead of business, when he was a young man, and become a leader at the bar instead of on the exchange. He was not an orator, but he was a man of excellent sense, and his public spirit was attested by a long list of notable gifts to the city of Detroit, the State University, and other institutions. He became chairman of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, and the national capital profited greatly by his business acumen and breadth of view. He deserves great credit for having lent all the weight of his powerful influence to the development of that elaborate and far-sighted scheme for the improvement of Washington which now seems certain ultimately to be carried out. For the help which he gave to this monumental work the Senator will long be remembered by public-spirited residents of the city.

His death emphasizes the misfortune of the system under which the choice of a United States Senator must be made by the Legislature. His third term began in March, 1901. The term of his colleague, Burrows, runs until March, 1905. Under ordinary conditions, no member of the Legislature to be chosen in November would have anything to do with questions of national politics. Meanwhile there are great questions of State policy which press for settlement. The recent Democratic convention devoted its platform entirely to these issues, and the Republicans were just beginning to find that they must meet their opponents on this field. Last Saturday it looked as though Michigan might present the long-sought spectacle of a people choosing their Governor and members of the Legislature primarily with reference to their attitude towards questions concerning the commonwealth with which they would have to deal. All this is changed by Mr. McMillan's death. The Governor will appoint a temporary successor, but his tenure will last only until the new Legislature which will meet early in January makes its choice. The most important question as to every candidate of the Legislature therefore becomes—not how he stands about one or another reform which is needed in the government of the State, but whether he will support a Republican or a Democrat for the United States Senate. The Republican who may have been inclined to vote for a Democratic member on local issues will now feel that he must stand by the nominee of his own party in order that it may control the Senatorship for more than four years. The interests of the State and the district, the personal characters of the rival candidates for the Legislature—all those considerations which ought to govern the choice of a member—instantly disappear as elements in the contest, and voters are constrained to vote for State legislators solely according to their views on national politics.

The agitation for the election of Senators by popular vote should profit by this striking illustration of how the old system operates to the disadvantage of the State. Elections are generally held biennially, which means that two Legislatures out of every three must be chosen primarily with reference to the choice of a United States Senator. The present incident in Michigan shows the constant possibility that even the one chance in three to consider the interests of the State may be lost by the accident of death or resignation. Moreover, the politicians are always seeking to control the nomination of legislators in an "off year" with a view to the Senatorial election, because men chosen at that time may be reëlected for the session when the Federal office is to be disposed of. The influence of the Senatorship is thus always present, in greater or less degree.

The election of Senators by popular vote might or might not give us better Senators, but one thing it would certainly do: it would enable us to choose members of the Legislature solely with reference to their fitness to discharge the duties properly attaching to their office. That is one argument for the change which the defenders of the existing system cannot answer.

### *COST OF THE NEW YORK STATE GOVERNMENT.*

Discussion of the State finances by the politicians is apt to proceed with some embarrassments, owing to the necessity felt by adherents of each party of proving that their organization is the only one possessing the will and the ability to conduct the Government skilfully and economically. These embarrassments have been evident on both

sides in the partisan discussion this year about the financial condition of the State. Thus, the Democratic managers, in their zeal to show that the present Republican Administration is spending the people's money too lavishly, permitted themselves to make charges which a moment's examination proved to be absurd—as, for instance, the wholly unwarranted assertion that a way had been prepared by which $6,000,000 could be borrowed to meet an expected deficit.

The Republican managers, also, have not been free from overstatement and the vice of biassed selection in the use of statistics. Dwelling upon the practical abolition of the direct State tax, for example, is no answer at all to the charge of extravagance, since there is no more excuse for squandering the State's money when it comes from indirect sources than there would be if it were the result of direct taxation. Indeed, it ought not to be forgotten that, not many years ago, it was the fashion among Republicans to ascribe the increase in the State expenditures, beginning in the early eighties and continuing steadily until the high-water mark was reached in 1897, to the introduction of a system of indirect taxation.

Nor was the selection of the year 1893 as the basis for Republican comparisons a proceeding which could be regarded as wholly disinterested. To be sure, 1893 was the last year in which the Democrats controlled both the Legislature and the Governorship, but it was also the year when the tax rate was higher than in any previous year of Democratic administration—a condition due principally to the fact that the first considerable appropriation, $1,300,000, was then made for the State care of the insane. Fortunately, it is not necessary to follow partisan leading-strings in this discussion.

A glance at the totals of the appropriations for the last twenty years shows that the State expenditures have more than doubled since 1882, and that over two-thirds of this increase has taken place within the last decade. The total appropriations, less refunds, in 1882 were $10,625,129; in 1892, $13,540,897; and in 1902, $21,231,682. In 1897 the total appropriations were $26,962,705, the highest in the history of the State. This increase was only partly accounted for by an expenditure of $6,884,436 on the canals. Since 1897 there has been a tendency to diminish expenditures, broken only by the year 1900, when there was a slight increase over the previous year. The population of the State in practically the same period increased from 5,082,871 in 1880 to 7,268,894 in 1900. The expenditures in 1882 were approximately $2.09 per capita; in 1892, $2.41; and in 1897, $3.94; while in 1902 the per capita expenditure is about $2.81.

These are the bald facts, but crude appearances are never so misleading as in discussions involving finance. The question is, of course, whether or not the State has run into useless expenditures, and whether or not it has undertaken to do more than it can afford to do. To answer this question it is necessary to examine the various causes of the increases shown in the yearly figures of appropriations. First and foremost of these is the adoption of the system of State care of the insane. This was enacted into law in 1890, but the first large appropriation from State funds was not made until 1893. A steady increase in this item of expenditure followed, from $1,346,019 in 1893 to $5,544,891 in 1900, when the highest point was reached. The amount for 1901 was more than a million dollars less, $4,345,382, and the appropriations for this purpose for the current year show a continued decrease, being only $4,175,573. In considering this addition to the State's expenses it must be remembered that the care of the insane was a charge on the taxpayers as completely before as after the adoption of State care. The unfortunates were scattered about in county poorhouses and asylums, and it is wellnigh impossible to estimate what it cost to support them, though it is certain that their condition in some counties was a disgrace to the State. No one now questions the wisdom of the change to State care. Undoubtedly there were some extravagances at first. In 1897 the per capita cost of maintenance in the State asylums was $195. In 1901 this had been cut down to $167. Whether the changes in the government of the institutions brought about by the legislation of this year will still further reduce the per-capita cost is, of course, for the future to say. In the opinion of the Charities Aid Association, these rates "cannot be continued without serious injury to the interests of the insane, much less should there be a reduction."

Another source of increase has been the improvement in our common-school system, and the new expenditures for higher education through free academies and training-schools. In 1892 the State's common-school bill was $3,934,700; this year it is $4,436,150, an increase partly due to a more liberal treatment of the rural districts. In the year 1897, when expenditures were at their highest, the common-school appropriation was but $4,090,500. In 1892, less than $200,000 was spent in aid of academies, high schools, etc.; this year $553,402 has been appropriated for such purposes. All this has added to the total of the State's expenses, but has in many cases lifted a burden from the shoulders of local taxpayers, as well as increased the scope and availability of our educational facilities.

Other items of increased expenditure with which no fault can be found have been alluded to. Thus, the expenses of the Legislature, which were $521,148 in 1892, and $608,711 this year, were increased by the provisions of the new Constitution, which added fifty members, whose salaries aggregate $75,000, exclusive of mileage. The amount for this year, by the way, shows a saving of about $20,000, as compared with 1901, due to the shortness of the last session. So, in the matter of roads, for which nothing was spent in 1892 and no State system adopted in 1897, there is an appropriation of $897,568 this year. The increased cost of the judiciary, which was $530,800 in 1892 and is $1,074,132 in 1902, is due also to Constitutional provisions.

Meanwhile there have been considerable savings since 1897 in the administrative departments of the State Government. In his report for 1897 Comptroller Roberts showed that thirty-six new departments and commissions had been established since 1880, and that these were costing the State $6,884,713 per year. Many of these commissions have now been abolished and some others consolidated, so that in 1901 the expenditures for the State departments and commissions were under $3,000,000—a most satisfactory showing. There were further consolidations by the Legislature this year, which will materially reduce the cost for this and subsequent years.

Altogether, it seems fair to conclude from these figures that, while the State's expenditures have largely increased—in fact, more rapidly than its population—its proper and praiseworthy activities have increased in a corresponding measure. If the first years of these expanding interests were marked by a tendency toward extravagance, that tendency seems to have been checked, in a measure at least, though it is far from certain that further economies in the administration of bureaus and commissions may not prove possible and wise. The centralizing of power and responsibility in the State Government has been clearly in the trend of recent events. The cost of administering functions previously left to the counties has not necessarily increased with State control, but it has become more evident. And it must be added that more businesslike methods and better results have certainly followed.

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### *THE CHARTERS OF CITIES.*

Within a few days the Legislature of Ohio, convened in extraordinary session by the Governor, will enter upon a most interesting and important task, that of preparing a code for the government of Ohio cities. The preparation of the code is made immediately necessary by a decision of the State Supreme Court, practically declaring invalid the city charters throughout the State. The court, in effect, decided that the classification under which the city govern-

ments are operating is contrary to the Constitution, which requires that "the Legislature shall pass general laws" for the government of cities. The classification in question was general in form, but so expressed that particular cities were indicated, and this the Supreme Court finally refuses longer to sanction.

The task which the Legislature has before it is, of course, of the utmost importance to Ohio, but it possesses also an extreme interest for students of the municipal problem elsewhere. The eyes of municipal reformers will turn toward Columbus with a good deal of eagerness, and perhaps with some anxiety, during the weeks which follow the assembling of the lawmakers. They well know that the attention which has been given to municipal problems during the last decade has not all been in vain. Principles of municipal administration have been evolved which are no longer mere theories; they are established. In framing the fundamental law for the cities of Ohio, will the Legislature take these principles into account, or will it disregard them? Will the Legislature so act that the municipal code which it produces may register the advance which has been made in the direction of good government for cities, or must "politics" play the chief part during the session, and the result be some municipal hodge-podge through which the "control" of the cities will be kept by the party in power in the State, without reference to the wishes of local taxpayers and voters?

One of the principles which may be described as established is the principle of home rule. It is fair to describe it as established because, though it is violated perhaps as often as it is observed, no party dares to oppose it as a principle, and all, in fact, proclaim their adherence to it. The Ohio Legislature has a chance to institute real home rule in the cities of that State. A charter ought to be to a city, somewhat at least, as a Constitution is to a State or a nation. It ought to contain the fundamental law, and it ought not to be subject to constant change at the whim of some party or individual. This is the modern idea of a city charter, and it is the right one. The Legislature cannot, of course, of itself prevent the amendment or repeal of its work by subsequent legislatures; but, if it succeeds in drawing up a municipal code based upon modern principles, the Legislature may with much force appeal to the people to prevent unwarranted changes without due process. The people of California are about to vote on a Constitutional amendment providing that amendments to home-rule charters must be submitted to a popular vote in the localities affected, if such submission is petitioned for by 15 per cent. of the qualified voters of such localities.

Another principle of municipal administration which can be said to bear the sanction of common acceptance, is that of responsibility concentrated in the municipal head, the Mayor. This principle is pretty clearly outlined in the present charter of Cleveland, which for other reasons has been declared invalid. The Cleveland system is one of bureau heads appointed and removable by the Mayor, and constituting his "cabinet," as it is called. This feature, by the way, gave the Cleveland system the name of "Federal plan," by which it is commonly known. These bureau heads are directly responsible to the Mayor, and he is responsible for them to the people. In this particular the Cleveland charter has been regarded as particularly well drawn and modern, and it would be a source of great regret if a less enlightened system should now be adopted.

Prodded by Mayor Tom L. Johnson of Cleveland and some others, the Ohio Legislature may be expected to give close heed to the rules incorporated in the municipal code relating to the granting of franchises. Here, too, a certain standard has been set which the legislators cannot avoid without confessing a disregard of the best and most enlightened thought on the subject. Formerly, cities were empowered to give away franchises as they chose. A charter which does not now place a restriction on the granting of franchises, requiring a fixed compensation and naming a term of years at the expiration of which the franchise must terminate, be renewed, or be readjusted, would be an anachronism. This is a matter about which the people have shown that they feel most strongly, and in many cities it has furnished the chief interest through which good citizens have been aroused to the performance of their civic duties. In Chicago, for instance, an attempt to renew expiring street-railway and other franchises in 1897 by vote of the Legislature awakened the citizens to such an extent that, under the lead of the Voters' Municipal League, they have practically assured protection of the people's rights in public franchises, as a result of long and hard endeavor, culminating in the election of a reform City Council at the last election. Even to this day, men who, as members of the Legislature, voted for the obnoxious franchise grabs of 1897, are practically excluded from public office in Illinois.

These are some of the standards which have been set, and which the Ohio Legislature will disregard at its peril. Probably the greatest of them is the principle of home rule, for this could hardly exist without bringing the others into active being. If the Legislature can produce a fundamental law for cities in keeping with modern standards, and then, by Constitutional amendment or otherwise, provide a sure protection against "ripper" legislation in the future, it will be of the greatest benefit to the cause of municipal reform throughout the country.

### *MR. LAWSON AND THE AMERICA'S CUP.*

Mr. Thomas W. Lawson's personal grievance against the New York Yacht Club, as set forth in his book, 'The Lawson History of the *America's* Cup,' would hardly concern us, much less his clumsy and violent satire, were it not that the whole matter of the custody of the *America's* Cup is involved in this controversy, and that the publication of Mr. Lawson's manifesto gives the New York Yacht Club a chance at once to rebuke indirectly an antagonist who is unworthy of direct attention, and to recede from an untenable and unsportsmanlike position.

It will be recalled that, when Mr. Lawson wished to enter the *Independence* for the trial races, the appropriate committee of the New York Yacht Club suggested that he go through the form of chartering his boat to a member of the club, and refused to accept her entry upon any other terms. The club took the plausible ground that, since it was solely responsible for the conduct of the Cup races, it would admit only yachts over which its authority was complete—that is, those which flew its flag. Unquestionably, this decision was arrived at rather as a means of getting rid of Mr. Lawson's application than as a precedent for the future policy of the club; but, for whatever cause, the club unluckily took the position that only its own members might defend the *America's* Cup. This was very like bailing out the Lower Bay to drown Mr. Lawson—an unwarrantable disturbance of historic hydrography, however laudable the end in view.

How indefensible this requirement of membership in a particular club is, will appear when one examines the cases which may well arise. Suppose that a member of the Eastern, the Larchmont, or the Atlantic Yacht Club should offer, for the defence of the *America's* Cup, a boat faster than any in the New York squadron. Suppose that his standing as a gentleman and a sportsman were unexceptionable; what would be the position of the New York Yacht Club, either in refusing his entry, or in stipulating that he seek its membership or charter his boat to a member? Sailing under its auspices, such a yachtsman would, as a matter of courtesy, naturally wish to be in close relations with the club; but, on the other hand, it might be equally well maintained that the club was under every obligation to show so good a yachtsman every possible hospitality. Suppose, again, the great unlikelihood that Sir Thomas Lipton or some more fortunate challenger "lifts the cup." In a moment the New York Yacht Club would have no better standing as a challenger than the smallest American, Belgian, French, or Italian yacht club. It is absurd to guard the defence with this jealousy when the right

to challenge is free to all clubs which have an ocean course. It is even more unfortunate to appear to regard membership in the New York Yacht Club and good standing among American yachtsmen as identical. It is impossible that any such snobbishness can have been intended; mere suspicion of it cannot now too scrupulously be avoided.

Under the deed of gift of the *America's* cup, we believe that the New York Yacht Club has absolutely no warrant for restricting the defence of the cup to its own members. Under the rules of common sense and the unwritten laws of sportsmanship, it has undoubtedly every right to pass on the personal qualifications of a defender of the cup. While the question of qualification should seldom arise—one may generally assume that the possessor of a famous racing yacht will turn out to be a gentleman—yet the ability to build and maintain a ninety-footer by no means guarantees her owner from infirmities of temper and deficiencies in breeding which make it out of the question for him to take part in a great international event. The English have been unlucky enough to send us Lord Dunraven. Now imagine what the scandal would have been if the author of 'The Lawson History of the *America's* Cup' had been the defender in that ill-omened year. To exercise such a right of exclusion is individious, but it is a plain duty on the part of those who keep not only an ugly bit of plate, but the honor of American yachting. If the club had squarely refused Mr. Lawson on these grounds, public opinion would have borne it out. On quite impersonal grounds, too, he hastened to prove his ineligibility. The man who will race a waterlogged and almost foundering boat, rather than withdraw and ask for postponement, evinces pertinacity, but hardly sportsmanship. At any rate, he shows himself fatally lacking in the qualities of judgment which a defender of the cup must possess.

But it is to the future that we must look. Nothing in the deed of gift prevents the club from exercising absolute authority in passing upon the qualifications of all who would defend the cup. It must assume, as do all organizations which hold open races, that the contestants are gentlemen, and it should require no further guarantee of good conduct than the right to place on board of the defender—as it does on board of the challenger—a member to represent its interests and authority. If the club should, by resolution or otherwise, simply assert this right of scrutiny, it would remove from Mr. Lawson's case the last vestige of undue importance; it would set right the oldest and most prominent of our yacht clubs before a number of newer organizations which, doing less for yachting as a luxury, possibly do more for it as a sport. Most important of all, it would show to the public generally that the New York Yacht Club does not reserve all its fair play for foreigners, but regards its own recognized leadership as an argument for generous recognition and encouragement of good yachtsmen, whatever burgee they fly.

## A RAND IN LUSITANIA.

OPORTO, June, 1902.

Among the several interesting towns to be visited in the small kingdom of Portugal is Thomar, about ninety miles north of Lisbon, on the main line of the railway to Coimbra. All the guide-books, as well as works of travel or books on Lusitanian art, dwell very properly on the exceptional opportunity afforded in its splendid Convento de Christo for examining some of the leading phases of Portuguese architecture comparatively. Few contrasts, indeed, are more significant and suggestive than may be seen in the immediate juxtaposition of the polygonal Chapel of the Templars with the gorgeous "Manoelino" edifice which, in spite of French vandalism, still preserves the memory of Prince Henry the Navigator and the golden days of the Order of Christ, when both Africa and South America seemed secured to the possession of Portugal. It is not, however, with these splendors, or with historical impressions, that I wish to deal; my present purpose is to tell, as briefly and simply as possible, what may introduce into this quiet town an element of modern activity greater still than that of its staring red-tiled cotton-mill, whose chimneys and smoke combine to disfigure the olive-dotted valley below.

After four charming days in Coimbra, chiefly divided between the university library and the society of professors who cling to their academic tradition of greeting a foreign confrère, a short railway journey landed me at the station of Payalvo some hours after the departure of the last omnibus to the town, about six miles distant. Promptly encircled by a small cohort of ragged young savages, I was half-articulately striving to reduce the extortionate charge for a country-cart, when a pleasant voice said behind me, "You speak English, don't you, sir?" The speaker at once helped to clear the situation by sharing the expense of the vehicle, and informed me that he was one of the group of Boer prisoners temporarily domiciled in Thomar, and only recently freed from strict military supervision by the declaration of peace. I am certain that Mr. Philip Pienaar, author of 'With Steyn and De Wet,' will permit me to unite with my appreciation of his excellent English an equally sincere expression of thanks for the courtesies shown me by himself and his companions in exile. It seemed strange to find one's self discussing Imperialism, South Africa, and the conduct of the war, as the rickety cart jolted us along the ribbon-like road, white in the intense moonlight of that hard Peninsular sky, and past

> "The hills over-smoked behind by the faint-gray olive-trees."

My companion for the time also proved an accomplished and friendly guide to the antiquities of Thomar on the following day. Through his means I was likewise introduced to several members of the staff of Gen. Pienaar, to whom quarters were appointed in the secularized Convento de Christo by the Portuguese Government after the transportation of these refugees from Lourenço Marquez. Their treatment appears to have been without reproach. A few days later, in Alcobaça, I visited, with some reluctance, the lodgings of about three hundred of the rank and file, concerning whom a different tale might perhaps be told, for these less notable personages were necessarily submitted to the huddling promiscuity of the *chambrée*.

Mr. P. S. Naudé, an ex-field cornet of the staff, then proffered me an invitation to join himself and his friends on an expedition to a recently reopened gold mine, to which their attention had been drawn by the gossip of the countryside, and the exploration of which had proved a welcome relief during many weeks of exiled inactivity. It must be said that the events of the last few years have turned many Boers into potential or actual gold-finders; and the possibilities of great treasures, ignored by the easy-going Portuguese, have thus been rediscovered by a small band of exiles, whose own original riches have now passed into other and more powerful hands. The deposits in question, to which access is easy by means of a fine carriage-road running to within a few hundred yards of the old shaft, have indeed long been known. Local tradition declares them to have been operated in turn by the Romans, the Moors, and the Portuguese themselves, some two hundred years ago.

The distance from the town of Thomar is, roughly speaking, six miles. It was a gloriously sunny day, the 18th of June, when we drove out through the admirably cultivated country, and, shortly after getting out of the carriage, stopped to examine the outcrop of auriferous reef which had first convinced my companions, even before they had seen the old mine, that gold is probably lying here in amazingly paying quantities. The recognition of this of course demands a practised eye. The first visible outcrop, however, which is some eight inches thick, and is unquestionably gold-bearing quartz, is at least four hundred yards distant from the mine, while the inclination and other marks indicate to the expert that the deposit is continuous. Nay, more; according to the Transvaalers, further indications would tend to show that here, as in South Africa, corresponding conditions may very probably imply other parallel reefs equally productive.

A few steps more, and we come, after passing the first shallow diggings which verify the continuity of the reef, to the mouth of the old mine, where a few laborers, with a very primitive apparatus, are busy clearing out the accumulated rubble of centuries in preparation for the genuine working to follow. A roughish sort of capstan, hand-worked, winds up the wire rope to which is attached the small truck that is filled below; and the sides of the primitive shaft-ladder, being shod with metal, serve as an ascending or descending track. Near by, I was interested in seeing the familiar "well-sweep," used for shallower operations. Up to the time of my writing, little has been done beyond opening up the old works in readiness for the exploitation which is to begin as soon as the company is formed. Let us go down the old shaft and see for ourselves whether the miners of an ancient day have exhausted all or left us something to discover.

Down the steep ladder we climb, clinging to its sides, which are slippery with greasy clay, and at a depth of about twenty metres are standing at the mouth of the first *couloir*, extending laterally to about an equal distance, and terminating in a sort of cavern, whose dimensions are a puzzle unless we assume that the old workers used it as a centre of operations. Here, as well as down the sides of the old shaft, the reef is plainly visible; it is, so to speak, "gouged out" at various points where the old gold-seekers' primitive methods of working led them to make their best findings. The floor of the above-mentioned cavern or grotto is pierced by another shaft, of which the depth is still unknown. Shorter tunnels here and there reveal not only the comparatively superficial character of all earlier exploitation, but also remains of "shoring-timbers," not ill preserved. In the opinion of the experienced prospector whose flickering candle I follow, all this work may be not inaptly described as little more than mere scraping. The reason is not far to seek: all the deposits lying nearest to the surface are comparatively friable, and thus render what gold they contain without requiring much more elaborate processes than the extremely simple one of "panning." Nowadays the lower strata, of which the hardness increases with their depth, are subjected to a treatment which secures not only the coarser grains revealed by panning, but a large proportion of the "fine gold" to which the connoisseur attaches still more importance.

The plant here being as yet too imperfect to permit the application of complete crushing, let us content ourselves with noting the yield of the first pan, clarified in my presence, as a test of what may be expected in the future. As every one knows, this process consists in triturating, or pulverizing, in a sort of kitchen pan, an indefinite quantity—a shovelful, let us say—of the ore; after repeated washings, the native gold, sinking to the bottom by its own weight, serves as a rough approximation of the average potential yield. Now, in the course of that afternoon, the test was tried three times without failing to render abundant support to the expectations of the gold-seekers, as the first yield, now in my possession, will show; this amounts to little more than a clearly perceptible quantity—perhaps as much as might fill a small cavity in a very slightly decayed tooth. But the unlearned in these matters have to rid themselves of a number of illusions; among others, for instance, of the belief that these rich gold strata contain nuggets as a pod does peas. It is extraordinary, when one comes face to face with the real facts, how many false notions have clung in one's mind from the silly literature of one's boyhood. I remember, in particular, a well-known tale of adventure, popular even to-day among boys, in which two enterprising youths were represented as turning out nuggets of native gold as large as turnips "by the spadeful" from a mere ditch not deeper than their own height. The truth is, that when a gold-reef gives such result as I noted above, one is justified in expecting at least an ounce and a half (thirty pennyweights was the expression used) to the ton of rough ore; and, in view of the fact that South African miners commonly feel rewarded by a steady average of eighteen pennyweights, the enthusiasm of my companions will not be put down to their very modest indulgence in the juices that ripen under Lusitanian summers. Their previous pannings had, it seems, never proved quite so rich.

But this day, eventful enough already in the eyes of a novelty-seeking tourist, was destined not to end without rounding off in singularly appropriate finish; it received, in other words, its *panache*. Our attention was suddenly drawn to the creaking wheels of a heavy Portuguese ox-wagon, the outside of which had been covered with an improvised canopy of gayly colored cotton print, as a protection to the bevy of beauties that skipped daintily out from the interior. Two carriage-loads of mature parents and dueñas that followed stood as sponsors for the situation. All these visitors were among the notabilities of Thomar, and, having long heard of the gold find, had selected this day for an outing and picnic near the mouth of the shaft. Having come by an upper and longer road, they had approached us unawares. For their benefit, experiments and tests were again applied, and a few of the more venturesome consented to sully their immaculate boots with the mire of the shaft and galleries. The men of the party, evidently with an eye to business, followed the inductions with shrewd interest, putting now and again leading questions that proved the expedition to be, on their part at least, not altogether a *passeio de recreo*. But I must add that when it came to examining the bottom of the pan for gold, the daughters of Portugal clustered alertly about, and showed in their great dark eyes all the eagerness that a miner could wish.

Portuguese hospitality is apt to be as ready as it is lavish. In these southern countries the ancient custom still prevails of offering food and drink of the best to those for whom one has a human kindly feeling. After the ostensible business of the day was over, the members of our party were consequently bidden to the *jantar* (for dinner it really was) for which these generous people had made provision, including in expectation the four foreign guests. The usual picnic supply in excess of demand might have reminded one not only of the fictitious "noces de Gamache" of the neighboring country, but of the sumptuous tables spread a century ago by the monks of Alcobaça for the author of 'Vathek.' On the long table quickly improvised by the workmen of the mining cottage, hot soup, made dishes of many sorts, sweets and cakes, varieties of fruit, coffee accompanied by cigars not usually found in the Government shop, came in leisurely procession, while the attendants in linen undress livery discreetly saw to it that no glass remained empty either of the delicately flavored wine of the district or of the more famous vintages of the upper Douro. There appear to be two very pretty customs practised by the Portuguese on such occasions as this. The first consists in drinking mutual healths without formal speeches, beginning with that of the two principal ladies who are, as it were, the leaders of the feminine part of the enterprise and guarantee its gastronomic success. Social habits having decreed that the two sexes shall occupy opposite sides of the table, nothing was easier than to discern, through the looks of conscious modesty, in whose honor the few simple words were spoken. The other custom consists in a general handshaking and kissing after the conclusion of the festivities—a ceremony, however, not indiscriminately extended to even the most guileless or undesigning foreigner.

Our drive back to the hotel, in the late evening, broken by a short call at the Villa Arbello—whose owner, a local poet of merit, speaks English like a native, and who preserves, through his descent, the appearance of an English country gentleman—was for the rest of the time mainly silent. My entertainers were doubtless thinking of the hopes which this discovery in foreign soil appears to justify. My own reflections revolved rather about the singular irony of destiny which has turned these now homeless exiles out of the rich extremity of one continent in order to make them the forerunners of hitherto unsuspected possibilities of development in another. The obscured, perhaps extinguished, aspirations of these unyielding Afrikanders it is quite impossible for a sincere British subject to share; but the pathos of a lost cause, which in our historical studies we are exhorted to feel for wrangling Poland, should at all events not be denied in the case of men who, capable of self-government and amity according to their own conceptions, have shrunk from no sacrifice in the defence of what appeared to them the indefeasible right to a national autonomy. What they now look forward to will be in every sense their own, secured as it already is by careful legal concessions. But for this last fact, I should not have felt warranted in publishing what their own frankness urged me to make known. P. T. L.

# Correspondence.

## M. LAUGEL'S AMERICAN DIARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The extracts from the diary of M. Auguste Laugel, now appearing in the *Nation*, pleasantly recall the contemporary articles, based on the same visit, which appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The articles began in the number for December 15, 1864, and continued at intervals through the next year. Respectfully yours,

James J. Dow.

Faribault, Minn., August 2, 1902.

# Notes.

Little, Brown & Co. will issue in the autumn a volume of short critical articles, entitled 'Retrospect and Prospect,' by Capt. A. T. Mahan.

Another volume of Timothy Cole's wood-engravings, 'Old English Masters,' with text from his own notes and by Prof. John C. Van Dyke, is to be brought out by the Century Company.

Two volumes of 'Essays, Historical and Literary,' by the late John Fiske, made ready for the press before he died, will shortly be published by Macmillan Co. The themes are largely American, but Milton, Tyndall, and Huxley, as well as Evolution, are also treated.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in preparation a volume on the late volcanic disturbances in

the West Indies, by Prof. Angelo Heilprin. They announce further: 'Delhi,' from the diary and letters of Col. Keith Young, edited by Sir Henry Norman; 'Home Life of the Borneo Head-hunters,' by Dr. W. H. Furness; and a revised edition of his father's New Variorum edition of "Macbeth," by Horace Howard Furness, jr.

'Paris, 1789-1794,' by John Goldworth Alger, will have James Pott & Co. for its American publishers.

Henry Vignaud's 'Letter and Chart of Toscanelli on the Route to the Indies by Way of the West' will be issued directly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

Mr. Carl Fischer-Hansen of this city has agreed with the publishing-house of Gyldendal in Copenhagen to publish his work on 'America,' in twelve chapters, among which we cite those dealing with the Legal Profession, Trusts, Religious Institutions, Schools, the Universities, the Army, American Literature.

Henry Frowde will soon publish the first instalment of the "Tebtunis Papyri" found by Grenfell and Hunt in the south of the Fayûm, and edited by them, with the assistance of Mr. J. Gilbart Smyly. The excavations were conducted at the expense of Mrs. Hearst on behalf of the University of California, and the volume will usher in a series of publications on Egyptian archæology by that institution. The paypri were derived from the wrappings of mummied crocodiles, and date from the division between the first and second centuries B. C. The contents are often official.

Twenty-five years have brought Mr. Hubert Hall's 'Society in the Elizabethan Age' to a third edition (London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Dutton). What is new here is a supplementary appendix abstracting "Wild Darrell's" letters written in the Fleet prison in 1579, and making Darrell still more the chief figure on this stage, and still more the object of persecution by his enemies. The book maintains its popularity by its learning rather than by its literary quality.

The most interesting thing in Mr. T. W. H. Crosland's 'Unspeakable Scot' (Putnams) is that the book has real feeling and was not simply written to sell. It mirrors an actual situation. Outside of England that situation is unknown and hardly intelligible, but in England there can be no question that the Scotch are regarded with dislike, contempt, and a curious fear. With a difference, it is the Continental attitude toward the Jew. With another difference, it is the attitude of the English to all foreigners, the attitude which has earned such hatred for England on the Continent. Only, the Scotch are close at hand, which is the difference and the sting. That a mere handful of people in a country which rightly should be nothing but a playground and a purveyor of Scotch whiskey for the South, should so dominate that South, is—to the South—a thing (and the humor is that only by a Scotch word can they express it) uncanny. Stevenson, who was no very ardent Scotchman, has admirably analyzed this English attitude, and now Mr. Crosland writes a book which illustrates Stevenson's analysis from point to point. Of other value, the book has little. That it pricks the pseudo-pathos of the kail-yard school is its one literary redeeming feature. Otherwise, it is personally spiteful and elaborately insolent. But it is an excellent human document.

The spirit of the old Persian rule "to learn to ride, to draw the bow, to speak the truth," supplemented by such learning as befits the soldier of to-day, is that of the United States Military Academy, the most democratic of all our institutions. We know no school where so much individual instruction, physical and mental, is supplied and absorbed, and none whose impress remains longer. Those who can stand the pace are carried through in great style, and those who cannot are relentlessly dropped. The place has its limitations, but its advantages far exceed its defects. H. Irving Hancock's 'Life at West Point' (Putnams) admirably describes the equipment a candidate must possess, and the rigorous and vigorous treatment that he undergoes from the hour he reports until, by graduation or less happily, he doffs the gray. It is neither fiction nor a guide-book, but in it the aspirant and the aspirant's father can trace in advance or contemporaneously the winding way among the scholastic and disciplinary obstacles, as well as some of the available pleasures. The only notable omission we observe is the curious one of failure to explain in detail the cadet organization and the responsibilities resting upon the neophytes themselves, from the negative one of immediate and unquestioning obedience by the nameless newly arrived and homesick wretch, to those of the glorious adjutant and first captain who, in the eyes of the battalion, outrank commissioned officers.

When we find an intelligent man asserting that "to produce strong teeth is almost as simple a matter as to produce strong arms," one's interest is immediately aroused, and careful reading shows Dr. Samuel A. Hopkins's little book on 'The Care of the Teeth' (D. Appleton & Co.) to be full of shrewd observation and intelligent advice in readable form. It is a most encouraging essay for adults to follow for themselves as well as with children, and the reasoning commends itself.

Deserving of mention among the multitude of like contributions is Roger Raoul-Duval's 'Au Transvaal, et dans le Sud-Africain avec les Attachés Militaires' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave). The author had the advantage of being in London during the preparations for the war, and afterwards of accompanying the Boer forces in several campaigns. He asserts that the War Office was well informed of all that was going on in South Africa, and knew accurately all the military preparations of the Boers, the extent of their armaments, and the character of their fortifications. Nevertheless, it was generally believed that the Boers would not fight, and that they would be easily overcome if they did. How this delusion was ended, the author relates. His tone is singularly impartial; he speaks of the Boers with esteem and even affection, but criticises severely their discipline and their aggressive tactics. Col. Villebois-Mareuil, he says, would have taken Ladysmith could he have obtained support; but the Boer generals, although they esteemed him, would not adopt any of his suggestions. There is not much in the book that is new, but the narrative of the author's adventures is entertaining, and his style is noticeably clear and smooth, even for a Frenchman. There are many illustrations, most of them commonplace; but some, printed in several tones, are striking.

One often hesitates for a moment in turning the leaves of the second volume of Thackeray and Stone's 'Florilegium Latinum' (John Lane), containing two hundred Latin verse translations from the Victorian poets, whether to admire most the English original on the left or the Latin replica on the right-hand page. Inspiration must, of course, soon win the day, but such a mastery over the niceties of the Latin idiom and the dignity or daintiness of Latin metres have some English scholars attained that, were the originals absent, it might be thought that the copies were fresh creations. Long may the gentle art flourish—*gratæ Musæ grata umbra.*

The July issue of that laudable series called *Masters in Art* (Boston: Bates & Guild Co.) contains for its ten regulation plates as many excellent specimens, from orthographic negatives, of Paul Potter's work. The letter-press, as usual, includes a sketch of the painter's life, descriptions of the paintings reproduced, selected estimates of his art, and a bibliography regarding him. A portrait of Potter, by Van der Helst, is thrown in.

The August *Scribner's* is almost exclusively a "fiction number," the exceptions being four short poems and the usual departments at the end. F. Hopkinson Smith's "Fortunes of Oliver Horn" is concluded, and the conclusion of "Capt. Macklin," by Richard Harding Davis, is announced for the next number. Kipling, J. M. Barrie, A. T. Quiller-Couch, Sewell Ford, Arthur Ruhl, Edith Wharton, and Mary R. S. Andrews furnish the shorter pieces. A hitherto unpublished portrait of Frank R. Stockton, by Mrs. Dora Wheeler Keith, is reproduced, together with a group of sketches of his former home and grounds at Convent, N. J., by A. B. Frost.

The Boston Society of Natural History has recently issued as one of its Memoirs an account, by Prof. E. S. Morse, of observations on living Brachiopoda, comprising 73 pages of text and 23 quarto plates exquisitely drawn by the author. Japan is the most prolific country in recent Brachiopoda, and Professor Morse was admirably qualified by previous studies to take advantage of his opportunities there. Though study by means of sections, stained and hardened, has become indispensable in the anatomy of the lower forms of life, the tissues are inevitably more or less withered and distorted by the chemicals used, so that, without the corrections afforded by living or fresh material, the method is not unlike the study of fish anatomy by dissecting smoked herring. It is this essential element in the comprehension of an interesting group of animals which is supplied by Professor Morse in the present memoir, for which other students of the Brachiopoda will be under lasting obligations to him.

A writer in *Notes and Queries* for July 19 announces his having made a "list of all the words in Bacon that strike a reader familiar with Shakspere." He expects to prove that, "excluding words common to all writers of that period," Shakspere and Bacon "have not 2 per cent. of their vocabulary in common."

The European 'Continental literature' of the past twelve months, according to the chroniclers in the midyear number of the

London *Athenæum*, has been marked by a dearth of important works. The attempt to cater for all tastes has brought about what some writers term a "literary anarchy," while others hold that the great number of magazines and reviews has much to do with existing conditions. A large part of the twenty-eight pages is taken up with works of fiction, most of which, apparently, would be excluded from our public libraries. Of poetry there is little worthy of note—"our age is by no means favorable to its production," says one of the reviewers; but in the drama some strength is shown. Possibly what is said of one country may be true of the others: "All branches of French literature are passing through a period of expectancy."

The chief feature of the annual report of the State Geologist of New Jersey for the past year is his own discussion, in collaboration with Mr. Stuart Weller, of the rocks of the Green Pond Mountain region, one of the most interesting and picturesque tracts in the entire State. This paper, very scrupulous in its acknowledgment of previous investigations, but displaying independent critical judgment, is accompanied by some striking photographic plates, and by a colored folding map of the formations under review.

The thirteenth annual report of the Missouri Botanical Garden of St. Louis is remarkable for a paper on the Yucceæ, by the Director, Mr. William Trelease, accompanied by numerous beautiful illustrations and maps of distribution by species in the United States according to present information.

A movement is on foot at Oxford with a view to bringing before Congregation (one of the legislative bodies of the University) a proposal substituting the requirement of either Greek or Latin for the present requirement of both Greek and Latin in "Responsions"—the examination most nearly corresponding to an admission examination like those held by American institutions. The proposal in question is likely to come up for discussion next October, but is not believed in many quarters to have much chance of success. A vigorous committee has been organized to oppose it, and is composed of twenty-seven members of Congregation; all of them, with one exception, being active teachers or administrators in the University. One striking fact is, that teachers of Greek and Latin at Oxford have not the prominence in this opposing movement which they have always had in similar efforts as organized at various American universities where the "Greek Question" has been on the tapis. Four of them are Heads of "Houses" (Colleges and Halls), five are University Professors and Readers, three of them are lecturers in natural science, eight are specialists in historical study, two are notable students of Dante, and one is a distinguished political economist. This seems to promise unbiassed discussion of the claims of compulsory Greek when the time comes, and may easily win attention from the American academic world to the conclusions arrived at in Oxford next October upon this very fundamental topic.

The unveiling of the Robert Owen Memorial in the old churchyard of Newtown, England, on July 12 was the occasion of a remarkable testimonial by Mr. George J. Holyoake, the last of the Social Missionaries appointed in 1841 to advocate Owen's "New Views" of society, and the only survivor of his disciples. He described Owen as a man who contributed "more original ideas for the conduct of public affairs than any other thinker of his generation," or, in Southey's words, as "one of the three great moral forces" of his day. The coöperative store, the Factory Acts, the eight-hours day, the national infants' schools, Mr. Holyoake claimed, were due to Owen's advocacy of them. "By buying and working up the first bale of cotton imported into this country, he practically founded the foreign cotton trade." His greatest work, however, was teaching the great truth that "environment was the maker of men, . . . that there were material means, largely unused, conducive to human improvement." Through him, therefore, we had been brought nearer to that state of society which he strove to create, "in which it should be impossible for men to be depraved or poor." Huxley has said: "I think that every one who is compelled to look closely into the problem of popular education, must be led to Owen's conclusions, that the infants' school is, so to speak, the key of the position. Robert Owen discerned this great fact, and had the patience and courage to work out his theory into a practical reality. That is his claim—if he had no other—to the enduring gratitude of the people."

The awakening of an African people to the dangers of ignorance is shown by the *sale* of 65,393 educational and religious books in the native language in Uganda last year. Two-thirds of these were "first readers," a fair indication of the number of people beginning to read. There were also sold 25,556 exercise books, pens, and pencils, and 6,032 quires of note-paper. The boys' school at Mengo, the capital, has more than five hundred regular attendants, the numbers enrolled exceeding 650. Some of their exercises were sent to Sir Henry M. Stanley, who, in acknowledging them, writes: "The handwriting of your pupils compares very favorably with that of English boys, and the sums quoted betray a remarkable aptitude for figures."

A regular service of steamers has been established between Khartum and the Uganda frontier. The opening of the Upper Nile to navigation by the removal of the sudd is of great importance in the development of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan, and, for the present, will make the construction of this section of the Cape to Cairo Railway a mere waste of money. The great need, says Sir Rudolf von Slatin, is a railway from Berber on the Nile to Suakin on the Red Sea, "not merely for the purpose of carrying export and import goods, but for the purpose of supplying us with fuel." This completed, he advocates the introduction of "heavy freight-carrying motors," the nature of the country being adapted to their use. He reports general tranquillity prevailing, and in some parts rapid progress. With regard to the Senussi, a Mohammedan sect which it was feared would renew the attempt of the Mahdi to exterminate the foreigner, he says that the leader "is a peaceful man, whose only anxiety is that Moslems should lead a strict life. There is nothing to induce the belief that he will cause trouble to the Government."

A peculiarly annoying blunder occurred in the article on page 106 of our last issue, "The Teaching of Art in Universities." The twenty-first line from the bottom of the middle column should read: 'may be taught more or less well." His reason is.' In the eighth line from the end of the same article, page 107, 'drawing and modelling' should read 'drawing *or* modelling.'

—Mr. John T. Hassam, who has, with a particularity of research worthy of Sibley in his 'Harvard Graduates,' already traced the lives of the Recorders, Clerks, and Registers of Deeds for the County of Suffolk, Mass. (*i. e.*, Boston), has applied the same method to the Suffolk Registers of Probate from 1639 to 1799. This paper may be found in the current Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, and it has been separately printed. Incidentally an account is given of the extraordinary fate of the probate records from their transportation to Halifax with the Loyalists after the siege of Boston, down to their present (but very recent) model arrangement. The Register whose term was longest (1759-1799) was William Cooper, grandson of Judge Samuel Sewall, and his public services are most minutely recorded by Mr. Hassam. He was also town clerk through all party changes, yet he failed to record his original election, and, though he was the father of seventeen children, the births of none of them are entered in the Town Records, not even the six which occurred during his own incumbency. He it was who made a motion in town meeting on March 5, 1783, by which the annual celebration of the Boston Massacre was relinquished in favor of the 4th of July, on the ground that "the immediate Motives which induced the commemoration of that day [March 5, 1770], do *now* no longer exist in their primitive force." As we have, in the third decade of the second century of the Declaration, "burnt" that instrument, is it not time to exchange the 4th of July for some other memorable date —say, that on which Funston captured Aguinaldo?

—A chapter from the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1900-1901, dealing with "German Instruction in American Schools," has reached us in the form of a pamphlet of advance sheets. It reminds one of the "Circulars of Information" formerly sent out by the Bureau of Education, but discontinued several years ago. This form of publication has its advantages, and the present pamphlet of somewhat less than 200 pages is likely to receive the attention of more readers than it will when buried in the mass of the two bulky regulation volumes. The subject is one of immediate concern to many parents and students. The study of German in this country has rapidly grown in favor during the last three decades, and the quality of instruction in the higher institutions has improved in nearly the same proportion as the number of students in the department. In the majority of secondary schools, however, the teaching is still far from satisfactory, from causes connected with the general management of our public schools, and therefore difficult to remove. A change for the better must, in the main, depend upon an enlightened public judgment to which such publications as this treatise

sent out by Commissioner Harris may contribute. Though historical and statistical in its contents, it shows clearly the importance attached to the study of German by the greatest American educators for a century past, and suggests ways toward the realization of better results. The strong German-American bias of the writer, Mr. L. Viereck, does not detract from the interest and utility of the information which he has industriously compiled from sources familiar, presumably, only to investigators in the same line. It would seem, however, that in a public document, especially in one issuing from the Bureau of Education, the English language ought to be handled with greater respect for purity and style than has been shown it in the present case.

—Milan is the chief operatic market of Italy. Official figures show that, some years ago, 1,745 families in that city derived employment and a regular income from the theatrical industry, and it is estimated that, if we include the Italian opera companies engaged in Milan for Spanish, Portuguese, and South American cities, about $7,000,000 has been turned over in one year in operatic business. W. Johnson Galloway, M. P., mentions these facts in his little book, 'The Operatic Problem' (John Lane), as one of his arguments for the establishment of a National Opera-house in England. Why should not London emulate Milan, nay, surpass it, as a pound surpasses a lira? There was a time when Italy supplied the whole world with singers. In those days the opera-houses were in receipt of regular subventions from the municipalities. Then the cry arose that if the wealthy and the nobles wanted their opera, they could pay for it themselves. Cavour opposed this idea. "I do not understand a note of music," he said, "and could not distinguish between a drum and a violin, but I understand very well that, for the Italian nation, the art of music is not only a source of glory, but also the primary cause of an enormous commerce, which has ramifications in the whole world. I believe, therefore, that it is the duty of the Government to help so important an industry." But the municipalities withdrew their subsidies, and, as Mr. Galloway remarks, "the start of their short-sighted policy coincided with the gradual decadence of Italian opera, until this form of entertainment lost prestige and custom with the best of its former clients, England, Russia, and France."

—What Mr. Galloway advocates for England is state intervention and the establishment of a subsidized national opera-house. He discusses the plans for aiding the opera followed in France, Italy, and Germany, and concludes that the German is, on the whole, the best. He gives copious figures to show "the colossal benefit princely patronage and subvention bestow on the theatre-goer, in putting a favorite entertainment within the reach of the masses"; and he seems convinced that opera would flourish as much in England as it does in Germany if Londoners, for instance, could enjoy the privilege of the Berliner—of hearing 280 performances, in one year, of 52 different operas at prices for seats ranging from about $2 down to 50 cents. From years of personal experience, he thinks, he can vouch for "a feeling akin to yearning in the great masses of the music-loving public after operatic music, even when stripped of theatrical paraphernalia, such, for example, as one gets at purely orchestral concerts." Whatever one may think about these diverse arguments, one cannot but agree with Mr. Galloway that the failure of the attempt made some years ago to establish a national opera by trying to run Sullivan's "Ivanhoe" a hundred nights does not prove anything. The theatre chosen was too small for grand opera; the libretto was overloaded and clumsily constructed; and Sullivan failed in his attempt to write grand opera. "The music kept trying to soar, but was all the time chained by the leg." The climax of the folly lay in running "Ivanhoe" every night. Not even "Lohengrin," "Faust," or "Carmen" could have stood such a test.

—Mr. Edward Jenks has added to the "Heroes of the Nations" series (Putnams) a volume on Edward I., which is styled 'Edward Plantagenet, the English Justinian, or the Making of the Common Law.' The second title is particularly important because the author, feeling himself to be a lawyer more than a historian, concentrates much of his attention upon the legal aspects of the reign. "Perhaps," he says, "it is necessary that I should offer a word of apology for the intrusion of a mere lawyer upon a scene so dominated by great historians. My explanation is, that I have long been unable to understand how any one but a lawyer can possibly appreciate the true inwardness of Edward's reign. The Common Law which came into existence during his lifetime was, and is, the very picture of English national life, the concrete form into which the national spirit crystallizes with the moving centuries." The most valuable parts of the book are Chapter IX., which is entitled, "The English Justinian," and Chapter XIII., which is entitled, "The King and his Work." Had Mr. Jenks expanded these portions of his work it would have been better still, and he might readily have done so, for his opening section is very much *ab ovo*. Why the writer of such a monograph should begin with page after page on the study of history, the battle of Tours, the Empire of Charles the Great, Benedict of Nursia, the *Scriptorium*, Gregory VIII., Zenghis Khan, Ogodai, Venetians and Genoese, we find it difficult to imagine. Even when England is reached in the third chapter, and Edward in the fourth, the treatment of subsidiary matters is far too diffuse. From being a lawyer who is at the same time a student of history, Mr. Jenks has just and solid reasons for writing of Edward I. When he is on purely historical ground, he not only is diffuse at the wrong time, but displays no special aptitude for this species of composition. The part devoted to the Common Law is much more satisfactory, and, for the reason already mentioned, we wish that it were longer. According to Mr. Jenks's view, "some of Edward's most brilliant achievements in legislation and statecraft are wholly missed by lay historians, simply because these achievements are expressed in highly technical language." To clear up technical matters for the general reader is therefore one of his aims, but he has another which is broader still. "I should hardly have ventured the task, had I not been encouraged by those whose opinions were entitled to greater weight than my own, to hope that I might in some degree succeed in persuading my readers that law is a dull subject only to those who do not understand it." Though he has not done much for political or military history, Mr. Jenks has succeeded in accomplishing his main purpose. His account of those remarkable years, 1283-1285, is all that could be asked for in a volume of this scope. Where the constitutional historians are usually content to take it for granted that their most technical statements will be understood, he is patient and explanatory, and we may even believe that he will make law seem less formidable to some than it has been hitherto. Better subjects for the illustrations might easily have been chosen.

—Lowell, in his address before the Modern Language Association in 1889, expressed his surprise at having lived to see an old French text edited by an American scholar. It is difficult to estimate the astonishment with which he would have picked up the latest of the Yale bicentennial publications, a collection of all the extant Galician poems of the Gallego-Castilian lyric school, 'Cancioneiro Gallego-Castelhano' (Scribner), by Prof. Henry R. Lang, whose reputation as a Romance scholar was firmly established by the publication of his 'Liederbuch des Königs Denis von Portugal' some seven or eight years ago. Professor Lang's first volume was devoted to the earliest school of Portuguese poetry, which flourished at the Court of King Dionysius, himself the most representative poet of the school; and the book contained a careful text of the lyrics of the poet-king. After the death of Dionysius, in 1325, the chivalric lyric ceased to find favor at court until, after more than a century, there came a revival of the Iberian inspiration in the Castilian-Portuguese school which flourished from 1449 to 1521. The transition period between these two schools of Peninsular poetry furnishes the subject of Professor Lang's latest work, which is appropriately dedicated to King Charles of Portugal. The lyrics, for the most part written in a transitional Galician dialect, and ranging in theme from the courtly love verse of Gonzales de Mendoza to the jolly burlesques of the Archdeacon of Toro, are preserved in various Castilian song-books, and, with the aid of the list prepared by Carolina Michaelis de Vasconcellos, they have been disinterred and brought together in a volume of dignified appearance, collated, emended, and furnished with a glossary and a very complete and careful critical apparatus, which has all the authority of the most advanced German philological science. A second volume, dealing with the literary and linguistic study of this poetry, and with the historical problems of the period in which it flourished, is promised by the author, and, when completed, the work will doubtless be a valuable contribution to an important though restricted field of literary history.

—'L'Avenir Colonial de la France,' by E. Fallot (Paris: Ch. Delagrave), is the best general work on French colonization that has come under our notice. It is the work of a practical man, and is designed above all else for the instruction

of Frenchmen who are or should be interested in colonial matters. Aside from the conventional political fireworks of the introduction (by another hand), the whole volume exhibits sound sense and business-like impartiality. The author calculates the value of France's colonial assets and prospects as a merchant reckons up his stock and scrutinizes his ventures. He is evidently of the opinion that the best way to assure a colonial future is to recognize and correct the blunders of a melancholy colonial past. He is also willing, as some Frenchmen are not, to square the national system with that of more successful colonizing peoples, and to accept any suggestions which the comparison affords. Of the more mechanical portion of the book it is enough to say that it is full, detailed, and up to date; it teems with facts, explains local terms, and is illustrated with excellent detail maps and with compact and well-chosen statistics. All this is of the highest utility; but one hastens from the facts to the deductions. Can the French, then, hold and develop this second world-empire, fallen so fortuitously into their hands? "Aptitude for colonization" is, according to the author's experience, an illusion—or, rather, it is a combination of qualities of a very practical and often, to lofty souls, uninteresting nature. He hopes and believes that the traditional French fondness for the grand style and for the sweeping and supposedly labor-saving synthesis is passing away. The author's economic and political studies issue in recommendations of the following lines of policy, among others scarcely less significant: expansion of credit in the colonies (even to the extent of founding land-banks and advancing funds on the security of unsown crops); unlimited development of transportation facilities, especially of railroads; renunciation of state enterprise, particularly in the matter of land-assignments, in the case of which the system of gratuitous concessions should give place to the Wakefield system; the limitation of military regulation as far as practicable; and the return, regarded by the author as inevitable, to coolie labor. Especially does M. Fallot insist upon the definitive abandonment of antiquated protectionist measures, whose evil effects in the past and present he convincingly demonstrates. The organization of Tunis, the newest great colony, and the scene of the author's own official activity, has profited best by the lessons of the past, and forms a pleasing exception to most of the old mistaken lines of policy. The volume is provided with a full index, but next to no references to authorities are to be found.

## MONUMENTS OF THE EARLY CHURCH.

*Monuments of the Early Church.* By Walter Lowrie. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

A truly scientific treatment of Christian archæology, presented in the English language, written from the point of view of a scholar, and dissociated from religious and theological questions, has long been needed. To supply this want has naturally been a very difficult problem. Scholars fitted for the task because of their opportunities of coming in contact with the remains of Christian antiquity, have been men whose training was primarily theological and whose standpoint has been determined by that fact. They have been theologians and not archæologists. Scholars of other countries, like Wilpert of Germany and Marucchi of Italy, have, however, handled the subject with commendable independence, although Marucchi has sometimes "nodded" because of his desire to confirm some point of ecclesiastical history.

The present work, prepared by Mr. Walter Lowrie, late Fellow of the American School of Classical Studies at Rome, evidently comes very close to the ideal just referred to. Although the author is a clergyman, there is nothing in the book which would indicate any theological or religious bias, and the impression conveyed is that of a calm, unprejudiced discussion. This satisfactory result is due, in part at least, to the opportunities which the author enjoyed while holding the Fellowship in the School at Rome. It was also a distinct advantage for him to prepare a book for an archæological series of text-books rather than for a theological library. The author distinctly states that he has "confined himself scrupulously to the well-defined and soundly assured results of this study, and has endeavored to eliminate questions of a controversial character." The purpose of his volume is declared to be "to give a general view of the monuments of the early Church"; hence, it deals expressly with the "monumental remains of Christian antiquity, and only incidentally with the early literature which illustrates the period."

In an introduction which forms the first chapter and covers twenty-two pages, our author treats of a number of topics which enter into the general framework of his subject, such as the debt which Christian art and archæology owe to classic art and archæology, so that the former, adapting to itself the latter, was "full grown when it was born, and its decline dates from its beginning." The early Church did not object to the religious use of art, which may therefore be regarded as beginning at the close of the first century, and any increased artistic activity in the third and fourth centuries is an evidence of this spirit and not a proof of corruption incident to imperial favor. A survey of the various classes of monuments and their location indicates that, for painting, we must look to the catacombs; for sculpture, to the sarcophagi of the fourth and fifth centuries; for architecture, to the churches built in the fifth and sixth centuries. Monuments illustrating Christian archæology, though found in the East, occur in greater number in the West, and pre-eminently at Rome. The last pages of the introduction contain a brief reference to literature closely related to archæological study, the martyrologies, the itineraries, *liber pontificalis*, the poetic *tituli*, and, finally, an historical survey of the study of Christian archæology.

The author's style in the introduction is, unfortunately, not such as to lead a student to press on to the main portion of the book. It is condensed and at times ambiguous, and imposes upon the reader the double task of understanding both the meaning of the author and the subject of which he treats. A few typographical errors occur here, as the omission of "to" on page 4, and "monument" for "monuments" on page 21. There is also inconsistency in the use of capitals—a fault which mars other pages of the book.

Christian cemeteries are considered in the second chapter, of sixty pages. Of these, twenty are assigned to the catacombs. Then follow brief discussions on surface burial, the agape, legal tenure of cemeteries, burial societies, and, finally, inscriptions. The opening sentence of the chapter is unintelligible. "The word 'catacomb' has a curious history and a very doubtful etymology; De Rossi takes it to be a hybrid word, half Greek and half Latin, meaning 'next the sepulchres'—*accubitorium* is a late Latin word for 'tomb.'" The fact is that De Rossi compared *cata cumbas* with *cata accubitoria* or *ad coemeteria, i. e.*, 'by the resting places.' It may be added that Mr. Lowrie's suggestion as to the origin of the word is only one of many and not by any means the most satisfactory.

The explanation of the difficult subject of the titles and their relation to the catacombs, as given on page 39, is very obscure, and again demands a struggle to discover the meaning of the author, whose ambiguity suggests the possibility of uncertainty in his own mind. As regards the inconsistency of legal property rights appertaining to the Church, an institution whose existence was prohibited, Mr. Lowrie gives the hypothesis of De Rossi, that the Church became a legalized burial society, and thus obtained protection, and also states the theory of Duchesne, who holds that certain emperors tolerated the Church to such a degree as to allow it to hold property. Christian inscriptions are given fifteen pages, and are classified for the author's purpose as original titles and epitaphs, and later metrical inscriptions used by Damasus to adorn tombs. The first class is subdivided so as to recognize inscriptions giving data as to life and death, and again those which throw light on dogma. The appearance of three names in an inscription is said to denote a very high antiquity, but there is no mention of the fact that they might also indicate rank and a formality which did not belong to the early Christians, who would use the simple cognomen when addressing their fellows. The following paragraph (on page 69) is unsatisfactory, as it leaves the reader in doubt as to what variation in orthography distinguished the two classes.

"In point of orthography De Rossi distinguishes two classes of the primitive Roman inscriptions: those painted in red (in Pompeian fashion), which are characteristic of S. Priscilla; and those cut in the stone, which are elsewhere almost universal. The orthography is for the most part careless, and after the second century there begin to appear frequent mistakes which reflect the popular pronunciation and the popular idiom."

The chapter concludes with a history of the catacombs after the fourth century.

The third chapter, extending over one hundred pages, is entitled Christian Architecture, and here the author has relied upon Dr. Holtzinger for general knowledge, upon Professor Dehio for a study of the Christian basilica, and upon M. Choisy for an analysis of Byzantine architecture. As an explanation of the origin of the basilica, Mr. Lowrie accepts without limitation the German theory of its development from the Roman house, particularly that form in which the peristyle is part of the atrium, or,

as Mau would say, the house with a Corinthian atrium. This is illustrated by the house of Epidius Rufus, at Pompeii. This theory is very attractive, but it must be remembered that the form of house Mr. Lowrie mentions is very rare, so that it is more satisfactory, perhaps, to follow Schultze, who derives the basilica from what is regularly known as the peristyle; or Dehio, who derives it from the atrium. The alæ form the later transept, the tablinum the apse, the final form of which undoubtedly imitates the civil basilica. The identity of name led to the old theory that the Christian building was the copy of the civil basilica, and that a number of civil buildings became churches—an occurrence of which there is no known record. The type of buildings constructed about a central perpendicular axis is next described. These may be classified as round like the Pantheon, of the composite plan like S. Vitale at Ravenna, and with dome on square base (either in cross-shaped plan or oblong) like S. Sophia. Church furniture and the location and surroundings of the buildings form the subject of discussion in the last pages of this chapter. It is interesting to note that, for the orientation of churches, the rule that the apse should be towards the east is not regularly followed until the Middle Ages; other influences (such as the direction of a street) prevailing in certain instances.

Christian Art is treated in chapter 4, in one hundred and forty-five pages, under the subdivisions pictorial art, sculpture, mosaics, and miniatures. In his interpretation of early art, Mr. Lowrie wisely takes the middle ground recognizing the symbolic character of the pictures of the catacombs, but disavowing any sympathy with those who are fanciful in their views. It will perhaps astonish the reader to learn that "an undisguised representation of the cross is rarely found in early Christian art, and De Rossi could point to only one instance before Constantine." This arose from the dislike felt by the early Christians to represent the then familiar instrument of punishment as the means of the death of their Lord. It is interesting also to know that angels were not represented with wings during the first three centuries, and that winged figures did not become popular until the Lombard art of the early Middle Ages appeared. The section on Mosaics brings us back again to the basilica, for they form almost exclusively the decoration of these buildings. In those in S. Apollinare Nuovo at Ravenna, erected in 500 A. D., occurs the first instance of the type of the face of Christ in oval form and with pointed beard, so familiar to us now. Several statements in this chapter cannot be accepted, as the declarations that Christmas originated in "the principal festival of Mithras," and that the Constantinian symbol is formed in a "horse-shoe" instead of in the letter Ω, or again that the manuscripts copied and illuminated in the school of Charlemagne were directly derived from Syrian originals, whereas palæographers think the Irish schools were responsible for the ornamentation and decoration of manuscripts of the Charlemagne monasteries. The "minor arts" is the subject of the fifth chapter, and here the eucharistic vessels, lamps, textile stuffs, etc., are described, while articles of civil and ecclesiastical dress, such as the tunic, dalmatic, pænula, chlamys, chasuble, stole, and maniple, are discussed in the concluding chapter.

The book closes with a select bibliography, accompanied by explanatory statements, and with an excellent index. There are 182 illustrations, which are indispensable for a book of this character, and which should be placed on the pages they are intended to illustrate and not scattered in all parts of the book. A list of illustrations follows the table of contents.

## RECENT NOVELS.

*Myra of the Pines.* By Herman Knickerbocker Vielé. McClure, Phillips & Co.

*The Red Anvil.* By Charles Reginald Sherlock. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

*John Kenadie.* By Ripley D. Saunders. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*A Pasteboard Crown.* By Clara Morris. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Ranson's Folly.* By Richard Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The salient point in all Mr. Vielé's work is its originality. He tells either a new tale, or an old one in a new way, and sometimes both. Yet there is a refreshing absence of any striving and tugging after originality. The light airiness of his touch is as removed from affectation as it is from dulness. His work is a pleasurable addition to light fiction, and merits a shelf apart from the reading which is light and leaves the head light as well. It is no new thing to meet in stories attractive young women in sunbonnets, with half-cynical, wholly cheerful views of life, and of the coming (or come) hero. The literary mother with "copy," the astrologizing father, the shrewd land agent, may all be found in the dictionary of fiction, but certainly in 'Myra of the Pines' they wear their being with a difference. The Pine Barrens, too, have been freely, not to say overflowingly, painted in story, but have we ever personally lived there as we do under Mr. Vielé's conduct? The glimpse of the degraded Pinelanders is hideous, yet it serves to shade rather than to taint. And the forest fire is superbly described. We find in this little novel a note of its own, bright, silvery, unusual.

'The Red Anvil' tells a story of the days of the Fugitive Slave Law and the Underground Railroad. The scene lies in a New York town, which served as one of the so-called stations for forwarding the fugitives to the shores of Lake Ontario, and so to Canada. To those of older memories its pages will prove reminiscences and more—wayside chapels of thanksgiving. And a younger generation might with advantage absent them from colonial and mythical adventures awhile, and learn in what a harsh world and with what pain the breath was drawn in the early fifties by friends of the negro race, by lovers of the Union. As a story, 'The Red Anvil' is full of crudities and fatigues, but its history lesson is timely. There are many Americans who need to be reminded of the existence and conduct of the U. G. R. R., a road with neither engines nor rails nor cars, "unsurveyed, unmapped, unrouted," "a cryptic railroad whose only code was one of danger signals." Even the "cock-and-pye" "God-wot" hero of novelized eighteenth-century history employs no more romantic messenger than floating logs of a "certain timber and notched in a certain way for the purpose of identification," swifter than horse or foot, and known to the initiate as "Mr. Wood." Indeed, the appendix alone, containing the provisions of the Fugitive Slave Law as enacted in 1793, and supplemented in 1850, will furnish matter startling to a younger America that cannot remember slavery days, if only for the clause setting forth that "in no trial or hearing shall the testimony of the alleged fugitive be admitted in evidence."

There is very little quality or significance in 'John Kenadie.' The motive—the unconscious inheritance of a Kentucky feud—is not amiss, but the development and execution of the story lack lustre. We are told that John Kenadie was a poet, but are not made to feel it, even though his verses were accepted by a magazine and subsequently published in book form. No, not even though John and his preceptor always "talked of the gentle things of letters and the bookish life." The avowed theme, however, the transmitted antagonism between John and Hugh, is better treated than the characterization, which is much like that of the domestic farmyard drama.

The most interesting parts of Miss Morris's story are those which relate to the technique of the stage; the most valuable those which point out to girl aspirants to the stage what pitfalls await them. Opportunity, opportunity, cries the preacher, is the enemy that lies in wait for the inexperienced and confiding, be they guarded as carefully as they may. There is solemn warning in these pages for the stage-struck. For lighter interest we see the stage from the expert's point of view—a satisfaction always; while criticisms on the book of the play by a player have a freshness and piquancy all their own and Miss Morris's.

Mr. Harding Davis's stories are in his best vein. The two novelettes are improbable enough not to stimulate the argumentative reader to disprove them. He is left free to cheerful, unchallenging enjoyment, while yet they are not so artificial as to neutralize interest. "La Lettre d'Amour" is a sketch of pretty and poetic suggestion. We might suggest in passing that, since the name of Ysaye is an important point in the story, the spelling of it ought to go to the proofreader before the next edition. The *would* and *should* editor, too, might profitably be consulted. The story of "The Derelict" conveys a graphic impression of the battle days in Cuba—"an empire wiped off the map in twenty minutes"—and of their lurid reflection in the fevered eye and brain of a war correspondent. The great sacrifice made by the poor old derelict to save Keating's departed honor is splendid, but annoying. We believe in Casabianca, we cordially hate his modern traducers; but we think Charlie Channing made a mistake when he signed his superior's inferior name to his own superior story. "The Bar Sinister," a dog story, is entirely delightful as a story and a dog, whatever it may be as Dog in the technical sense.

## MICHEL COLOMBE.

*Michel Colombe et la Sculpture Française de son Temps.* Par Paul Vitry. Paris: Librairie Centrale des Beaux-Arts. 1901. Pp. xxiii, 531.

This is a work of mediæval archæology

into which have gone all the patience and sound and wholesome unbelief which recent students of classical archæology have shown. There is in it, too, that enthusiasm which the long-continued study of the later Middle Ages, at least in their artistic development, has the power of exciting—an enthusiasm the greater because confined to a small body of students. It is in no way surprising that interest is more readily excited among persons interested in antiquity by Greek pre-Christian than by French fifteenth-century relics of the past. The former are associated with the loftiest literature and with all the study and tradition of our universities; the latter has to stand or fall with the respect of the student for constructional and creative work in form and color. There are a thousand students of the language of words and the literature that belongs to it for one who investigates the past history of the language of form and color and what belongs to that language; and all the more are those few students interested and excited in behalf of their own reserved field of investigation.

An ideal example of such enthusiastic work is the book before us, from a man new in the field, though not unknown in it, and confirming his right to the position of a leading archæologist by the completion and publication of this one volume. It is of the accepted large octavo or narrow quarto form, familiar to the users of French books on fine art; it has sixteen plates, and perhaps three hundred illustrations in the text. These are all from half-tone blocks, and are not attractive. So far as they are concerned, the book is a disappointment; one expects more beautiful things from the Parisian house which publishes them. It is, of course, true that only at very heavy cost could they have been made much better. Nearly all the subjects are in-doors; the picture itself in nearly every case shows how bad and how troublesome was the light; and then there is that unfortunate tradition among the French photographers which abhors a sharp negative, and insists on putting artistic vagueness of outline even into the documents most necessary for study. Accordingly, it is not as a parlor-table book that this one is to be commended; it is a thoroughgoing piece of investigation, representing years of toil, and requiring days of reading and reference. As yet we have in the land only one or two great collections of photographs accessible to students, else the word would be passed, Go to the photograph-library and look up every one of the references to these works of art afresh, and with better pictures than M. Vitry has been able to supply.

Michel Colombe was certainly a sculptor of the last half of the fifteenth century. The old and the new authorities agree in this, and his birth may be set down as of about 1430; his death of 1512 or 1513. The Hoefer biography avoids mention of the dates of birth and death, and states positively that nothing was known about this artist, not even his name, until a certain famous tomb in Nantes, in Brittany, was opened in 1727. That conservative statement marks the amount of knowledge which the world had down to the middle of the nineteenth century of one of its great sculptors. Since that time the study of mediæval archæology has been carried so far as to identify scores of important artists of the later Gothic epoch, and at the same time to reject a crowd of fantastical ascriptions which had passed current before. And this brings us to the essential peculiarity of the present work, that it is composed in the main of destructive criticism. It was necessary to state plainly that only this and that still existing work of sculpture was known to be by Michel; that only this and that now destroyed work was known to be by him; and, finally, that there are only such and such other works that can with any propriety be classed as of his school. It seems, therefore, at first thought, to diminish the interest of the study that each of the classes just indicated must, of course, be small. Thus, there are only three still existing works of art which are certainly by this artist. There are less than half a score of existing sculptures or groups of sculpture which are assuredly of the Colombe school. There are, perhaps, six works that have perished, but of which we know something, and that they were altogether or largely of Colombe's creation. Accordingly, as this complete "œuvre" is so very limited, the study of the art and of the epoch of Michel Colombe is very largely a matter of rejection, and is almost wholly a matter of minute and careful classification.

First, M. Vitry has shown his sense of what was needed by beginning his study at a point far away from the artist himself. He notes that it may prove erroneous to call Colombe a sculptor of the Renaissance. He devotes his Part One, 106 pages, to describing the late Gothic art in France, its constructional and decorative qualities, its essential difference from the Gothic of the thirteenth century, its still greater differentiation from anything that can properly be called Renaissance art—that is to say, art influenced by the classical revival of Italy—and also the French sculpture influenced by the Burgundian school, and that which was not so influenced. The most earnest plea is entered for the independence and for the artistic importance of the late French Gothic school of art. Nothing can exceed the boldness and energy with which this new man in the field has announced his defiance of the accepted doctrine that there is only one good Gothic, namely, of the years from 1180 to 1250. Nothing can exceed the earnestness with which the case is argued, the sympathy of the reader invoked, and his conviction invited as to the essential importance of that style which is exemplified for us, in architecture, by S. Maclou of Rouen, S. Wulfran of Abbeville, and a hundred mansions, of which the Hôtel de Cluny may be taken as a not too favorable example. As for the sculpture of the period, we are reminded pleasantly of the time when even Ruskin, that high priest of purity and simplicity in art, had careful photographs made of the statues of Abbeville, because he feared the threatened restoration of the cathedral. There is no sculpture more valuable for its decorative quality, and the free use of polychromy in connection with it is an added grace. This "flamboyant" style passed gradually into the non-constructional pseudo-Gothic of the sixteenth century; there is no denying that. So did the most original of all English styles, the perpendicular, lead up to what was at once its greatest artistic glory and a complete denial of its constructive quality, the fantraceried vaults of King's College Chapel and its congeners. That the French style was great and splendid from 1420 to 1510, and that it deserves profound study and enthusiastic admiration, is M. Vitry's contention; a theory which needs certainly not more nor more well-marshalled advocacy than he has here arrayed in its behalf.

Next, from page 107 to page 269 (Part Two), is developed the long account of the invasion of France by foreign artistic influences, the Flemish and the Italian influences especially, and those divided into what is noticeable before the pivotal year 1495, when Charles VIII. returned to France from his Italian campaign, and the time following. Before 1495 our author finds Italian as well as Flemish influences at work. After 1495 he finds Flemish as well as Italian influences at work. In other words, he thinks that, in the east of France, at least, Italy and Flanders struggled for a century for the perpetuation of mediæval taste on the one hand; on the other hand for the new classicality of sentiment, strong in the south of Europe since 1420. The second was, of course, the increasingly powerful influence; it is that which becomes more and more noticeable with time. There is mention of the plunder brought back by Charles VIII. from Italy, and the importations, of less reprehensible origin, of the later years. There is the moral weight of the gardeners, painters, and sculptors, invited by king and princes and nobles to come to France, and teach and work there; there is the commencement, here and there, of tomb building, shrine building, sculpture and the like in an attempted Italo-classical taste. And if the Flemish influence struggled with this for a time successfully, its flank was turned by the Italian influence which reached Flanders, too, so that it was half-heartedly that the French builders and sculptors could contend against the invasion from beyond the Alps. Nevertheless, it was with a whole-hearted and perfect energy and success that they worked in their own traditional ways, modified only as traditions are always in the way of being modified, by the new order of tastes and ambitions which were "in the air" around them; so that the sculpture of the years following 1495, like that of the preceding epoch, always abounded in force and significance.

Thus we are brought to the Third Part, and to the question of those sculptures of the time of Michel Colombe which are either his, or of his school, or so akin to his known work that they must be considered in close connection with it. Such is the famous sepulchre of Solesmes, a marvellous collection of sculptures in the little transept of an abbey church between Le Mans and Angers, and therefore in the heart of old Anjou. Such is the group of sculpture in the Abbey of Souvigny, between Nevers and Moulins, and therefore on the boundary of the old Duchy of Bourbon. Such are certain sculptures of Moulins itself, and others in Touraine, especially sculptures at Beaulieu-lès-Loches, Limeray, and several other little places lost to view except for those students who love the slow journeying about France, living with a simple and pleasant luxury at little inns, and spending the most blessed days of slow

observation in churches and desolated châteaux where no tourist comes. Within this same Part Three is included Chapter IX., devoted to the life and career of Michel Colombe, with an attempt to recover all that is recoverable of his known labors; but quite separate from that is Chapter X., in which the existing sculptures known to be by him are described, three only in number, one of which is a small medal, but another a large and elaborate composition containing many figures. Following this comes a paper on the school founded by the artist, and a final chapter on the extended influence of his art in Burgundy, in Normandy, in the Île-de-France. And so, with a crowd of tables and a long bibliography to follow, the book is completed; certainly the most thoroughgoing piece of patient and sagacious archæology which has come our way these many months. If the reader likes to see old ascriptions proved unfounded and scores of old statements proved false, while there is to console him for his lost illusions only a great certainty, and the noble enthusiasm for that which remains, then this book is to be commended to his notice.

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*Tiberius the Tyrant.* By J. C. Tarver. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

Never have the attractions of alliteration led to a more misleading title than in the case of this book. From the title we should expect to find the author warring against those writers who, during the last thirty or forty years, have been endeavoring to clear the personal and political character of Tiberius from the obloquy that was spread over it by the "yellow journalism" of Suetonius and by the more dangerous, because morally attired, insinuations of Tacitus, so grand in his style, so small and narrow in his conception of the history of an empire. But, on the contrary, Mr. Tarver seems to think that he is doing something that has never been done before in his careful examination of our sources of knowledge about the Emperor, and that this vindication of him is a novelty. He is, to be sure, acquainted with Mommsen's characterization of Tiberius as "the ablest of the Roman Emperors," but he has apparently never heard (at least, he never makes mention) of the views of Sievers, Stahr, Freytag, Beesly, Furneaux, Huidekoper, and Allen. None of these writers accepted the Tiberius of table-talk, and all gave good reasons for their rejection of that after-dinner figure. It is true that few of them made use of a space of four hundred-odd pages in which to set forth their doubts, and that no one of them whitewashed the Emperor quite so clean as Mr. Tarver leaves him; still, we have not observed in this volume anything to the credit of Tiberius, whether fact or argument, which has not been adduced before.

But, although Mr. Tarver has to offer on this point nothing which is absolutely new to scholars, and although, whether from lack of information or ingratitude, he not seldom goes out of his way to accuse them of pedantry and (perhaps confusing students in general with some pedagogues of his own school days) of over-devotion to the gerund-grinding mill, yet it is probably true that, to the ordinary man of education, Tiberius is still the accepted type of a bloodthirsty ruler and foul-minded, cruel-hearted man. It is true, also, that the books in which a wholly different picture of him is drawn are not of the sort which prove attractive to the general reader, for whom, indeed, they are not intended. Mr. Tarver's work was therefore worth doing, and he has done it excellently. Without making any show of learning (there is no preface, no bibliography, and only one footnote in the book), he has evidently mastered the ancient materials; in his study of them he has not been deceived by the fascinations of the style of Tacitus, "in whose pages nobody is good except men unconnected with the Administration, the Germans, and the historian's father-in-law"; and we are glad to observe that he gives due credit to the statements of the eye-witness Velleius Paterculus, who has been abused, we suspect, by many more critics than have read the old fellow's book. Working the materials over into a clear, straightforward (though sometimes too colloquial) narrative, he has accomplished his purpose by showing once again, and more conclusively, perhaps, than any other writer, that the Emperor Tiberius was a far-sighted, just-minded, and patriotic statesman, and that, as regards his character as a man, we have no reason to believe, but many reasons to disbelieve, the foul aspersions with which it has been besmirched.

The real value of this book, however, lies not in the pages about Tiberius himself, but rather in the long introduction and the many cursory paragraphs, in which the author shows a remarkable appreciation of the difficulties that beset the makers of the Roman empire. In his chapters on the expansion of Rome, with the resulting requirements and possibilities of which poets like Virgil and Homer had a higher realization than had the historians; on the extraordinary conglomeration which the Roman people had come to be, ruling "under conditions which were simply authorized anarchy, so that the deeply lamented fall of the Republic with which school histories are apt to close was the restoration of order"; and on the Senate, which had become all but an hereditary peerage, whose members, many of them, saw in the Empire only a curtailment of their sacred right to loot in the provinces and to bring about miscarriages of justice at home by the use of influence; and in his chapter on slavery, in which he reaches the conclusion that the institution was in ancient times beneficial to the advance of civilization—in all these and on other political topics he displays a sympathy with the imperial reformers (for such Augustus, with his ministers, and later Tiberius, certainly were), of a kind that is to be found in perhaps no other historian, and his picture of the early Empire and its policy is illuminated by means of many comparisons, brilliantly drawn, between those days and our own.

Thus the book is one of manifold interest, fitted to attract and instruct the general reader as well as students of government, of economics, and of the classics. It is excellently printed and has a good index. In bulk it is large, but, being printed in England, its paper is so light in weight that the book is no burden to hold. When will American publishers make up their minds to give their patrons relief from the heavily loaded fabric which wearies the hand and taxes the patience of both reviewer and ordinary reader?

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*Dante Gabriel Rossetti.* By F. M. Hueffer. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

*Rembrandt.* By Auguste Bréal. Same publishers.

"The Popular Library of Art" seems, so far as it may be judged by the two numbers that have reached us, to be conducted on other lines than those of the many similar series of small books on art which the times bring forth so plentifully. Here we have very little biography and no apparatus of lists of works, etc.; but, in each case, a "critical essay" which contains real criticism. Mr. Ford Madox Hueffer tries to analyze the art of Rossetti, and M. Auguste Bréal to appreciate that of Rembrandt, and each meets with considerable success in his effort and has produced an interesting and stimulating book.

Mr. Hueffer's main contention is that, in spite of the brilliancy, the ardor, and the gift of language that made him seem a leader, Rossetti was really more influenced than influencing. His pre-Raphaelism, which was brief, proceeded from Hunt and Madox Brown; his Florentine manner was made to suit Ruskin; his decorative bias was caught from Burne-Jones and Morris; his limited and intensely literary choice of subjects was largely due to intercourse with Swinburne and others. By nature he was a painter, with a dramatic gift—a clear eye for expression and gesture—a knack of seeing—which was overlaid, in his early work, by a factitious love for detailed realism, in his middle period by bric-à-brac-ery; and, often, in his later work, by a morbid love of symbolism and literary expression; so that he was seldom entirely himself. In his later days, when he could sell whatever he chose to do, he more nearly expressed his true individuality as it had come to be, not as it might have been. He was at his best when he was occupied only with beauty, when, "having recorded a type of feminine beauty, . . . he afterwards found a name for it; stood back in fact from his canvas, and only then discovered the moral of what he had been painting." He had practically no training and was always an amateur, never a master, yet he had genius, and while "to-morrow there will be a reaction," it is probable that there is in his work that which will make a re-reaction certain, and that the best of it will survive.

The most interesting part of M. Bréal's sympathetic account of Rembrandt is his discussion of that artist's toleration for, not to say love of, ugliness, particularly in the nude female figure. He has no patience with those who regret or apologize for Rembrandt's coarseness, and would take from him his "broad subjects" merely because they are "unworthy of his genius." Rembrandt's work was all of a piece. " 'Classic' beauty is not his province. Life is what he seeks, the life that he knows and understands."

"Do the coats of the Syndics, or their conical hats . . . remind you of the harmonious draperies in the friezes of the Parthenon? And if you admit that Rem-

brandt has been able to find and make you feel a new beauty . . . in the lines, colors, and reflections of his fellow-townsmen's clothed bodies, why do you refuse to see the delicate tones, the palpitating flesh, the marvellous suppleness of line and modelling, the comprehension of certain harmonies of the human body shown by Rembrandt in his nudes? Accustomed to see the representatives of an academic tradition exhibit their carefully cleaned, smoothed, and polished dolls, . . . the sight of something real shocks and disgusts you. . . . If any one of our contemporaries, worn out by the driving life of towns, or any townswoman of the twentieth century, deformed by stays, grown heavy by overfeeding, or exhausted by a life in which little attention is given to 'eurythmy,' should be tempted to reproach Rembrandt with a realism that seems at first sight excessive, they should reflect that Rembrandt is perhaps the only one of the old masters who would have been capable of feeling, expressing, and making us understand and love the living charm and grace hidden in these bodies of ours, bodies on which we heap our mendacious dresses, and of which we fear the nakedness because we do not know how to see the beauty."

All this is good and healthy criticism as far as it goes, but it does not quite satisfy. Let any painter who has spent thirty years studying the human body without its "mendacious dresses" say whether Rembrandt's women are not vastly uglier than life. Let him who has seen how supremely lovely can be the body of a young girl, how much harmonious line and beauty of structure is to be found, by him who has eyes for it, in the forms of the commonest models, say whether the one word "realism" adequately explains the hideousness of these "Dianas" and "Bathshebas." Michelangelo did not make "smooth and polished dolls," but he would have seen wonders of beautiful form and line in any human body because form and line were what he was looking for. Rembrandt did not see them because he had no care for form and line. His one love was character, his one aim expression, his one means light and shade. M. Bréal has pointed out that Rembrandt never drew a single figure, there being always some suggestion, however slight, of the surroundings in which it is placed. It may be as truly said that he never drew an outline. When he seems working in pure line it is not the contour he is drawing—his line follows the mass, suggests the direction of folds or the bagging of muscles, breaks, and continues again. The line itself is suggested (or potential) light and shade. Beauty of form, as such, was nothing to him, and he cared for form at all only as it gave surfaces for light to fall on and shadows to catch in. He drew a woman as he did a pig, from the picturesque point of view; and the creased and flabby shapes of his ugly women were *better*, for his purposes, than would have been the rounded limbs of a Greek nymph. So he expressed the soul of a poet through forms of an astounding vulgarity, and conveyed a depth of sentiment almost unique in art, though the figures he drew are often almost inconceivably grotesque.

It was a good thought, instead of small and inadequate reproductions of Rembrandt's famous pictures, to give, in the illustrations of this volume, reproductions of etchings and drawings which suffer less by reduction, and some of which are comparatively little known. The translation seems to be excellent.

*Lenox and the Berkshire Highlands.* By R. De Witt Mallary. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

A well-known resident of Berkshire has here brought together a number of essays and addresses, some of which have been read before various literary and historical societies, setting forth particularly, in many varied aspects, the natural charms of Lenox and its surrounding neighborhood. While his aim is not that of an historian, his book will be found by many no less interesting for what it records of past conditions than for what it says of the existing state of things.

Old-time Lenox, inhabited since 1750 and incorporated in 1767, became the shire town twenty years later, and so remained for more than eighty years, or until 1868, when Pittsfield was made the county seat. During many years of this period Lenox was the most influential centre of western Massachusetts in political, religious, educational, and social matters. It became famous as the resort and dwelling-place of many men and women, celebrated in art and literature, whose names passed into history more than half a century ago. Modern Lenox, no less widely known, has achieved far greater fame within the last twenty years through the creation of beautiful estates and palatial villas, the magnificent country seats of wealthy summer residents, whose advent has wholly changed the character of the place and of its people.

Prehistoric and primitive Stockbridge seems likewise no less interesting for what it formerly was in the days of the Indian mission and the Established Church of Berkshire, under the spiritual guidance and theological teaching of Jonathan Edwards, than for what it now is under modern influence and conditions, one of the loveliest villages of America, a beautiful realization of the high ideals of the founders of the Laurel Hill Association, the parent of more than a thousand similar organizations in the form of village-improvement societies, scattered throughout the United States.

Great changes have come to pass in Berkshire since the days of the Established Congregational Church, when a certain person holding Episcopal preferences, having applied for a certificate of exemption from payment of taxes for the support of the Congregational Church, obtained one reading as follows: "This is to certify that A. B. has renounced the Christian religion and joined the Episcopal Church!" Nowadays, the burning questions of Jonathan Edwards's day are no longer thought of, and the good people of Lenox and Stockbridge are largely only "'piscopal pious." Among the summer residents of both places there are many strictly warm-weather Episcopalians, who, at the low temperatures of their winter homes, are good Presbyterians or even frigid Unitarians. The latter abound in Stockbridge especially; and the summer congregations of the Episcopal Church there are notably made up of thawed-out Unitarians.

Lenox and Stockbridge are adjoining towns whose respective centres are about six miles apart. Their geographical and social boundaries or dividing-lines are not precisely coincident, and some residents whose houses are in one township are socially at home in the other. From its superior height and more magnificent establishments, Lenox looks proudly down upon the humbler, but no less well-contented village, while the modest cottager of Stockbridge finds little occasion to violate the tenth commandment in coveting his neighbor's house or anything that is his in Lenox. The two communities dwell together harmoniously, each thinking well of its neighbor, and both still more highly of themselves; and it has been fitly said, by way of social comparison of the two places, that in Stockbridge the neighbors esteem, while in Lenox they estimate, each other.

Mr. Mallary's volume is substantial and very attractive in appearance.

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*The Story of the Art of Music.* By Frederick J. Crowest. Appleton & Co.

Real courage is a trait which everybody admires, and genuine originality is so rare that its sporadic occurrence always delights the jaded reviewer. It is, therefore, a pleasure to sit in judgment on a book like Mr. Crowest's, which is brimful of noble courage and almost unparalleled originality. He has no mercy on those foolish musicians and music-lovers who believe that the second half of the nineteenth century marks the climax of their art, but informs them undauntedly that Schumann (who died in 1856) "is the last, for the present, of the great masters of music." "Wagner, Raff, Dvorák, Rubinstein, Liszt, Tschaikówsky [*sic*]," and all the other modern composers, with the exception of Brahms, have "nothing genuinely new in them. They only say merely the old things over again." Such charlatans as Franz, Grieg, Bizet, Saint-Saëns, Goldmark, Humperdinck, Jensen, Johann and Richard Strauss, MacDowell, Paderewski, etc., Mr. Crowest does not even mention, and rightly so; for to refer to them in a history of music would only encourage them.

Mr. Crowest's opinions, it will be conceded, are peculiarly and exclusively his own. His originality is further revealed in the reasons he gives for them. For instance, it is universally believed that Wagner reformed the opera by abolishing the arias and other unconnected numbers, and making it a work of art connected in all its parts. Mr. Crowest knows better; he informs us that "Beethoven, in one of his moods of discontent, wrote: 'If I were to write an opera after my own mind, these people would run away, for they would find in it none of the arias, duets, terzets, and all the stuff with which the ordinary operatic patch-work is made up.'" "Here," our author adds triumphantly, "was the fundamental principle of all Wagner's art-theories."

The only objection—a slight one, to be sure—to this grand historic discovery is that Beethoven never said anything of the kind. He wrote only one opera, which is absolutely conventional in its use of arias and other operatic patchwork. The words quoted by our author were arbitrarily put into Beethoven's mouth by Richard Wagner himself when, at the age of twenty-seven, he wrote his fanciful novelette, entitled, 'A Pilgrimage to Beethoven.'

It must not be inferred that such a model historian as Mr. Crowest could be capable of such a thing as prejudice. He shows the

same courageous disregard of facts and universally accepted opinions in his treatment of some older composers. Concerning Schubert, we are told that he composed nine symphonies, leaving the ninth unfinished. Inasmuch as all biographers and historians are agreed that it was the eighth symphony that remained unfinished, this item of news may be regarded as what journalists call a "scoop." Almost superhuman critical acumen is, moreover, shown by our author when he writes, regarding the songs of Schubert: "Like most German songs, they are mainly written for almost any voice, and consequently belong to none—so that for legitimate singing they are almost a sealed book. . . . Such leaps as repeated sevenths and ninths are scarcely agreeable baits for vocalists." Poor Schubert! a victim to his own repeated sevenths and ninths! Any composer of vaudeville tunes could have taught him to avoid such fatal blunders.

Mr. Crowest's book is dated 1902. On page 177 he informs us that "Tschaikŏwsky [*sic*] still lives." There is a current belief that Tchaikovsky died at St. Petersburg on the 6th of November in the year 1893. Mr. Crowest cannot possibly have been unaware of this fact; he probably ignored it deliberately for the sake of originality and to obviate the necessity of saying pleasant things about a dead man who was a mere modern composer. No reasonable objection can, of course, be made to this, but the reviewer may perhaps timidly hint that in always putting two dots over the *o* in Tchaikovsky's name, the author allowed his genius for originality somewhat too free a swing. His changing the sex of the Flying Dutchman—"Die Fliegende Holländer"—is doubtless a mere ebullition of his sense of humor, as are his remarks that Chopin belongs to the French school and that Beethoven "opened a path for Schopenhauer's spirit and reasoning."

After the harsh treatment to which Mr. Crowest subjects other modern composers, it is pleasant to find him saying some nice things about Liszt. He tells us that Liszt's compositions "quickly attracted the attention of the musical world." Liszt himself, it is true, fancied that his works received very little notice, and to the end of his life he used to say, "I can wait." Obviously, in a conflict of this sort, credence must be given to Mr. Crowest. This erudite Englishman also shows a rare insight into the aspirations of genius when he says, regarding Liszt, that "he posed—rather than composed," and adds that "this statement is made not slightingly, but to explain that he was an interpreter rather than a creator." There is nothing more to be said about Mr. Crowest's masterwork except that it belongs to a series of books called "The Library of Useful Stories."

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*Bookbinding and the Care of Books:* A Handbook for Amateurs, Bookbinders, and Librarians. By Douglas Cockerell. With drawings by Noel Rooke and other illustrations. (Volume I. of the Artistic Crafts Series of Technical Handbooks; edited by W. R. Lethaby.) D. Appleton & Co. 1902. Pp. 342.

This book is sure to please the student at first glance, for its appearance is altogether in its favor. Printing and paper are what they should be for a good working book, and the illustrations—broad-line drawings without elaboration of shade—are perfectly descriptive and utilitarian, and still most pleasant to the eye. In addition to the text illustrations, a dozen photographic plates representing fine old bindings are inserted at the end. Examination of the text shows no important exception to the rule that books of handicraft are not to be found well and pleasantly written. The meaning is obvious if one seeks for it, but it cannot be said that the subject is perfectly well presented. Still, all that is needed is intelligibly put before the reader, who should not expect to grasp the complicated business of preparing and binding a book at one reading of a manual. The outsider will learn all that he need know from this volume; and even the practised binder will, we should think, find much in the way of valuable hints, and still more in the way of encouraging insistence upon points which he is much too apt to neglect. Finally, beginning with page 291, there is something for the book-owner, namely, the most explicit instructions as to avoiding or putting by the dangers which threaten the bound book, and as to the repairs it may need.

Any one concerned with work upon books, or prints, or photographs—in fact, any working student or any owner of books who handles them himself—will find abundant reason to thank the author for the explicit directions given; such as those about mounting photographs (page 180), about scrap-books, about inlaying, about the composition of preservative liquids to rub upon leather bindings, and also for much good advice with regard to the lettering, the leather, the "end papers" or linings, and the bothering transparent tissue papers facing the plates, or the stiffer and more opaque sheets, still greater hindrances to the workman. A workmanlike good taste governs the advice in every instance. A private or a public library kept up according to the standard established here would be an excellent thing to frequent and an admirable thing to see.

A word must be said about the promise given by the series of which this is the first book. A volume is announced on gold and silversmith's work, and one on cabinet-making and designing, and it is stated that they will be "richly illustrated"—let us hope, rather, intelligently illustrated, as is this one. The editor, Mr. Lethaby, who opens the series with a brief editor's preface in the present volume, and who is announced on the wrapper as "a Director of the London City Council Central School of Arts and the Crafts, and Professor of Design at South Kensington," is more than that. It is, indeed, true that Mr. Lethaby has not published much. He is one of the two authors of that admirable book, 'The Church of Sancta Sophia, Constantinople,' and the sole author of the interesting essay, 'Architecture, Mysticism, and Myth,' and of an excellent little book on architectural leadwork, ancient and modern. His services to the theoretical student of art have, however, been greater than this, he being a writer in periodicals and the whole effect of his teaching being of the loftiest kind, involving the complete recognition of a high ideal, and working always for the discrimination of truly artistic work from that which is controlled and inspired by commercialism. This is the spirit which inspires his article Design in the recently issued 'Dictionary of Architecture and Building.'

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*Nature Study and Life.* By Dr. Clifton F. Hodge of Clark University. Boston: Ginn & Co.

In this teachers' manual, Dr. Hodge aims to bring the children into immediate contact with nature, giving them an active and creative part in the study, binding home and school closer together by the practical values of their work, and helping to prepare them for social life by teaching them, as Ruskin says, "with respect to things to enforce tidiness and fruitfulness," that with respect to men they may "enforce justice." Most other plans of nature-study emphasize the scientific or the æsthetic side of the subject; Dr. Hodge's plan takes large account of the economic side. In explanation of this fact, he says:

"Nothing can be farther from my thought [than to recognize merely economic values], . . . but I would include all human values in about the relations that they bear to life. . . . I have made economic values prominent because . . . money is the common, universal expression of value that every one understands and respects; and, while we realize that there are many things that money cannot buy, no other measure of value is so fundamental to the ordinary affairs of life. Money value is, moreover, the trunk that supports many of the higher values."

The book possesses a unity of purpose such as public-school nature-teaching too often lacks. It leaves room, also, for the æsthetic values of the subject, gaining, perhaps, by not insisting too strongly upon them. It treats of plants and animals that have economic value, and, as far as possible, considers them in their relations to the child's home life. It prefers, as Dr. Stanley Hall says, in his introduction, "instead of elaborate methods applied to a few species," "the essential and salient points about many." The author takes up the domestic animals, beginning with children's pets; he treats of certain ornamental and agricultural plants, giving valuable lessons in gardening, horticulture, and arboriculture, which, as far as may be, the children are to put into practice; he discusses the insects, birds, and other animals that benefit or injure such plants, and suggests ways of encouraging the beneficial species and destroying the noxious ones; he also discusses the insects of the household, and the best methods of combating them; he gives an adequate and clever treatment of flowerless plants, enlarging upon such as directly affect man's interests, including as much bacteriology as will give children an idea of the causes of disease and its prevention by proper sanitation. The systematic, anatomical, mechanical, and œcological aspects of biology are intentionally omitted from the plan. A disproportionate amount of space is given to insects, birds, and batrachians, while little attention is paid to fish and other food-producing animals.

The book concludes with suggestions for a full course in nature study, running through the nine grades of primary and grammar-school work. If all the other subjects that must find a place in these nine years should be studied in courses suitably proportionate to this, there is reason to fear either that the teaching would lack

thoroughness, or that many children would be overtrained.

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*The Strange Adventures of Andrew Battell of Leigh in Angola and the Adjoining Region.* Reprinted from 'Purchas his Pilgrimes.' Edited, with notes and a concise history of Kongo and Angola, by E. G. Ravenstein. London: Hakluyt Society. 1901. 8vo, pp. xx, 210. Maps.

Andrew Battell was a good representative of the earliest builders of the British Empire—not a leader, but one of the sturdy rank and file to whose adventurous spirit and manly qualities the success of the leaders was mainly due. He was one of the crew of a pinnace of fifty tons, which sailed from England in 1589 on a privateering cruise to the coast of South America. Taken prisoner in Brazil, he was deported by the "Portugalls" to their convict colony of Angola. Here he was employed in trading expeditions, and, with his fellow-convicts, "Egyptians and Moriscoes," in raiding the neighboring tribes to procure the slaves who were the principal commercial product of the colony. A considerable time was spent in prison, the result of repeated attempts to escape. Eighteen years passed before Battell regained his liberty and returned to his home in Leigh, accompanied by a negro boy. Among those who heard him tell of his "strange adventures" was the vicar of the next parish, and it does not seem impossible that his interviews with the sailor may have led the Rev. Samuel Purchas to undertake the great work with which his name associated. However this may be, when 'His Pilgrimage' appeared three or four years later, it contained "the report of Andrew Battell, my near neighbor," on the "religion and the customs of the peoples of Angola, Congo, and Loango." The personal narrative, compiled from papers found after Battell's death, was incorporated in Purchas's 'Hakluytus Posthumus,' published in 1625, "the earliest record of travels in the *interior* of this part of Africa."

The chief impression made by these quaint travellers' tales, now published separately by the Hakluyt Society, is that the condition of the natives of this region was far better in the sixteenth century than it is now, after four hundred years of contact with whites. The laziness of the West African is proverbial. But Battell says, "The men in this kingdom [Loango] make good store of palm-cloth of sundry sorts, very fine and curious. They are never idle; for they make fine caps of needlework as they go in the streets." From references to the various food products, manufactured goods, and ivory sold in the daily markets, it is evident that the people were generally industrious and prosperous. An attractive picture is drawn of the capital town, "full of palm and plaintain-trees," whose "streets are wide and long and always clean swept." The court customs, minutely described, were also marked with a certain dignity and decorum, indicating a condition above the barbarism that now generally prevails. But the narrative shows plainly that the deterioration had already begun. Raids by the interior tribes, attracted by the wealth of the coast people, were frequent. Battell spent sixteen months with some roving man-eating warriors, many thousand strong, having a remarkable military organization resembling that of the Zulus and Sudan Dervishes. These Jagas had overrun a large section, cutting down palms, robbing harvests, neither sowing nor planting, not even bringing up their own children. Their numbers were recruited from the children of their victims.

The export slave-trade was a greater curse than the most devastating raids. At this time, according to Portuguese writers, eight to ten thousand slaves were carried annually to Brazil and the West Indies from this colony; but one of Purchas's informants says that "eight and twenty thousand slaves (a number almost incredible, yet such as the Portugals told him) were yearly shipped from Angola and Congo, at the Haven of Loanda." Slave-hunting expeditions were the main, though not the only, source of supply. Battell gives an interesting account of the ceremonies attending the submission of a chief. Before he is admitted to the Governor's presence, he gives two slaves to the page, and then thirty or forty to the Governor himself, who, at the end of the interview, "calleth a soldier, which hath deserved a reward, and giveth the Lord [chief] to him. . . . So that there is no Portugal soldier of any account, but hath his negro *sova*, or Lord." It should be added that Roman Catholic missionaries of that time "never raised a protest against this traffic, although it was against the tenets of their Church, for they profited by it." For a marriage fee, for instance, "a slave was expected." "The only thing which they did for the wretched slaves was to endeavor to secure, as far as possible, that they should not fall into the hands of heretics; so that at least their souls might be saved, whatever became of their bodies."

Our seaman seems to have been an unusually observant man, and interested in the people among whom a strange fate had thrown him. Purchas naturally noted down most fully his accounts of their religious customs and fetishes, but he gives some information on a great variety of subjects. There is a tantalizing reference to "a kind of little people called Matimbas, which are no bigger than boys of twelve years old, but are very thick, and live only upon flesh, which they kill in the woods with their bows and darts." Like the pygmies of Stanley's great forest, they shunned all intercourse with their fellows, not entering their houses, and if by chance any "pass where they dwell, they will forsake that place and go to another." His strangest tale, next to that of a crocodile "so huge and greedy that he devoured a chained company of eight or nine slaves," is that of the *Pongo* or gorilla who "took a negro boy of his, which lived a month with them, for they hurt not those which they surprise at unawares, except they look on them, which he [the boy] avoided." Purchas adds, "I saw the negro boy."

The editor, Mr. E. G. Ravenstein, has contributed a large number of valuable explanatory notes to the narrative, and, in an appendix, a concise history of Kongo and Angola from the time of their discovery to the end of the seventeenth century. These show a vast amount of painstaking labor, as do also the two maps which illustrate the volume.

---

*General Forrest.* By Capt. J. Harvey Mathes. With illustrations and maps. Great Commanders. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

"And who is Nathan Bedford Forrest that he fills so large a book?" was the exclamation of a friend of the reviewer, not unfamiliar with history, but belonging to a generation to whom only the notable figures of the War for the Union were famous, as he saw the name in large letters upon the cover of an earlier and more voluminous account of the career of the Confederate cavalryman than that which Capt. Mathes has given us. The wonder thus uttered illustrates a doubt which may occur even to those who were contemporaries of that war, in application to the present volume, whether the achievements and abilities of Forrest, brilliant though they were, with possibly a genius for certain phases of military activity, entitle an officer whose operations were in a subordinate position and with comparatively small bodies of troops to be classed among the great commanders. For Forrest was, at the utmost, a highly efficient and picturesque partisan officer. It was only near the end of the war that his services in thwarting many a nicely laid scheme of the Union generals to carry the war into the fertile heart of the Confederacy, and his audacity in capturing or alarming widely scattered outposts of his adversaries, earned for him the rank of Major-General. The Confederate Government showed no disposition to call him to any high command, and it is questionable whether his temperament would have permitted him to work harmoniously in the independent command of a large force as the superior of men of nearly equal ability and ambition, such as was the average corps general.

What Forrest liked, and where he showed himself at his best, was the head of a charge, to be in the thick of assault with vigorous use of his own sabre and pistol; to ride far and long for the purpose of capturing some valuable store of supplies; to cut a line of communication, or to carry panic into the headquarters of some careless Union general snug housed in a city. In such enterprises he was inexhaustibly fertile of resource, skilful to the utmost in extricating his men from perilous plights, and not only an unceasing annoyance to department commanders and even to the Washington authorities, but a good deal of a terror to lesser personages having pretensions to military ability.

The tardiness with which recognition of his merit came from Richmond is explicable upon more probable grounds than the jealousy of his immediate superiors or the prejudice of the Confederate rulers in favor of West Point generals. Forrest belonged, socially and intellectually, to that class upon whom the rulers of the South looked with traditional contempt. He was an uneducated poor white, before the war a slave-dealer; and through his life, especially during the war and sometimes in his relations with men above him in rank with whom he had differences, he showed the manners of a state of society in which personal combat and the impulsive resort to fire-arms to avenge injuries, real or fancied, were the habitual substitute for the tedious processes of the law courts. In respect of his education, tradition, whose legend Capt. Mathes has preserved in a note, reports that, notwithstanding the intellectual discipline of participation in great affairs upon great native force of mind, his attempts at writing remained ludicrously phonetic.

Capt. Mathes has written in a spirit of which there can be no criticism unless it be that which is apt to lie against most biography, that he undertakes rather a vindication and eulogy of his hero than an impartial estimate of his place among soldiers. The story is interesting, and in no respect more profitable for the future student of the evolution of the country than in the incidental pictures of the state of society in the South, its fightings, wooings, and rude pleasures, which flourished especially in the atmosphere of negro slavery.

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*Eléments d'une Psychologie Politique du Peuple Américain.* Par Émile Boutmy. New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

We cannot say that M. Boutmy has been happy in his choice of a title. He begins by showing what a mongrel horde inhabits our country, and thus demonstrates that, even if we can speak of the American people as an entity, it is impossible that it should have a distinctive political psychology. The case was different when Tocqueville wrote, and he did in fact construct a psychology, either of the American people or of some imaginary democracy. Mr. Bryce, also, without pretending to elaborate a psychology, furnished us with a number of acute and instructive generalizations, which, perhaps, constitute as much of a political philosophy as is attainable. M. Boutmy, it is true, tells us that our patriotism, or public spirit, has "une psychologie très particulière"; there is nothing like it in France. Our motive is not the "prestige d'imagination," which forms the substance of French patriotism, but "un esprit public vigoureux, clairvoyant, tout entier dans le présent et dans les faits." But we cannot say that our knowledge is much increased by generalities of this kind. It is easy to write them; it would be hard to prove them; and they would be of very moderate scientific value even if they were established.

Not the least interesting part of M. Boutmy's essay is his criticism of the works of Tocqueville and Bryce. In his estimate of the former he agrees substantially, and sometimes almost literally, with Mr. Bryce; but it is satisfactory to get the French point of view. Of the 'American Commonwealth' M. Boutmy speaks with the greatest admiration; but at the same time he points out certain limitations. No doubt Mr. Bryce's book is not distinguished by unity; it is far from systematic. There are many gaps in it, if it be regarded as meant to cover the field completely. M. Boutmy tells us how he would have written the book had he possessed Mr. Bryce's equipment. He would have begun with the individual man, exhibiting him as he appeared at successive periods of immigration, and as influenced by various impulses. Then he would have described the environment, with its effect on the individual; and finally, the general result as it appears in various institutions. Religion, philosophy, poetry, art, and science should have been explained; the family and its members, property, corporations, State governments, and the Federal Government, should have had their development traced.

We cannot deny that a work of this description would be entertaining, but we fear that the temptation to round out theories might impair its historical value. At all events, M. Boutmy has given us nothing of the kind. His statistical and historical information is derived from sources within our reach, the trustworthiness of which we can estimate, perhaps, better than he. His long disquisition on "Religion and the Ideal," and his short one on "Imperialism and the Constitution," appear to us uninstructive, if not superficial. The really valuable part of the book is that which explains the difference in the attitude toward their rulers of the French and the American citizens. To the Frenchman, the Government is a higher organism, on which he depends for protection against invasion from abroad and molestation at home. He regards it with awe, and submits to it without question. But the first settlers in America brought with them little reverence for rulers, and took care of themselves without the aid of Government. The tradition that rulers are merely servants of the people, chosen to carry out certain specific purposes, and possessed of no more wisdom than their fellow-citizens, has affected the whole framework of our Government, and is still potent. There is no tradition of the kind in France, because there is no historical basis for it. The political history of that country is little but a record of the development of despotic power, the nature of which is the same, whether the Government be called kingdom, empire, or republic.

In the development of the contrasts arising from these differences in political forces, M. Boutmy is at his best. If we do not understand ourselves much better than before, we get clearer views of the French system. He justly criticises our municipal governments; but here he falls into an inconsistency. If these governments are regulated by the State, how is it in France? How much can the people of a commune accomplish if the Prefect opposes them? M. Boutmy is amazed at the restrictions placed on our legislators, but the explanation is to be found in the existence of local self-government. The people of a New England town do not want to have their management of their own affairs interfered with by the Legislature; hence the restraints of our constitutions. In France the people of a commune are not allowed, and never have been allowed, to govern themselves, and they are consequently ignorant of the elementary principles of government. The subject is interesting, and we should be grateful if M. Boutmy would pursue it further. But we think that he can teach us more of his country than of ours.

---

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Campbell, George. A Revolution in the Science of Cosmology. Topeka (Kan.): Crane & Co.
Chiswell, Francis. Key to the Rules of the Stock Exchange. London: Effingham Wilson.
Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Seventh Series, Vol. II. Trumbull Papers. Boston: Published by the Society.
Fernald, J. C. The Concise Standard Dictionary. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60c.
Griffin, A. P. C. List of References on Reciprocity. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Hall, Hubert. Society in the Elizabethan Age. 3d ed. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Hooper, W. W. That Minister's Boy. Brooklyn: Published by the Author.
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Jastrow, Morris, jr. Die Religion Babyloniens und Assyriens. Giessen: J. Ricker.
Keating, Geoffrey. The History of Ireland, Vol. I. Edited by David Comyn. London: David Nutt.
Kennard, Mrs. Edward. The Golf Lunatic and his Cycling Wife. Brentano's.
Kenyon, J. B. Remembered Days. Eaton & Mains. $1.
McCutcheon, G. B. Castle Craneycrow. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Murray, J. A. H. The Oxford English Dictionary. Vol. VII. O-Onomastic. H. Frowde. $1.20.
Myers, A. C. Quaker Arrivals at Philadelphia, 1682-1750. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.
O'Sullivan, Vincent. A Dissertation upon Second Fiddles. London: Grant Richards. 5s.
Pallen, C. B. The Death of Sir Launcelot, and Other Poems. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Pierson, A. T. The Garden Knot. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 60 cents.
Quilter, H. H. Onward and Upward. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Raju, P. V. R. Indian Fables. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Read, Opie. The Starbucks. Chicago: Laird & Lee. $1.50.
Ridgeway, Major. Early Recollections of James Whitcomb Riley. Harrison (Ohio): Published by the Author. 50c.
Roberts, Morley. The Way of a Man. D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Roddy, H. J. Elementary Geography. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Sandys, Miles. Michael Carmichael. Chicago: Laird & Lee. $1.25.
Sanford, Fernando. Elements of Physics. H. Holt & Co. $1.20.
Sill, Edward Rowland. Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Simons, A. M. The American Farmer. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Taylor, F. L. Second Reader. Werner School Book Co.
Taylor, J. H. Taylor on Golf. D. Appleton & Co. $1.60.
"The Georgian Period." Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work, Part X. American Architect and Building News.
The Jewish Encyclopædia, vol. ii. Funk & Wagnalls Co.
The Works of Théophile Gautier, Vols. XVII. and XVIII. George D. Sproul.
Waldron, W. H. Company Commanders' Manual of Army Regulations. Kansas City (Mo.): Hudson-Kimberly Pub. Co.


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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 21, 1902.*

## The Week.

It is apparently a choice of rumors, as regards the President's determination to call the Senate in extra session for the purpose of ratifying a treaty of reciprocity with Cuba. It is said that Mr. Roosevelt hopes to get a popular mandate in the November elections which will bring his Republican opponents to their senses. But how can clear instructions come out of a campaign which is essentially muddled and at cross-purposes on this subject? The Republican campaign book is absolutely silent about Cuba. In different districts, different views are taken by Republican candidates. If an unexpectedly sweeping Democratic victory should occur, it would, indeed, emphasize the general disgust with Republican shortcomings, in the Cuban matter and otherwise; but the President cannot be hoping for that! Short of it, however, we do not see how the elections can be of much aid to his Cuban policy. If he has assurances that a good treaty could be put through the Senate, it might expedite the business to have an extra session in November; though, of course, the House would have to act later. The only certain thing in connection with all these conflicting reports is, that they will renew the hopes of the Cubans. It would, therefore, be a peculiarly heartless proceeding to put them in circulation unless there is a firm intention to do justly by Cuba in the end.

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The Detroit *Free Press*, the leading Democratic newspaper of Michigan, an opponent of Expansion and Imperialism from the start, regards this whole matter as eliminated from the present Congressional campaign by reason of Mr. Roosevelt's course during the last few months. So far as the question of cruelty toward the natives on the part of our troops is concerned, the *Free Press* holds that the President "has taken it out of the field of political controversy by his unqualified condemnation of acts of savagery on the part of the comparatively few offenders in the army, and particularly by his stinging reproof of Gen. Smith"; while on the larger issue of the permanent retention of the islands, "again the President spiked the guns of the enemy by leaving this an open question and displaying an admirable conservatism." The result of all this, in the opinion of this Anti-Imperialist Democratic journal, is that there is "no such living issue as militarism or Imperialism" in the present campaign; and this change from the situation of a few months ago it ascribes chiefly to the line of action adopted by the Republican President. Of course the *Free Press* does not regard the Philippine question as permanently settled, but only as temporarily removed from the field of partisan controversy during the present Congressional campaign by Mr. Roosevelt's course. This is an impressive tribute to the influence which the Executive may wield as the leader of his party.

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The same thing is illustrated at the same time in the current discussion of another question—that of Cuban reciprocity. Nobody can have studied the course of Republican State and Congressional conventions in the Middle West, the past few weeks, without becoming convinced that it is the personal attitude of Mr. Roosevelt toward this matter which is largely responsible for the general endorsement of the policy. It is equally noticeable that the "insurgent" Representatives and Senators, who stood out against it, like Mr. Tawney of Minnesota, are now most anxious to make their constituents believe that they really approve the President's position. The feeling of many Republicans about this matter appears to be well expressed by a Minnesota member of the party, who says: "We don't know anything about this Cuban question ourselves, nor care anything about it, but the President says we ought to give the Cubans reciprocity, and that's enough for us."

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Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, whose versatility inevitably suggests comparison with the "lightning-change" artists of stageland, appears in a new rôle. For the current *National Magazine* he has written an article in which he sets forth just how much liberty the new Philippines Civil Government Law confers upon our Asiatic subjects. Aside from the intrinsic literary merit of the article, its especial value arises from the fact that, while this law was in process of construction, Senator Lodge advocated a number of extremely obnoxious provisions, which even the House would not stand for. As a result, it forced the present measure upon the Senator and the Senate. The appropriateness of the Senator's now setting forth the beneficent character of the law must therefore be plain to all. The best that can be said about the law by any one is that it contains a step towards Filipino self-government, and does away with government by military men. The proposed Philippine Assembly is, however, vaguely set for an indefinite future, and might even be permanently held up. As for the rest, the law will be no serious obstacle to syndicates which wish to get land, by hook or by crook, or to the hungry promoters and advance agents who have sat longingly in Manila these several years with their eyes on the mines and land which rightfully belong to the Filipinos alone.

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It is only necessary to observe the temper of the campaign in Vermont, where the three-cornered contest for the Governorship is blazing daily and nightly, to understand why Secretary Shaw's attempt to discuss national issues there failed to find attentive listeners. The Montpelier *Journal*, which is supporting Gen. McCullough, the regular Republican nominee, thus describes Mr. Clement, the independent candidate: "Riding in a private car, surrounded by every luxury the heart can ask for, backed by wealth untold, a snob, an aristocrat, Percival W. Clement deludes himself with the impression that his charming personality, associated with his erratic characteristics, will win the votes of the majority of the workingmen of Vermont." To this the Rutland *Herald*, which upholds Mr. Clement's side of the argument, cheerfully retorts that the *Journal* is urging the election of a candidate "from whom you could not draw a plea of 'not guilty' to charges of political bribing, even if you used a log chain and a yoke of stags." Another newspaper, the *Vermont Watchman*, a McCullough organ, alleges that Mr. Clement discharged men employed on railroad construction because they would not work for a dollar a day. It calls upon Mr. Clement to answer this charge, but declares that he cannot, because "in his own soul he knows that the truth will punch another big hole in his balloon, which will collapse like the soap bubble it is." Altogether it seems clear that from now until September 2 it will be difficult to get the voters of the Green Mountain State to take interest in the details of the tariff or the need of Cuban reciprocity.

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Editors and judges in some Southern States continue to do their duty by speaking out plainly whenever a case of lynching occurs. A few days ago, a mob took from the jail at Leesburg, Va., and hanged a negro who had killed a prominent white citizen and was awaiting trial for the crime, with every prospect of prompt conviction and execution. The worst feature of the affair was the fact that the mob consisted largely of men of standing and education, and that they acted with deliberation after refusing to heed earnest appeals from preachers and laymen to let the law take its course. Judge Tebbs has charged the grand jury to investigate what he pronounces "a crime of unexampled magnitude, at least in this community, and of far-reaching consequence, a reproach to our people and a foul blot on the hitherto unstained

escutcheon of Loudoun." The Judge properly scored those most to blame—"men whom we should expect to find upholding and maintaining, ready to fight for, even to die for, the laws and rights and government so dear to their ancestors; and these men were the leaders in needless violence, in rank lawlessness." The Richmond *Times* heartily applauds the action of Judge Tebbs, and asks if Virginians can contemplate such a lynching without a shudder. "It all comes back to this," concludes the *Times:* "Either the law must be supreme or the mob will rule. The mob was in full control of Leesburg on the day that Charles Craven was lynched, and the law was trampled under foot. The flag of Old Virginia went down in the dust, and the black flag of the mob was held high."

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There appeared in the July number of the *Atlantic Monthly* an article entitled "The Negro: Another View," which has attracted no little attention North and South, and which has had very serious consequences for the author, Prof. Andrew Sledd of Emory College, Georgia. In itself the article cannot be said to be strikingly original. It is merely a very able restatement of certain fundamental facts in regard to the rights of the negro as a human being which have often been brought out before, generally by Northern students of the negro problem. But Professor Sledd is a Southerner, born and bred, and a teacher of Southern youth. Hence his opinions, since they are in a large measure severely critical of the Southern white man in his relation to the negro, have created a sensation throughout the South, and Professor Sledd has resigned in order that Emory College may not suffer by the odium which he has incurred. The intense feeling against him is all the more noticeable because he begins his paper by laying down the Southern doctrine of the hopeless inferiority of the negro. It is radical and inherent, he declares, and "cannot be erased without the lapse of indefinite time." The doctrine of the amalgamation of the races, which he thinks some Northerners have advanced, fills him with horror. Speaking of the general question, he declares that Northern writers have theorized about conditions which they did not understand "with a bitter and undiscriminating zeal." These hardly read like the words of a Northerner or one taking a partisan Northern view of the situation. But they have not prevented his being denounced as a "Boston nigger-equality citizen." This class of vermin "shan't live in the South," declares a letter from Georgia received by the editor of the *Atlantic*, who is likewise told that he had "better keep this class of Boston citizens in Boston."

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The present Governor of Arkansas, who is running for reëlection, and a Republican candidate for the same office, have been holding a series of "joint debates," in which they called each other such names as "pie-hunter," "renegade," "liar," "thief," and "murderer." At last they grew so angry that at Siloam Springs, the other day, they started for each other on the speakers' stand, and only the prompt interference of the town marshal prevented a fist fight in public between the Chief Executive of the State and the man who aspires to succeed him. In South Carolina the Democratic candidates for the United States Senate are canvassing the State, presenting their own claims and exposing the weakness of their rivals. John J. Hemphill, formerly a Representative in Congress, and Asbury C. Latimer, now a Representative, appeared together in Gaffney last week, and soon drifted into a controversy which ended in Latimer's striking Hemphill a hard blow in the face, and Hemphill's attempt to hit back, when the crowd rushed between them. A few weeks ago, Senator Bailey of Texas made a physical assault upon Senator Beveridge of Indiana while the latter was sitting in his chair, for a remark in debate which was entirely warranted. A few weeks before that, Senators Tillman and McLaurin of South Carolina had a fight on the floor of the Senate. This sort of thing demands the serious attention of the Southern people, and particularly of editors, clergymen, and other leaders of public opinion.

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It was, of course, certain that, sooner or later, the Tammany squabbles would break out into charges and countercharges of manipulation and fraud. "Set a thief to catch a thief" is a good maxim, not only because he knows the tricks of the trade, but also because he is not in danger of placing too much confidence in anybody. Doubtless enrolment frauds have been practised in many of the districts; it would be astonishing if it were not so wherever the sordid strife between the Tammany factions is going on. And where illegal practices are discovered, they should be punished with the utmost severity, for the value of our primary system depends on its provisions being enforced with the same rigor and strictness as the laws governing the actual election. It must be remembered, however, that there is a certain amount of so-called colonization, both for primary and for election purposes, which the law is powerless to prevent in any great city where there is a large floating population but lightly attached to any particular district or vicinity. The law permits persons who enrolled in one district in the fall to move to another district and transfer their enrolment up to a certain date in the early summer. Similarly the election law, while requiring a residence of four months in the county, requires but thirty days' residence in the election district, and in both cases it is not illegal for a party to move its less settled element about into districts where it is "needed." All that can be done is to see that the legal requirements are fully complied with. It seems unfortunate that this should be true, but it is open to question whether or not any remedy which could be proposed would not be worse than the disease. The arguments which were advanced last spring against the bill abolishing the spring enrolment, and which caused the Governor to veto it, were certainly very strong. A primary law is at its best when it permits and encourages a large enrolment, and, despite the present Tammany recriminations, the addition of 35,000 names last spring was a distinct gain. Nothing which has thus far been brought out indicates that more than an insignificant part of this large total was even tainted with fraud.

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Evidence of the superior morality and healthfulness of the Jews is furnished almost simultaneously in New York city and in Manchester, England. At the recent meeting of the British Medical Association, Dr. J. M. Rhodes read a paper on infant mortality, which drew a shocking picture of the situation in Lancashire generally, and in Manchester particularly. Infant mortality in that city reaches the appalling proportions of 198 per thousand, which means that one child in every five born dies before it is one year old, whereas even in London the proportion is only 154. But there is one district, Cheetham, which is largely occupied by Jews, and here the death rate is but 124—less than two-thirds of the average for all the districts. Dr. Maurice Fishberg, an East Side physician, has recently studied the mortality statistics for New York city with reference to races, and finds that the densely populated wards which are largely inhabited by Russian Jews — the Seventh, Tenth, Eleventh, and Thirteenth—had an average death-rate of only 15.92 when that for the whole city was 18.53; while in two where the population is almost exclusively Jewish, the figures sank to 14.52 and 14.23. Dr. Rhodes lays stress upon the general freedom from drunkenness among the Jews of Manchester as an important element in the case, and Dr. Fishberg reports that they are generally temperate here, although he finds that alcoholism is increasing among the younger generation, "who are adopting the habits and customs of life of their Gentile neighbors."

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President Cantor's recommendation of a commission to plan for the artistic development of the Borough of Manhattan is worthy of the most favorable consideration. Such a commission, working in harmony with all the municipal departments, would, first of all, take

a survey of the present condition of the island, and then would prepare a plan to which public improvements for many years to come would adapt themselves. The Municipal Art Commission, which already serves the city admirably in an advisory capacity, has no authority except to pass upon individual improvements, so that it could not well undertake this large task. We need not say that such a commission should be carefully chosen from the most enlightened citizens, should be large enough to represent the various elements of the city, and should include laymen as well as artists. Certain immediate needs of the situation, and opportunities for a general commission, President Cantor points out in his quarterly report. There is the problem of housing the executive department about City Hall Park; here President Cantor advocates the costly, but, we believe, the only satisfactory plan of razing everything upon the square except the City Hall, and building on Chambers Street from the Hall of Records to Broadway. Another problem which offers peculiar opportunities for an architect is the relocation and rearrangement of the city markets. In general, President Cantor's position that no such change should be made without regard to the attractiveness and convenience of the city as a whole, is a sound one. We hope that he will get his commission, and that it will have sufficient authority to enforce the principle of foresight against that of haphazard improvement.

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A change in the Presidency of the United States Steel Corporation may easily be given more importance by the public, and even in financial quarters, than it really deserves. As head merely of the Carnegie plant, Mr. Schwab may well have seemed almost indispensable. But the work of minute management and control becomes impossible for any single man when so many and such vast properties are consolidated as we see now united in the Steel Trust, and Mr. Schwab must have long since turned over the larger part of this to competent subordinates. His real duties have been those of what has been called a "financial statesman"; and as such the general verdict is probably not far wrong in considering him not highly successful. Not merely his Monte Carlo imprudence, but a somewhat marked tendency to indulge in glitter, has given to his public appearances an air of not exactly that staid sobriety and poise which the figure-head of a $1,400,000,000 corporation should exemplify. If, therefore, he should now be forced by ill health or for any other reason to resign his office, he would but create a vacancy which could be filled by another man without any shock or injury to the interests of the Steel Trust.

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After the evidence brought out on Friday in regard to the Northern Securities suits, there can be no doubt that dummy stockholders were shamefully used to bring an action purely for stock-jobbing purposes. This fact is now well established, to the serious smirching of the reputation of those who lent their names to the affair. But other facts remain just what they were. One is, that the Attorney-General of the United States has moved in the Federal courts to test the legality of the Northern Securities merger. There can be no question of interested motives, in that instance. Only grave considerations of law and of public policy could have actuated the Department of Justice to take so serious a step. The other thing to remember is, that such "strike" suits as have now been exposed would not have been hatched had not it been thought an open question whether the Northern Securities Company were not proceeding in violation of at least the spirit of the law.

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No American can hear the names of De Wet and Botha and Delarey without in some fashion reviving boyhood memories of "The Song of Marion's Men," and, if the English have no such close analogue to these partisan chieftains, they, none the less, are giving them a splendid and wholly spontaneous ovation. The case is surely rare in history—the generals of a beaten nation passing freely within a few months of their surrender among their conquerors, and everywhere greeted with courtesies from the Government and cheers from the populace. It is hard to believe that it is the same English people which, only two years ago, had no word too bitter and contemptuous for the defenders of the veldt. One may feel sure that the warmth of the Boer leaders' reception rests upon something more substantial than the mere good nature which victory brings. If only the joy of success were involved, the visit of the Boer generals would be merely the final adornment of a triumph. Such an idea, it is safe to say, has occurred to no Englishman, from King to costermonger, and the spontaneous tribute of admiration to these brave foes does much to condone a former bitterness which was wholly un-English. One would like to credit the report—if an invention, a happy one—that the King, on receiving the generals, spoke of the humanity with which the Boers had treated wounded British prisoners. But whatever may have been the terms of the meeting on board the royal yacht, it is certain that the dignified, manly, and loyal attitude of the Boer chieftains will remove any lingering doubts as to the temper of their people, while the frankly expressed admiration of the English people for a foe whose worth they have dearly learned, will go far to convince the Boers that they may count unquestioningly upon the generosity of their conquerors. In this way a popular enthusiasm—a case rare indeed—ministers to high statesmanship.

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The ovation given to Lieut. Hildebrandt of the German army on his release from a brief confinement in a fortress, for the murder of a fellow-officer in a duel, is nothing less than shocking. Lieut. Hildebrandt's victim, it will be remembered, met his death for having "insulted" this brother officer when intoxicated. His apology went for nothing, and he was killed to satisfy the regimental "honor." The responsibility for the continuance of these savage practices rests with the Emperor personally. True, he has issued several orders against duelling, but whenever he has had a flagrant case like this one before him, he has nullified the orders and encouraged the practice by imposing light sentences or mitigating those awarded by the military tribunals. His power in the matter is absolute. Were he to make only one speech giving to duelling its proper name and character, and declaring that he would withhold his favor from any officer abetting it, the present state of affairs would be ended forthwith. It was only the other day that we were able to praise his speech against excessive drinking among students in the German universities. But his voice has never been raised against the demoralizing routs, of frequent occurrence in almost every officers' club, which often have just such tragic endings as that in which Hildebrandt figured.

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As was to have been expected, the Emperor's dispatch to the Prince Regent of Bavaria offering to pay the Bavarian appropriation for fine arts has stirred up a veritable hornet's nest. The Vienna *Allgemeine Zeitung*, in calling him the "Telegraph Kaiser," has given him a name which will stick, just as the term "Travel Kaiser" has clung to him since he first began his flying trips in all directions. A large part of the Munich press finds it a peculiarly trying case of purely gratuitous interference in the domestic concerns of a sovereign state. There is every likelihood that the telegram will give rise to some frank talk in the Diet, and that it will strengthen the already too-powerful Centre in its opposition to the Prussian and Protestant influences, as well as the Separatist feeling which has never even begun to die out in Bavaria as it has elsewhere. The Emperor has steadily strengthened his reputation in the last four years by his growing conservatism and marked ability in appreciating the needs and opportunities of the Empire. It is, therefore, the more astonishing that, by so hasty and ill-considered an action, he should have deeply offended a part of the Empire where conciliation and a proper tolerance are especially called for.

*DREAMS OF EUROPEAN FEDERATION.*

Another German professor is just reported as believing that Europe will be forced into an economic federation to withstand the United States. His plea recalls an interesting study by the Russian Novikoff of "United Italy" as a model for his cherished plan of European federation. His article appeared in a recent number of the *Vita Internazionale*, and the writer begins with a bird's-eye view of Italy about the middle of the fifteenth century. The twenty states into which that country was divided resembled the division of the modern political states of Europe in their varying differences as to wealth, power, civilization, and geographical extent. The kingdom of Naples, with its extensive boundaries, but an archaic and unprogressive government and a population miserably circumstanced despite a fertile soil, greatly resembled modern Russia. The Florentine republic derived its immense power from its wealth and its industrial and commercial conditions. It was the centre of active capital, not less than of art. Its resemblance to the France of to-day is striking. The duchy of Milan in the north, with its rich and well-cultivated Lombard fields and the constant conquests of its rulers, the Visconti, occupied in Italy a position not unlike that of Germany in the Europe of to-day. On the other hand, Venice, whose strength lay in its sea power, bore a strong resemblance to modern England, while the Genoese Republic, in its small size, its vast possessions, and its important commerce, reminds us of modern Holland. These, with the Papal States, constituted the five "Great Powers" of Italy, around which the others gravitated.

The political tendencies of these Cinquecentist states of Italy, whether republican or monarchical, were all towards territorial expansion or conquest, which is the political spirit of modern Europe. France looks longingly to the Rhine; Austria to Servia and Macedonia; Germany has her eyes on the Baltic provinces, which are Russian, and Russia hers on Galicia, which is Austrian. Such a spirit of expansion, in the fifteenth century as to-day, sought an outlet in distant places whenever checked at home. Venice and Genoa fought their hardest fight for the commercial supremacy of the Black Sea, on the economic sophistry, so honored even in our time, that the prosperity of one people can be achieved only by shutting off competition and causing detriment to another. Hence to-day we see Europe fighting for the markets of the East.

Territorial expansion at home, on the part of the larger states of Italy against the smaller ones, was checked by the same method which we call the "balance of power" in European politics. When the Visconti sought to extend their dominions, they were met by the coalition of Venice, Florence, Savoy, and Naples —the same in essence as that of Prussia, Austria, Russia, and England, which, centuries later, curbed the ambitions of France. By 1450 it became clear that there could be no "universal monarchy" in Italy, as no single state had the power to conquer the others. Thereupon wars of conquest, as was natural, ceased. A sort of equilibrium was tacitly established, and the conquest of the weak by the strong, such as that of Siena by Florence, became more and more difficult. A similar condition was reached by Europe about 1870, when its component parts seem to have settled into irreducible units. Through the necessities of the balance of power, none of the great states can ever hope, and hence none aims, to absorb the lesser ones.

With the elimination of the forces of territorial expansion at home, the Italian states after 1450 began to develop friendly relations among themselves. Means of communication in the peninsula increased, commerce became diversified, and capital circulated more widely. Artists and literary men travelled from place to place. Italy had but one literary language and a common civilization. Hence grew the feeling that Italians were all bound together by a community of political, intellectual, and economic interests which distinguished them from other people, such as the French or the German. We see a similar condition in modern Europe. There is to-day an enormous exchange of merchandise and capital among its states. Men and ideas circulate rapidly. It takes about as long to go from London to St. Petersburg, Vienna, or Berlin to-day as it took in the fifteenth century to travel from Venice to Milan, to Florence, or to Rome. Likewise, all Europe has a sense of solidarity in its common civilization which differentiates it strongly from the Asiatic nations.

It must be remembered, however, that though bound together by intellectual ties, the Italians of the Cinquecento had no thought and no desire for political union; and, indeed, looked upon such a possibility as a great calamity. It was an age of brute force, which could not imagine political unity except by the Roman method of conquest and the consequent destruction of liberty. Moreover, great lovers of art and science as they were, they had learned that violent annexation always resulted in the death of intellectual culture. But the day came when Italians saw that their hope of progress and greatness lay in the complete union of their peoples. At a fearfully bloody cost this was obtained, and modern tendencies helped to fuse the five great powers of Italy into one. Has such union resulted in those evils which her statesmen of the Cinquecento saw in such an event? Venetian and Genoese ships carry their commerce without detriment to each other, and each city has advantages of its own as a port of entry to the benefit of both. Nor has the much dreaded abolition of customs duties between Italian states affected the national production. Tuscany, Piedmont, and the other principalities endeavored when they were separate entities, by governmental means, to diminish imports and increase exports. Who regulates commerce there to-day? Economic laws, which work magnificently and which increase the national wealth.

The statesmen of Europe to-day are troubled by the fears of their Cinquecentist brethren in Italy. They imagine that European federation will mean the annihilation of the liberties of each state; that the establishment of juridic relations between them will be the beginning of the end. What, asks Novikoff, made Italy one? It was that the ideas of the fifteenth century gave way to better ones. When the foreign invaders brought destruction into their land, patriots and statesmen understood that, if Italy had been united, this could never have been. This idea gradually became a passion and ideal of the people, and Italy was made one. So will it be, Novikoff claims, with European federation. The misery of the proletariat will be found remediable only through the union of civilized peoples. Such union, however, will not be—and no reasonable man would wish it—on such intimate lines as that of Italy. "It will not be a 'Pan-European monarchy,' but a federation in which national characteristics of language, customs, religion, law, literature, and art will mean only the establishment, outside and above the various national governments, of a common institution which will assure the independence, the security, and the welfare of all states."

*EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.*

In a recent number of the *Independent* Mr. James A. Le Roy, private secretary to Professor Worcester of the Philippine Commission, makes an authoritative concise statement of what has been attempted and what accomplished among the Filipinos along educational lines. This is the twelfth month since eight hundred American teachers began the work of making English the national language of the Filipinos. To expect great results in this short period would be to demand the impossible, even if the undertaking were an easy one. But so important an educational enterprise will repay watching at every stage of its progress.

Dr. Atkinson, the "General Superintendent of Public Instruction," early divided the archipelago into eighteen districts for the purposes of his highly centralized school system. Each one of these divisions is presided over by a trained educator from the United States, who is in turn at the head of a cen-

tralized free public-school system. Commissioner Bernard Moses is Secretary for the Department of Education, and therefore the supreme head in matters scholastic. But Dr. Atkinson outlines the courses of instruction and determines the kind of school buildings to be constructed, while his division superintendents name their teachers and fix their salaries. Some attempts have been made to give the Filipinos representation in an advisory or auxiliary way by appointing two or three in a district to places on local school boards. The central Government assumes a large share of the cost of the system, and pays the American teachers at the rate of $1,200,000 a year, while it distributes English readers, geographies, copy-books, arithmetics, slates, United States flags and halliards, and many other incidentals of education in wholesale lots. The towns must supply the buildings and furniture and pay the native teachers their modest ten or fifteen dollars a month, which are received without complaint of the higher salaries of the American pedagogues.

The latter spend four hours a day in teaching the children—largely through the sign language, we presume—give one hour of instruction to the native teachers, and instruct night schools in which governors of provinces, presidents of towns, and all classes are found enrolled. In Manila the five night schools have an attendance of over 2,000 an evening, and the enrolments of all the schools increase steadily, despite the statements in the publications of the friars that the United States is spending its money for nothing. It is noteworthy, too, that Dr. Atkinson finds the Filipino children "unquestionably quicker to learn on the average" than American children, which is largely due to their maturing so much earlier. But the attendance in the day schools leaves much to be desired, for "crops, weather, pupils' disinclination, or parents' wants" are responsible for many absentees—some 60 per cent. of the total enrolment at times.

Dr. Atkinson has wisely not attempted to start more than one high school until his primary schools are well under way, despite the fact that what the Filipinos cry for is colleges and universities. "There is not yet," Mr. Le Roy explains, "a general and intelligent comprehension of popular education, of the genius of a republican free-school system." But one grammar or high school has begun work in Manila, and others are being started or planned in the various provincial capitals. Every school is to have some manual training, and a manual training institution in Manila is to be under the charge of a special superintendent already on the ground. Agricultural schools, too, are planned. In short, "the aim is to bring the Philippine educational system eventually into harmony and affiliation with our system at home," and it is plain that the frame of such an educational structure is being rapidly erected.

To many people, Mr. Le Roy says, the ultimate success of the undertaking would seem to lie in the solution of the question whether the Malay mind has or has not definite limitations, and whether its processes are the reverse of our own, as is contended, or the same. Dr. Barrows, one of the American officials, speaking for the Manila native instructors, says: "I am confident that they will shortly be found to be a competent and deserving band of teachers." To us, however, the really vital question is whether the whole attempt to force the language of the Anglo-Saxons upon the Filipino people is not, to speak plainly, a farce. While ready to concede altruistic motives to the Administration in rushing its eight hundred American teachers to the Philippines, we must none the less challenge its wisdom. Mr. Le Roy cites the fact that, after 300 years of Spanish rule, only 5 per cent. of the civilized natives use Spanish in their homes, as an argument against attempting to teach the Filipinos through a Latin tongue. In his 'Psychology of Peoples,' written before Dewey sailed into Manila Bay, Gustave Le Bon examines every historic instance in which the grafting of the language of a masterful people upon a weak one has been attempted. "The most powerful means of action at the disposal of Europeans—education, institutions, beliefs," he declares, were absolutely inefficacious "as a means of changing the social state of the inferior peoples." He then says:

> "Since all the elements of a civilization correspond to a certain well-defined mental constitution created by heredity in the course of a long past, it is impossible to modify them without changing the mental constitution of which they are the outcome. Such a task is beyond the power of conquerors, and can be accomplished only by the lapse of centuries. We have shown that it is only by a series of successive stages, analogous to those traversed by the barbarians who destroyed Græco-Roman civilization, that a people can rise in the scale of civilization. If it be sought, by means of education, to spare a people these stages, all that is done is to disorganize its morality and its intelligence, and to reduce it in the end to a level inferior to that it would have reached if it had been left to itself."

It must be noted, too, that the English have, neither in Egypt, in India, nor in South Africa, attempted to force their language on the peoples under their control. Even the Boers are to be allowed to keep their form of speech and to have their Dutch teachers and schools. In our own Porto Rico we have built up and encouraged the Spanish schools, while giving opportunities to those who desire to acquire English. In a few years it will be possible to see whether in turning our back on these examples, instead of going more slowly and educating the Filipinos in their own tongues, we have been able to demonstrate our ability to succeed where all other conquering nations have failed.

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### *THE ART OF UNLOADING.*

Ordinary people may be excused for a certain bewilderment in contemplating the operations of "high finance" nowadays. Even a plain man can understand what Disraeli called "the sweet simplicity of the three per cents"; but when it comes to such complicated flotations of variegated securities as we are now seeing every day, the enormous mass of them, with their intricate methods, might well make the observer cry out, with the seller of revenue stamps who was perplexed at Mr. Gladstone's alterations of the law, "He is too much for my head." Yet the patient spectator gets now and then a gleam. He perceives a sort of *rationale* running through all the manipulation of watered securities. Perhaps he cannot quite put the thing in words himself, but he joyfully sees the point when some veteran banker or experienced broker tells him privately, "Yes, my son, you are on the right track. The whole art of hundred-million finance is the art of unloading."

As razors of the tale were not made to shave but to sell, so the highly capitalized industries of the day are primarily intended to unload. Only last week, for example, we read of the successful disposal of the Bethlehem Steel Company to the United States Shipbuilding Company. We are not bound to accept the published figures of the sale as literally correct. The water may have been 40 or 60 per cent., the paper profits $5,000,000 or $20,000,000; the principle remains the same. It is, that the owner of the Bethlehem Company did not acquire it to hold or operate, but to dispose of. His original intention, unless all the reports at the time were misleading, was to unload it on the United States Steel Corporation. But *dis aliter visum*, which, being interpreted, means that Morgan would not have it. Thereupon, the ingenious seller discovered that the corporation which really needed his plant was the Ship-building, not the Steel Trust. Mr. Schwab cleverly adopted the verse of Matthew Prior, with slight alterations, and sang:

> "The merchant, to secure his treasure,
> Conveys it in a borrowed name;
> The Steel Trust serves to grace my measure,
> But Ship-building's my real flame."

But, of course, the final unloading has to be done on the investing public, and there's the rub. It is all very well for corporations and banks to pass on the inflated securities from one to the other, but all is in unstable equilibrium unless a final resting-place be found in the small purchaser, who cannot, in turn, unload. So the great quest of speculative finance is the private investor: the widow with small savings; the clergyman with a tidy sum laid up for a rainy day; the executor with trust

funds to place where they will yield a secure return for the orphans under his guardianship. "Oh, that I knew where I might find him," is the sigh of the would-be unloader, longing for the small buyer in great numbers but not of too great perspicacity. The art of running him down, of soothing him, and of inducing him to take a part of the load on his unsuspecting shoulders—he who has thoroughly mastered that strategy is the true Napoleon of finance, for he alone is in a position to reap the ultimate fruits of victory. Of what avail is it to have heaps upon heaps of common stock, which you got as a bonus, unless you can unload?

Unfortunately, there are sometimes too many unloaders. This leads to very curious results. Concerns with much watered stock which they are anxious to part with, have been known to say hard things of new consolidations that suddenly come forward to throw their fresh mass of securities upon the market. It is like confusing gudgeons with too great a profusion of bait. How can the stupid creatures be expected to bite if they see tempting morsels dangled on every side? The suddenly conservative views about the folly of overdoing the business, which some speculators have developed, are not a little comic. They are indignant at the reckless overcapitalization of other enterprises, as long as their own diluted stocks remain unsold. They are eloquent on the insensate course of disturbing the money market, and straining the absorptive power of the purchasing public, by attempting to float fresh millions of securities before their own are unloaded. Such jealousies are, however, natural in the celestial minds of promoters. When they fairly jostle each other in their eagerness to find a safe place to dump their loads, they can scarcely be expected to agree like birds in their little nest. All that we say is that if these recriminations between the loaded are leading to sounder financial views, a general breakdown in the vast plans of unloading (and it is not impossible) would do still more to promote saner and more stable conditions.

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### *AIDS TO GENTILITY.*

Prof. William James, in his recently published Gifford lectures on 'The Varieties of Religious Experience,' reduces the typical religious experience to the following ultimate formulas:

> "(1.) An uneasiness.
> "(2.) Its solution.
> "(1.) The uneasiness, reduced to its simplest terms, is a sense that there is something wrong with us as we naturally stand.
> "(2.) The solution is a sense that we are saved from the wrongness by making proper connection with the higher powers."

Since receiving a three-volume work on 'Correct Social Usage' and perusing the circular of the New York Society of Self-Culture, which publishes this treatise and issues certificates of membership at a price, it has come home to us forcibly that the processes of social and of religious regeneration are strikingly similar. We proceed, in the interests of both sciences, to develop the analogies. Perfect frankness requires us to state at the outset the single striking difference between social progress as displayed in the circular before us and religious progress as analyzed by Professor James. He represents man as feeling spontaneously an "uneasiness," and as trying to strike hands with the "higher powers"; in the case before us it is the "higher powers" who try to produce "an uneasiness" among the socially unregenerate, and to seek a connection with the uneasy which is symbolized in possession of the book and in membership of the New York Society of Self-Culture. Since, then, the initiative comes from these higher powers, their authority should, first of all, be weighed.

A very little scrutiny suffices to establish it beyond cavil. Of the sixteen authors of 'Correct Social Usage' only two are men. But one of them is "the best dressed clergyman in New York and Newport" (evidently two shrines) "and one of the lineage aristocrats of America"; the other is "a New York clubman and the famous 'Him' of *Vogue*." What mythus lies *perdu* in this "Him" we must, pending further investigation of the deeper mysteries of this polytheism, decline to elucidate. That it is a most respectable one, the more circumstantial description of the feminine higher powers fully assures us. One is a "dictator of social form," another is a "poet of the household," a third a "famous woman orator," still another a "famous author, poet, and interpreter of human nature." Finally, to shorten the list, one is the "leader of the musical smart set in New York." Enough is said to prove that this cult has higher powers of no mean authority.

The method by which the higher powers bring about an "uneasiness," which in turn induces a desire to become possessed of 'Correct Social Usage' and to be enrolled under the banner of self-culture, is notable for its simplicity and directness. The Society publishes, immediately before the details of its certificate and fees, an elaborate *questionnaire*, with the challenge: "Can you answer these questions correctly? Try." The implication, which he who runs may read, is: If you can answer all these questions, you are a just person who needs no repentance—*anima naturaliter urbana;* if you cannot, you need the aid of the higher powers. The whole process is not unlike what the Puritans and their descendants call "searching of soul." A thoughtful reading of these questions is an infallible purge for social pride. "If one of your family should die, do you know how you should want the funeral conducted?" Few could answer this on the spur of the moment, and the late Judge Hoar's cynical solution of staying away, but "approving of it heartily," cannot be admitted by a pantheon which includes "a poet of the household." Again, "If an accident should take place during a dinner, would you know exactly what to do and say?" He who in this case trusts in his powers of impromptu epigram might well ponder if he can confidently answer this question, "Do you know just what to do to appear in public to the best advantage?" But are not the real miseries the little ones? How shall one facing alluring blanched stalks coldly decide whether asparagus is or is not "a finger food"? It is at a pass like this that only the "higher powers," the three-volume work, the certificate of membership in the Society can relieve that awful "uneasiness." And if any "lineage aristocrat" believes herself exempt from the submission in which the humble find lightness of heart, let her honestly ask herself, "Do you know the art of making every one happy at your social affairs?" The haughtiest, we venture to say, cannot face this question for a season of "social affairs" and remain careless of the appeal of the New York Society of Self-Culture. How otherwise shall she learn that "a host or hostess is privileged to introduce himself or herself, at a ball or reception, to a guest who appears to be shy or lonely"?

But it is pleasanter to dwell upon a perfected state than upon the heartrending processes which may have led thereto. In the world generally, a woman favored at a cotillion is liable to shout, chant, sing, snarl, vociferate, intone her thanks. In the world of "correct usage," a woman "murmurs her thanks on receiving a favor." In the substrata of society the dancers are often brutalized by some violent leader. How different in the world to which we all aspire!—"Only an amiable and authoritative person should attempt to lead a german. The dancers must be kept in bounds, but they must never be rudely commanded, rebuked, and pushed about." Here is, indeed, balm for bruised souls. It is only in this world of self-culture that complete self-approbation triumphs over all material infelicities—that, after a musicale, however cacophonous in execution, "the guests wend their ways homeward with the consciousness of having attended a swell entertainment." It is only there that "the correct position at table," which "brings the waist line within eight or nine inches of the board," is faithfully practised.

Even more engaging than the high standard which the Society for Self-Culture sets for itself is its genial willingness to admit good in other men, and its generous hope that, through its own

agency and the "uncovenanted mercies," we are all being raised to a higher plane of social consciousness and conduct. Says "the best-dressed clergyman in Newport and New York": "The *bon mot* I once heard uttered in the Waldorf-Astoria" (apparently the temple of the cult) "that a New Yorker could, at a glance, tell a man from the provincial cities by his hat, is, I am happy to record, growing every day more untrue."

## COEDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

CHICAGO, August 17, 1902.

The discussion which for some months has been agitating the University of Chicago in regard to the status of women in that institution, is of more than local or ordinary significance. While every institution of learning has, of course, a general right to regulate its policy and internal affairs in its own way, without particular accountability to the public for its decisions, its attitude on certain subjects is bound to become, whether it will or not, more or less a matter of public concern. In the case of the few great universities, particularly, decisions on controverted points, or on matters in regard to which the public mind happens to be sensitive, have an influence on educational methods and ideals far beyond the limits of the institution immediately involved. The University of Chicago has legitimately sought such a position of influence from the beginning, and it cannot avoid the consequent responsibility now that it faces, in a matter of peculiar importance, something very like a crisis.

When the plans of the new University were first made public, a dozen or so years ago, the announcement that the charter made provision for furnishing "opportunities for all departments of higher education to persons of both sexes on equal terms," caused widespread satisfaction among the friends of higher education for women. Further, while not disparaging the work of colleges exclusively for women, or ignoring the weighty reasons, principally financial, which had led Harvard and other older institutions to attempt a solution of the problem by means of an "annex" system, there was a tolerably general feeling that no new university, particularly in the West, could be established on any other basis than that of coeducation. The course of the University of Chicago, so far at least as the public had knowledge of it, was from the first such as to inspire the belief that coeducation, fundamental in its theory of education, was sincerely accepted as both right and expedient. No distinction was made between men and women in any department or line of work, while the few regulations for the social intercourse of the two sexes were merely such as obtain among intelligent and cultivated men and women everywhere.

After ten years of successful operation, the University finds itself in the peculiar position of questioning the wisdom of further university coeducation, and of seriously proposing to substitute, for a part of its work, something akin to the "annex" system. The question seems first to have come before the Senate, some months since, in the form of a tentative inquiry as to whether a gift of money for the erection of a quadrangle for women, with the understanding that the women should be therein separately taught, ought to be accepted. Naturally, the Senate did not take kindly to action which might be construed as an acceptance of a bribe. Thereupon the Trustees, not satisfied, apparently, with the way in which the question had been raised, requested the Senate—the highest academic body of the University—to consider the question of educational policy involved in the inquiry. The discussion in the Senate developed from the first strong and earnest opposition to any change in the existing system. In order, however, that the expression of opinion might be general, the matter was referred to the Junior College faculty—the work of the so-called Junior College corresponding to the freshman and sophomore years of the ordinary college course. If the experience of coeducation had been so unfavorable as to justify the University in seriously considering doing away with it, the evils, it was thought, would probably be most manifest in the younger classes.

The consideration of the question by a committee of the Junior College faculty resulted in the submission of two reports. The majority recommended "that, in the development of Junior College instruction, provision be made as far as possible for separate sections for men and women," while the minority recommended "that the system of coinstruction be continued as heretofore." The vote as announced by President Harper was 17 to 11 in favor of "segregation," as the proposed separation of the sexes was called. By a vote of 24 to 7, however, the Congregation, an advisory body composed of the faculties and delegates from the alumni, disapproved the action of the Junior College faculty; but a reconsideration by the latter again sustained "segregation," this time by a vote informally announced as 25 to 18. The Senate, after further serious debate, decided to take its vote by mail, in order not only to reach members absent on vacation, but also to give each member an opportunity to explain his vote in writing. The result of this vote, which was to be completed July 25, has not been officially announced, but is understood to have been largely in favor of separation.

In a circular of protest issued by two representatives of the Chicago alumnæ of the University, a strong reflection is made on the action of President Harper in connection with the first vote of the Junior College faculty, June 14. The circular says:

"The committee's majority report was disapproved by a vote of 19 to 14. After the adjournment of the meeting, President Harper spoke to two members of the faculty, and their votes were then changed from negative to affirmative, making the vote 17 to 16 still against separation. President Harper himself then voted, and threw out the opposing votes of six other persons. This was done on the ground that they were disqualified because they were on one-year appointments only—a rule of the University, so far as can be ascertained, never before enforced. The President then, several hours after adjournment, announced the final vote as 17 to 11 in favor of separation of sexes."

The implication that President Harper juggled with the vote in order to secure a result favorable to his side may, it is to be hoped, be dismissed without serious comment. The rejection of votes was not solely upon the ground complained of, and was in apparent accordance with a published rule regulating faculty membership. It must be said, however, that while the action of the President appears to have been technically justifiable, the procedure was unusual, and the circumstances such as necessarily to leave an uncomfortable feeling.

With President Harper, who has had a greater opportunity than any other university president has ever had to form an institution after his own heart, now favoring "segregation," and using all his influence to bring it about, one is naturally curious as to the reasons which are thought to dictate so great a change. If one looks only at the history of the University during the ten years of its remarkable existence, it must be confessed that satisfactory reasons are hard to find. It is true that the women students at Chicago have increased in numbers proportionately faster than the men, but it requires a vivid imagination to see, in view of all the circumstances of the case, any danger of a "feminization" of the institution. If such a process has actually begun, those who fear it have been not only singularly slow in discovering it, but singularly unsuccessful as well in pointing out its tangible signs. In matters of scholarship the women have continued to prove themselves at least the equals of men, in the same subjects and grades, while the scholarly standards of the University show as yet no signs of decline. Throughout the University there is a vigorous and refreshing spirit of work on the part of men and women alike. As to moral deterioration, that, happily, may be dismissed at once. The University of Chicago has had neither suspicions nor scandals.

In the list of reasons for "segregation," most of them either trivial or of temporary importance, it is difficult to see any other clear indication than that of fundamental opposition to coeducation *per se*. The advocates of the change, to be sure, are insistent that they feel no such hostility, but it is noticeable that there has thus far been a dearth of arguments capable of adequate justification on other grounds. Naturally, therefore, the affirmative argument lacks novelty. True, it is urged that "segregation," being confined to the students of the Junior College, will affect but a comparatively small part of the student body, and that coeducation will still obtain in all the more advanced courses and departments. It is much to be hoped that such a prophecy—for so it must be regarded—will prove true, and that the separation of the sexes now proposed will not later be urged for other departments also. There are not wanting, however, those who fear that the present movement will prove to be only an entering wedge.

With the final vote of the Senate, already referred to, the decision of the vexed question is now in the hands of the Trustees. That there is among them a sharp difference of opinion seems to be generally understood, but a decision in favor of "segregation" is probably to be looked for, unless action can in some way be deferred. The fact that "segregation" is the policy of the President will, of course, have great weight, as it doubtless has had weight in determining the action of the faculty. Neither the Trustees nor the President,

however, have been left without enlightenment. Numerous petitions from graduates and friends of the University against separation have been sent in, together with a memorial signed by fifty-eight members of the faculty, including a number of heads of departments, asking for time for further consideration. The feeling of the women students is naturally bitter. It is significant that, in this so grave a matter, no official statement of the grounds of the proposed change has yet been offered by the authorities of the University.

In estimating the importance of such decision as may be arrived at, the peculiar position occupied by the University of Chicago must not be forgotten. The range of influence of the University is now enormously wide, particularly in the central West, Northwest, and South. Outside of the Atlantic Coast, the broad fact of the case is, that public opinion overwhelmingly favors coeducation, and President Harper gauged public opinion correctly when he built his great institution on a coeducational basis. An abandonment of this position, after ten years of successful operation under it, by the university which is unquestionably the most influential educational institution in the West and South, would be a backward step of serious moment, not because it would jeopardize coeducation, but because it would almost certainly be attributed to unworthy motives. At present the University stands for education in the sense of sound scholarship and practical serviceableness to the community. It has not as yet, however, won great social prestige, nor does it draw largely from those (particularly young men) who go to college mainly for social reasons. It is broadly hinted in Chicago that the itching desire to cut more of a social figure, and to secure in consequence a patronage, in students and money, not so easily obtainable under present conditions, has had something to do with this sudden change of front in the matter of coeducation. Yet every one who knows anything about the interior life of many Eastern institutions knows how deadening is the effect of wealth and "society" on the intellectual tone and moral robustness of the student body. In the case of the University of Chicago the ascription of motive, at the present stage of the controversy, can be only conjectural, but it will be lamentable if the University, beguiled from an allegiance no less imperative now than a decade ago, unwittingly joins the ranks of those institutions of learning in which other interests than those of scholarship have chief place.

## THE MEMOIRS OF AIMÉE DE COIGNY.

PARIS, July 29, 1902.

Poets have the privilege of conferring immortality. André Chénier, in a single poem, "La Jeune Captive," conferred it on a young woman, Aimée de Coigny, who was shut up with him in prison during the Terror. Among the last victims of the bloody period which preceded the downfall of Robespierre, few deserve more regrets than the young poet who united a sort of Greek purity and charm with modern ideas. Chénier, as a poet, always reminds me of a painter, Proudhon, who, like himself, combined all the charm of the expiring eighteenth century with a classic and Greek ideal of form and beauty. The "Jeune Captive" is known by heart by every schoolgirl and student in France:

"L'épi naissant mûrit, de la faux respecté;
Sans crainte du pressoir, le pampre tout l'été
Boit les doux présents de l'aurore;
Et moi, comme lui belle, et jeune comme lu,
Je ne veux point mourir encore."

When Chénier wrote these lines in the prison where he met Aimée de Coigny, he thought she would soon be brought to the scaffold. Aimée was saved, and survived him. The legend, says M. Étienne Lamy, who has just published the 'Memoirs of Aimée de Coigny,' "is fairer, as usual, than history. The 'young captive' was a young woman who had been married for eight years; she did not mount the scaffold, and she died in her bed in 1820."

Aimée de Coigny was married in 1784, at the age of fifteen, to the Marquis de Fleury, who was a month younger than herself, and who soon afterwards became Duke de Fleury. Marriage ties were very light at the time, and the Duchess de Fleury enlisted among her lovers the famous Lauzun and Lord Malmesbury. The Duke de Fleury emigrated at the beginning of the Revolution; the Duchess fled first to London, where she found Lord Malmesbury. Lauzun had become Gen. Biron. He commanded French troops on the Rhine, but he kept up a correspondence with Madame de Fleury.

In January, 1793, in the very midst of the Terror, the Duchess returned to Paris, in company with Malmesbury, who, after having been arrested and set free, thought it wiser to return to London. Madame de Fleury had been secretly confined in England, and returned to Paris after her confinement (the child did not live). She did not much miss Malmesbury, but sent letter after letter to Lauzun, asking him for his protection; he needed protection himself, and left her letters unanswered. "Such was," says M. Lamy, "the ugly end of their passion; begun in folly, it ended in selfishness which exhibited the hypocrisy of the woman, the brutality of the man. They both threw a last look of contempt on each other. They had no more to say to each other." These few lines will perhaps give you an idea of the not unpretentious style of the editor of the 'Memoirs of Aimée de Coigny,' who was certainly not marked out by his earlier writings, which are of a very severe character, as the biographer of a very light woman.

Lauzun died at Montrouge on the 1st of January, 1794, at the age of forty-six. Madame de Fleury remained alone. She was arrested on the 4th of March, 1794, and taken to the prison of Saint-Lazare. Chénier had been arrested ten days before her, and was for four months her companion in captivity. Did he fall in love with her? Did horror of the present, and the almost certainty of coming death, inspire one of those sudden and unexpected passions which become all the more violent as their time is measured? Who knows? The famous poem of "La Jeune Captive" sheds no light on this point; it is the mere expression of immense compassion. Chénier had an interesting and very intellectual face, but he was not handsome. The Duchess de Fleury was less occupied with him during her captivity than with the young Montrond, who was twenty-four years old and had the reputation of an "homme à bonnes fortunes." Montrond (who became almost famous afterwards as a confidential instrument of Talleyrand) took the best means of saving Madame de Fleury and himself. They were both, with Chénier, on the famous lists of Fouquier de Tinville. With a bribe of a hundred louis, Montrond obtained the erasure of Madame de Fleury's name and his own; Chénier's remained on the list.

Four months afterwards Montrond married the Duchess de Fleury, who was officially divorced from her husband, still living among the *émigrés*. Montrond was a poor gentleman of Franche-Comté and was happy to attach himself to a great family and a large fortune. He was just the man for the régime which followed the Terror, a man of pleasure, without principles, ready for anything. He introduced his wife to the new society made up partly of politicians, army contractors, speculators, partly of some remains of the old régime. His scepticism was appreciated by Talleyrand, and he became one of his tools. Aimée de Coigny seemed to have a vocation for infidelity; she tired soon of the impertinence and scepticism of Montrond. Orleanist with Lauzun, aristocratic with Malmesbury, she became republican with Garat, a member of the Tribunat. She did not do things by halves, and went boldly to live with him. She had hardly been a month or two with him when Bonaparte turned him out of the Tribunat. Garat was but a poor actor, fond of repeating phrases of Rousseau's 'Contrat Social'; when he had to leave the stage, he was soon forgotten. Aimée remained with him six years; he first tired of her, and abandoned her, who had believed in him, had considered him a civic hero, capable of resisting the tyranny of Bonaparte. Garat was a very ordinary man, whose name is now known only by those who are intimate with the political history of the first years of the nineteenth century.

The Marquis Bruno de Boisgelin, captain of dragoons in 1789, had emigrated and returned to France during the Consulate. He was, in 1812, a man of forty-five years, of a fine countenance, an open intellect, and a noble character. Aimée de Coigny made his acquaintance; they soon became very intimate, and Boisgelin became the successor of Garat. The 'Memoirs' are wholly occupied with him; there is no mention in them of his too numerous predecessors. These 'Memoirs,' strange as it may seem, are almost entirely filled with political considerations. They begin with a sort of philosophy of the French Revolution. Aimée forgets what she has suffered from it, and seems to think only of what France has suffered from the old régime. Boisgelin was very hostile to Napoleon; he remained a royalist at heart, though he felt that a restoration of the monarchy could not be a restoration of the old régime. "At the rate things are going," he said one day (during Napoleon's expedition in Russia), "the whole world will fall upon us, and who will support us? What shall we do with the vanquished hero?" Talleyrand was no longer in favor; he was discontented. He knew Aimée de Coigny well, but he spoke little of politics to her. She understood his silence, however. "If Talleyrand said that speech was given to man to conceal his thoughts, he proved that, in order to make his thoughts understood, silence sufficed to man."

After the retreat of the Grand Army from Russia, Talleyrand became bolder. In a moment of confidence, he said to Aimée de Coigny:

" 'We must destroy him [meaning Napoleon], never mind how. . . . This man is no longer good for what he might do; his period of strength against the Revolution is passed. . . . He has destroyed equality—that is well; but liberty must remain to us; we must have laws. With him, it is impossible. Now is the time to upset him. You know the old servants of liberty, Garat and others; I can bring over Sieyès. We must rekindle in them the thought of their youth; it is a power. Their love of liberty may return.' 'Do you expect it?' I said. 'Not much,' he replied; 'but we must try.' "

Napoleon came back from Russia, and arrived at the Tuileries. Talleyrand became silent again. Madame de Coigny's visits to him recommenced only in 1814, when Napoleon was entering on the campaign of that year. One day, Talleyrand said to her: "Madame de Coigny, I am willing to have the King, but . . ." She threw herself on his neck, without letting him finish.

" 'Well, Monsieur de Talleyrand, you save the liberty of our poor country by giving it the only way of being happy—with a fat and feeble King who will be obliged to grant and to execute good laws.' He laughed at my enthusiasm, and then said to me: 'Well, I am willing, but I must let you know how I stand with that family. I could accommodate myself tolerably to M. the Count d'Artois, because there is between him and me something which would explain much of my conduct. But his brother does not know me at all: I don't want, instead of thanks, to expose myself to a pardon or a justification. I have no way of reaching him.' "

Here Madame de Coigny interrupted him, and told Talleyrand that M. de Boisgelin was in correspondence with the King, and had just written a long letter to him; would Talleyrand consent to hear it? He consented, fully approved the terms of the letter, and recommended a continuation of the correspondence. The 'Memoirs of Aimée de Coigny' were written chiefly to show the degree of collaboration which she and M. de Boisgelin had in the restoration of the Bourbon family; they throw some light on Talleyrand's personal sentiments and action, and in that respect they may be considered an historical document.

Madame de Coigny, when she wrote the 'Memoirs,' probably intended to add much to what is now given us by M. Lamy. We do not know for what reason she abstained from expressing her views on the early years of the Restoration. Perhaps it was because Boisgelin had ceased to see much of her; he had become a peer, and was a favorite at court: in working for the King, Madame de Coigny had worked against herself. She was a divorced woman, and divorces had been abolished; she was a free-thinker, and the Church had become dominant; people remembered her past life, and she did not find in the new court the indulgence of the Revolutionary times.

# Correspondence.

## THE STUDY OF HISTORY IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Let me, in thanking Professor Dodd for his kind words about my professorship of English at Randolph-Macon College, set him right in one statement. It was not "from this school," founded in 1870, "that the University of Virginia," in 1882, "secured its first professor of English." That honor was not mine.—Yours truly,

Thos. R. Price.

Llwyndéry, Lewisburg, W. Va.,
August 15, 1902.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The letter on "The Status of History in Southern Colleges," in your issue of August 7 last, is a beautiful example of writing history from inner consciousness without troubling about the facts. If Professor Dodd's words mean anything, he says in his third and fourth paragraphs that, before 1860, no Southern educational institution "had ever given any systematic courses of instruction in history." If he had looked into the State histories of education issued by the United States Bureau of Education, under the editorship of Prof. H. B. Adams, he would have found that Professor Adams says (p. 55, No. 1 of series) the following as to history in William and Mary College about 1830:

"Professor Dew gave the most thorough and comprehensive course on history of which the writer has found any record during this early period. When most colleges were teaching the subject merely by text-books and chiefly along classical lines of study, this man was lecturing systematically to his classes upon the Laws, Customs, Manners, and Institutions of the Ancient and Modern Nations."

If Professor Dodd had consulted the monograph on South Carolina, he would have discovered that the great publicist Lieber was elected "professor of history and political economy" in the South Carolina College in 1835 (p. 173). It is proper to point out that Professor Adams uses the term "systematically" for identifying the very thing that Professor Dodd asserts was not then to be seen in the South.

Again, the latter puts forward the positive claim that Trinity College, N. C., established in 1892 "the first independent department of history in the South." The catalogue for that year contains the "Professor of History and Political Science." This is the very same phrase used in the South Carolina College announcement for 1885-86. Whatever interpretation may be placed on the words, the South Carolina College is several years ahead.

Professor Dodd attributes this action of Trinity to the graduates of the Johns Hopkins University, who, "in a few years" after 1880, "began to clamor for the creation of chairs of history." We will let his "few years" run up to 1889. If he had turned to the Hopkins annual Register, he would have noted that, up to that date, there was one Hopkins doctor of history in Southern colleges below the Potomac. True, he was a large, hearty Kentuckian, and could have made a lot of noise if he had tried, but we must admit a case of terrible strain somewhere, either on his voice or on language, to say that he, alone, could raise a clamor over twelve or fifteen States.

If there is any "magazine of history and biography" in North Carolina, it is to be hoped that Professor Dodd will give the address of the publisher. It is hoped, also, that he will show what critical work has been done by that "coterie of competent critics" in Alabama, and will state his basis for classifying Southern institutions as "universities" and "colleges." So far as is generally known, no principle of division between the two has ever been found. Strictly speaking, the South has no university.

An earnest range over the general history of education in this country would have shown him many periods of "backwardness"—one in mathematics, one in English, one in modern languages, one in chemistry, one in physics, one in geology, one in biology, and even now one in experimental psychology. He could have hit upon the same explanation in the main for them all—that it is a matter of means; when the colleges have more money they get more chairs and more teachers.

C. Meriwether.

Washington, D. C., August 11, 1902.

[To save time, we submitted Dr. Meriwether's article in the proof to Professor Dodd, whose reply we subjoin.—Ed. Nation.]

(1.) Both Professor Dew's lectures (in book form) at William and Mary in 1830 and Professor Adams's account of them were before me when I prepared the article to which exception has been taken. The very title of Dew's lectures (upon "The Laws, Customs, Manners, and Institutions of the Ancient and Modern Nations") is enough to raise serious question as to their scientific value, and a close examination of them convinces me that the lectures were directed mainly against the tariff policy of our Government. I do not question the statement of Professor Adams that "Dew gave the most thorough and comprehensive course on history" then being offered in the South; but it was not scientific history, which is clearly the contention of my article. Professor Holmes, of the department of history and literature of the University of Virginia, would deserve to be mentioned if the work of Dew should rank so highly. Neither Dew nor Holmes can be called a professor of history in the sense in which I use the term. The word "systematic," for scientific, when one considers the connection, should not have been misunderstood.

(2.) While I must admit not having read Dr. Meriwether's monograph on South Carolina, I have long been familiar with the life of Dr. Lieber, even a very flattering 'Life' by a German admirer; yet there appears no good reason for ranking his work above that of Professor Dew's already mentioned. Neither at William and Mary nor in South Carolina College was history an independent or important subject.

(3.) As to the claim that Trinity College, N. C., was the first to establish an independent department of history in the South, I am frank to confess that I was in error; but the University of Texas, not South Carolina College, enjoys the distinction of priority. Trinity's "Professor of History and Political Science" of 1892 very soon became a professor of history alone; and the work of the department was from the first devoted almost exclusively to history, and was of such a high grade—truly scientific—that I do not think even the University of Texas will take my error as to the date very seriously.

(4.) There was no claim made in my original article that only the Hopkins "doctors" were engaged in the work of improving college curricula during the years 1880-'89. Many Southerners who went to that institution before 1890 took the degree of A.M. or A.B. They had seen the work of Professor Adams as they had that of others; and they had a share in the agitation which Dr. Meriwether would have us believe was to be done by the Kentuckian alone. There are many un-"doctored" Hopkins teachers in the South, some of whom the writer had the honor to know when they first began to ask for the establishment of history departments. Of course, other men cooperated and no doubt took the initiative in many instances.

(5.) Dr. John S. Bassett of Trinity College, N. C., is the editor and publisher of a first-class magazine devoted largely to history and biography, as the most cursory examination of its table of contents will show. Its last number has six articles on Southern history out of a total of nine, and in addition to this there has been a magazine of "history and biography" published at Trinity during five years past—"Publications of the Trinity College Historical Society"—containing work of a very high grade, "pioneer" too. I named North Carolina, Tennessee, and so forth only in a general way, and not saying or even implying that there were not equally important beginnings being made, say, in Virginia, South Carolina, or Mississippi; and I am sure the sons of these latter States will not take the omission as a personal affront.

To conclude: I was writing about history as a scientific study, if not as a science, asking recognition for it with the same status as Latin or Greek, confining my study of the question simply to the South, and basing my statements on the catalogues of twenty-four representative institutions, on personal observation, and on such literature as I had been able to gather from a good college library and from the Virginia State Library. What has been done in the North, or what has been done in other subjects, were not questions which presented themselves to my mind as pertinent. My conclusions were stated in the article of August 7. The plea of poverty cannot modify the facts, for where there is money for the classics there might also be some for history; the interest fails, not so much the means.

Judging from the letters I have received since the appearance of my article, I must conclude that no very serious errors have been made. A professor of history in one of our oldest universities thinks I have attacked the South, and says: "I certainly think any Southern man who would say that, under the conditions as they existed in 1861, he would not have followed Lee and Jackson, ought to be kicked out of a Southern school"—as if this had anything to do with the subject. Another professor of history, in an equally important institution, says: "I have read your letter to the *Nation* with great pleasure, because of the intelligence and wholesome spirit manifest in what you say. The South is waking, I am sure, to the value of the study of history, but it needs more of the stimulation that men of your stamp are trying to give it."

These quotations show clearly enough the two *Richtungen* in the teaching and writing of history in the South. There is no *via media*.

WILLIAM E. DODD.

# Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co.'s autumn announcements include 'Standard Light Operas' and 'Musical Pastels,' by George P. Upton, the latter curiously illustrated; 'In Argolis,' a picture of family life in Greece, by George Horton; 'Catchwords of Cheer,' a compilation by Mrs. Sara A. Hubbard; and 'The Birds of the Rockies,' by Dr. Leander S. Keyser.

The Grafton Press will issue 'Some By-Ways of California,' by Charles Franklin Carter; 'The Worth of Words,' by Dr. Ralcy Husted Bell; 'By the Stage Door,' a collection of stage stories by Miss Ada Patterson and Miss Victory Bateman; and 'The Imperial Republic,' an anti-imperialistic drama by Miss Elizabeth G. Crane.

The Century Company have in preparation 'Caterpillars and their Moths,' by Ida Mitchell Eliot and Caroline Gray Soule, with striking life-size illustrations.

E. P. Dutton & Co. issue directly, 'Past, Present, and Future,' by Herbert C. Fyfe, a survey of submarine warfare.

'The Builders of the Republic,' illustrated, James Pott & Co. have nearly ready.

Mr. William Morton Payne has issued, through A. C. McClurg & Co. of Chicago, a new edition of his 'Little Leaders,' first published in 1895, and has at the same time collected another series of reprints from the *Dial*, under the title of 'Editorial Echoes.' The later volume, like the earlier, is divided into three sections of Literature and Criticism, Education, and In Memoriam. A considerable part of the first section is naturally occupied with a retrospect of the literary productions and tendencies of the nineteenth century. Mr. Payne's judgments are so well-informed and sane that they well deserve this republication, even though a few of the topics with which he deals may have lost their freshness. It is a pity that reviewers of the slap-dash type could not be compelled to make a study of these volumes. They might come away with a better idea of the wide reading and clear thinking necessary to the equipment of the critic.

Mr. Booker T. Washington is accustomed, on Sunday evenings, to talk to his Tuskegee students on questions of conduct. Thirty-seven of such addresses have been collected in a volume with the title 'Character Building' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). They contain some very plain-spoken warnings against the temptations which especially beset the negro temperament, with frank comment on the defects that have prevented the colored race from making the best of its opportunities. Mr. Washington, with characteristic good sense, does not think it beneath the dignity of his subject to lay stress on certain minor morals which his hearers are in danger of neglecting. He urges them, for instance, to keep their rooms tidy, to cleanse their teeth and finger-nails, and not to waste their money on cheap jewelry. The tone of all the instructions is wholesome and practical, and they are expressed in an easy, conversational style, appropriate to the homely topics discussed. Mr. Washington, who tells us in his preface that he has spoken in these talks as he would speak to his own children around his fireside, shows himself a better critic than his publishers, who, in a note printed on the wrapper, go a long way toward making the book ridiculous by their extravagant commendation of its literary quality, and their unwarranted assertion that "many of these addresses rise to eloquence."

Readers of the *Evening Post*, at least, need no information as to the characteristics of a second series of 'Home Thoughts,' by Mrs. James Farley Cox (A. S. Barnes & Co.). The quality that marked the first is here in all its sweetness and light. Mrs. Cox offsets the lamentable new with the praiseworthy old, but she does more. She does justice to all that is loveworthy in the new. Far from demolishing to reform, she aims at sweetening that which is over-reasonable, and bringing reason to bear upon that which is exasperating, but inevitable. If her language is more or less flowered, her counsel is ruggedly sound, dealing with practical issues practically, yet on the most exalted plane. An enthusiast for sanity, she is at all points sane.

Mr. Albert Cook Myers of Swarthmore College, author of a stout volume on the 'Immigration of the Irish Quakers into Pennsylvania,' on which we shall report hereafter, has issued a commendable list of 'Quaker Arrivals at Philadelphia, 1682-1750' (Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach). This list has been derived from the records of the Philadelphia Monthly Meeting of Friends, and consists of abstracts of the certificates of removal received at that meeting. After 1730, all these certificates are from foreign parts; prior to that date they are mixed, foreign and domestic. The arrangement is chronological, and an index affords the clue. The value of this compilation, both historical and genealogical, is patent.

Few devices for entertainment and instruction give more general satisfaction than a small aquarium. The variety of life, the strange habits, and the continual motion make it interesting to all. The small expense involved, the readiness with which a colony may be secured, and the ease with which it may be cared for, are making aquaria much more numerous in these latter days. As a consequence, inquiries in regard to the proper species and the proper methods for stocking them have come to be very frequent. Eugene Smith's 'Home Aquarium' (E. P. Dutton & Co.), aims to answer all questions that may come up in relation to building and keeping a small tank of aquatic plants and animals. It is written by an American, and should enable one to succeed in almost any part of the country. Desirable species for the colony are described and figured; the illustrations are generally recognizable, though in some cases so coarsely drawn as to give the pages a cheap appearance. Most of the sketches are fairly active; from this the fish scales, and the pectoral fins of the fish named "Chanchito," and those of the figures on the covers, are to be excepted. Snails, on which ordinarily so much dependence has been placed, are introduced as not so nec-

essary as has been supposed; they are interesting, but sometimes detrimental. The directions for building and collecting and the descriptions of the forms most available for purposes of stocking are fair, perhaps not always complete enough; but more attention should have been given to distribution. Species are treated as if common over the whole country, while in reality of very local occurrence. In the same connection an exception may be taken to the use of certain "common names" that are unknown out of particular localities, and are better out of print, for instance, "Dog-fish" and "Rock-fish," names usually given to several very different species of fishes, here applied to the pigmy Umbra, widely known as "Mud-fish." Another instance is that of "Rain-Water Fish," a name for a fish said to be found only in the salt water. The work is practical and will be useful.

The seventh section of the *Annales Internationales d'Histoire—Congrès de Paris*, 1900 (Paris: Armand Colin), deals with the history of the arts of design. It contains a number of papers in French and Italian which were read at the sittings of the Congress, and deal, for the most part, with rather infinitesimal points in art history, though a few are of more general interest, as those in which Signor Venturi announces the discovery of "A New Giorgione," or M. Jules Protat pushes back the invention of wood-engraving fifty years. M. E. Bertaux takes up the vexed question of the origin of Nicolò Pisano, and, by applying a new test and studying him rather as architect than sculptor, seems to settle the matter in favor of Apulia. The titles to the papers themselves are seldom the same as those given in the "Programme of Sittings," which is confusing. In one case the Programme is clearly right, for M. de Mandach's paper deals with the preservation of the *drawings* of the old masters, not of their portraits, as the title gives it.

The imagination of publishers in suggesting titles to their authors does not seem to be equal to the ingenuity of our novelists in weaving long tales out of scant material. The title of Owen Wister's 'The Virginian' differs in name by only one letter from Thackeray's famous novel, and it is strange that an authoress of such repute as Rhoda Broughton should adopt, as a title of the serial now coming out in *Temple Bar*, the name of a novel so popular a generation ago that all old readers are bewildered, till the suspicion of plagiarism is dispelled by finding that the "Lavinia" who gives her name to each book, is not the heroine of the charming Italian story by the author of 'Doctor Antonio.'

It is customary at the German universities to send to every professor or instructor copies of all the doctor dissertations of his own university. The consequence is that every academic teacher receives annually a considerable number of dissertations on subjects which are of no especial interest to him, and which he would gladly exchange for those in his own branch of learning issuing from other universities. Now, Dr. E. Bose, privatdozent of Göttingen, proposes the establishment of a central bureau, to which any scholar may send such copies of dissertations as he wishes to dispose of, and receive in return others falling within the range of his own specialty. This new kind of exchange, in spite of its rather formidable name—"Centralstelle für Dissertationenaustausch"—could be run at very slight expense, and we do not see why Dr. Bose's plan is not perfectly practicable. Possibly, members of American universities, also, might in some way profit by such an arrangement.

According to the latest educational reports published by the German States, there are in that empire 571 secondary schools which give their graduates the *testimonium maturitatis* that admits to all university privileges. Of these, 416 are regular classical gymnasia, the grade which formerly alone enjoyed the prerogative of admitting to all departments of the university; and 109 semi-classical Realgymnasia, and 56 non-classical Oberrealschulen. It is significant that since the graduates of these latter schools have been put on the level with gymnasia men, the universities are being compelled to offer beginners courses in the classical tongues, especially in Greek. According to the *Statistisches-Jahrbuch*, from which these data are taken, neither Saxony nor Bavaria has any purely scientific secondary schools with full nine-year courses.

Largely at the request of the Emperor, an organization known as the "Evangelical Institute for the Investigation of Antiquities in the Holy Land" has been established in Germany, with branch societies throughout the country. The central management is in the hand of the Eisenach Conference, an unofficial but very influential body composed of representatives of the various state churches of the country. Professor Dalman, of the University of Leipzig, and the greatest Christian Talmudist in Germany, has been appointed general director, and has resigned his professorship in order to reside permanently in Jerusalem. The chief purpose of the home societies is to collect funds and systematically engage in archæological researches in Palestine. The Sultan has in various ways already granted special privileges to German scholars in this work on account of friendship for the Emperor. One of the tangible results of this good will has been the gift of the contents of the so-called Jami and Kebir mosques in Damascus, consisting of some excellent old material for New Testament study. These the Sultan, at the request of the German Emperor, has presented to the Berlin Museum, where they will arrive in the near future to be closely studied. The most interesting manuscript in this collection is perhaps a translation of some of Paul's Epistles into the Syro-Palestinian dialect as spoken in the days of Christ; next, a translation of Psalm 78 into Arabic, but written in Greek characters, and hence important for the study of the pronunciation of the former tongue. These literary treasures are now in the possession of the German Ambassador to Constantinople.

The Nature-Study Exhibition held in London in July was a practical demonstration of the methods and results of the new departure in elementary education in Great Britain. The exhibitors were of every class and rank: from the village infant schools, from Eton and St. Paul's, from the Agricultural and Training Colleges. There were sent model maps, in plaster and colored, of the home districts; nature calendars in black and white; photographs showing geologic features; field diaries; illustrated notes on the development of plants, etc. The boys of St. Paul's contributed "cases showing every part of the life of a moth, from the egg to the perfect insect, all the plants, and stages of the larvæ, modelled in wax and correctly colored, cases of various tree-trunks with the insects which find [*sic*] protective mimicry on them attached, and colored plates and collections of butterflies." There were also exhibits by the Governments of Canada (where the whole system of rural education will shortly be remodelled), Australia, the educational authorities of New York, "who commissioned Dr. Bickmore, director of their Natural History Museum, to attend and speak," the Philadelphia Normal School, and the Department of Agriculture, which sent every procurable paper upon nature-study issued by every agricultural college and experiment station in the United States. At the opening exercises the Duke of Devonshire, the President of the Board of Education, described what had been done to introduce this new element into the national education, the most important step being the requirement "that nature-study from a practical and experimental point of view shall be taken as one of the subjects of the certificate examination" for teachers.

—The current quarter's gift of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) is the beginning of the seventh volume—O-Onomastic—with Dr. Murray at the helm. Nineteen columns are required for the word *of*, one of the great possessions of the English language, now the twin brother of *off*, once identical with it, the cell-division (so to speak) not having become complete till after 1600, and, as everybody knows, being still incomplete in the writing of the illiterate. Among all its multifarious relations and regimens here displayed, the function of expressing the genitive might, we are told, never have arisen but for the need of interpreting the French *de*. An anomalous construction with certain transitive verbs is thus touched upon: "In these, by a kind of transposition, *of* introduces that which is removed, the person or thing whence it is removed being made the grammatical object: thus, a prisoner is said to be stripped *of his clothes*, when in reality the clothes are stripped *off* or *from the prisoner*." This is not queerer, perhaps, than that *object-matter* should be the equivalent of *subject-matter;* reminding us of some chemical substitutions. *One* was not assured, in pronunciation, of its initial *w* till a surprisingly late date. "The first orthoepist to refer to it was apparently Jones, 1701; earlier grammarians down to Cooper, 1685, give to *one* the sound that it has in *alone, atone*, and *only;* Dyche in 1710 has [ŏne] side by side with [wŏn]." In the impersonal use of *one* for "we, you, people, they," purists are found to insist on *one's, one* (obj.), *oneself* as the sole allowable corresponding cases; but, Dr. Murray observes, "for these the third-person pronouns *his, him, himself* were formerly usual, and are still sometimes used"—as they will continue to be at pleasure by all who prefer variety to monotony and stiffness. Perhaps the less indolent writer and speaker will prefer *one's self* to *oneself*, again reviving an older usage. And speaking of *older*, we wonder how many Americans would notice the use of "older" for "elder" brother—"only dialectic," says our editor;

and so of *oldest, eldest*. *Often* was "not common in standard English till the 16th century. The pronunciation [with the *t*], which is not recognized in the dictionaries, is now frequent in the south of England, and is often used in singing." How the word should be divided is not indicated here even by the printer.

—There are some curious examples of *habent sua fata verba*. The earliest observation of *obese* is in 1651, followed by 1654; then it is not caught again till 1822; but *obesity* has had a more continuous employment. *Occupy*, having vulgarly acquired the sense of 'to cohabit,' came to be avoided during the 17th and most of the 18th centuries. *Officer* is of earlier appearance in the navy than in the army. *Odor* offers standing-ground for American contention against -our, in this instance at least. Occasionally to be met with in Middle English, this spelling became obsolete in the 14th century, revived in the 16th by reversion to the Latin, was frequent in the 17th, "and is now usual in U. S." So our *offense* (for "offence") has an historic justification in the two Middle English words *offens* and *offense*, slightly different in meaning, from which our modern word is derived. "The spelling *offence* would regularly represent the former of these; it has been extended to both." We should have looked, by the way, for some notice of the changed stress when *offence* is contrasted with *defence*—as surely in the citation from Lubbock under 3. *Oat* stands alone among the names of grains in being obliged to express its mass by the plural; whence it is inferred that it originally denoted neither the plant nor the collective product, but the individual grain (like *groat, groats*). "This may point to oats being eaten originally in the grains and not, like wheat and barley, in the form of meal or flour." We stay our hand with the remark that *old field*, "land cultivated of old; especially, in U. S., cultivated by the Indians before the coming of the white men," receives no English illustration. Is the following an example, which we take from the newly published 'Salford Portmote Records,' of the Chetham Society, Manchester, volume i., p. 22?—"Noe burges or any other psone whatsoever haueinge growndes w'hin the Midle Fyeldes or Highe Ould Fyeld," etc.? The date is 1600—fifty-six years earlier than Dr. Murray's first quotation, from Braintree, Mass.

—The heavy, many-paged, and richly illustrated periodical of to-day has just appeared on the subjects of Genealogy and Heraldry. Number one of the *Ancestor* is a substantial volume of 282 pages (London: Archibald Constable & Co.; Philadelphia: Lippincott). Every article in it deserves to be read, and most of them must be read slowly and attentively. Notwithstanding its conservative name and appearance, its contents are revolutionary, not to say iconoclastic. Very little in it appeals to the general reader; most of it is written for the advanced specialist. J. Horace Round, author of 'Studies on Peerage and Family History,' carries on his favorite pursuit of shortening the pedigrees of prominent families, and begins a study of "The Origin of the FitzGeralds." A very interesting article of similar character is "The Grosvenor Myth," by W. H. B. Bird. The two most important articles are "Heraldry Revived," and "The English Gentleman." The former, by Oswald Barron, is a plea for the restoration of Heraldry, in both drawing and descriptive writing, to the simplicity of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, by the rejection of the absurdities and puerilities of the sixteenth and later centuries. Especially would the writer have good English words used instead of the professional French of the textbooks, which he pronounces a "dead language," while he shows the blundering misuse of some words and the needlessness of many others. Cheerfully can we endorse his "let us strive to use our own broad speech wherever it may displace a pedantry of the decadence." He is not too hopeful of the immediate future, and, while feeling sure of the approval of the antiquary, the architect, and the artist, he anticipates the opposition of "the Antiquarian," the real "enemy in the path." "The English Gentleman," by Sir George R. Sitwell, is by far the longest article in the number, and it is sure to receive serious attention and criticism in England. It is as abstruse as a chapter of advanced mathematics. One is fairly bewildered amid the old English, old French, and Latin which abound in it. Sir George rejects the definition of gentleman given in the New English Dictionary as "one who is entitled to bear arms," and boldly declares him to be "a freeman whose ancestors have always been free." It is to be regretted that he does not make a rough estimate of the number of such gentlemen in England, but he does decide that "quite twenty-five per cent. of our peers are not gentlemen."

—The enormous volume entitled 'Dangerous Trades,' edited by Dr. Thomas Oliver and prepared by a number of experts (London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.), is, within its title range, a veritable encyclopædia of sanitary information. Like other encyclopædias, this is distinctly for reference; but it is crammed with facts of all sorts, generally set in very readable text carrying the latest knowledge. We extract at random two or three of those little known. The children of female lead-workers almost invariably die within the first twelve months, and lead suspends for the time the child-bearing functions. The gum of some foreign unused stamps bought by collectors carries tuberculous infection, as demonstrated by careful experiment; hence, youthful philatelists who wet their stamps with their tongues run serious risks. The women in English laundries are supplied with a ten or fifteen-minute "lunch of beer" twice a day between meals by "a beer man," who makes regular rounds from the nearest public house, or the beer is stored by the laundry. The time lost is made up at the end of the working day. The reporter, herself a woman, suggests that "intemperate habits will be encouraged" by the practice, but thinks that women employed on some days from thirteen to fifteen hours "may claim, with some show of reason," that a kind of spur is required. It does not seem to occur to those responsible that oatmeal gruel quenches thirst and supplies energy. Gas-stoves in British kitchens appear to be supplied through india-rubber tubing that is liable to leak. The harmfulness of yellow phosphorus, with its risk of causing caries, has been so thoroughly demonstrated that its use in match-making in the United Kingdom is greatly reduced and the operators' health correspondingly improved. These are trifles, but one may search from Acetylene to Upholstering and he will find valuable material all along the way under Agriculture, Explosives, Mining, Quarries, Rag-sorting, and almost every conceivable heading. The Introduction, by Dr. Oliver, and the Historical Sketch, by Miss Anderson, are particularly good examples of practical literature.

—We have received from the Bishop Memorial Museum in Honolulu part i. of volume iii. of the 'Fauna Hawaiiensis,' comprising a monograph of the Hawaiian Diptera by P. H. Grimshaw, with seventy-seven pages and three plates. The number of flies known from the islands previously was only about twenty-five species, of which nine were practically cosmopolitan. Owing to the researches of Mr. Perkins, though not especially devoted to this group, the number described in the present monograph is increased to 172, of which 106 are new to science, including 6 new genera. Of the total number, 134 have been obtained, so far, from only one island; the remaining species being either cosmopolitan, introduced, or common to two or more of the islands. There are no horse-flies or true crane-flies, but the *Limnobiidæ* are represented by nine species, one belonging to an interesting genus originally founded upon fossil specimens found in gum copal. Mr. Grimshaw considers the collection too restricted to base any geographical generalizations upon, but expresses surprise at the absence of species belonging to the prolific families *Asilidæ*, *Empidæ*, and *Bombylidæ*.

—The Museum has also issued the fourth number of volume i. of its memoirs, covering a description of 'Ancient Hawaiian Stone Implements,' by Prof. W. T. Brigham, the director. It contains 100 pages of text, with 97 figures, and 35 well-executed plates. The author has illustrated the genesis and variation of some of the local implements by figures of analogous tools from other portions of the Pacific, and the text is enlivened by numerous reminiscences of observations noted some forty years ago on the arrival of the narrator in the islands, where native customs and native rule, though decadent, were still in existence. Probably no one living is better qualified than Professor Brigham to throw light on all that concerns the early ethnology of the Hawaiian people, and it is fortunate indeed that the opportunity of preserving for science all that he may contribute is offered by the trustees of the Museum through its publications. The stone implements of the Hawaiians are almost destitute of ornament or non-utilitarian carving, and they are formed from the hard or ringing clinkstone, or the vesicular lava, as the use of the tool indicated. Hammers, sinkers, mortars, pestles, little cups for the oil of the kukui nut in which a strip of kapa served as wick, war-clubs, adzes, occasionally a file, knife, or chisel, slingstones, balls or disks for games like bowls or quoits, shallow dishes of various sorts—such were the articles in use by a race devoid of metal, bone, or large and heavy shells suitable for tools. The really characteristic Polynesian stone implement is the poi-pounder, of which each tribe has its special variety. An ingenious device is the stone mirror, of black, close-grained lava ground into small flat, circular plates, not, of course, polish-

ed, and when dry reflecting nothing, but, when immersed in a shallow dish of water, by their blackness forming a very effective means of reflection. A few rude idols and phalli are included among the objects illustrated, but the mass of such material is reserved for a future contribution on Worship. Professor Brigham warns the peripatetic collector against stone articles prepared for sale by the resident Portuguese stone-cutters, and often offered as antiques, sometimes even buried in likely sites to be dug up by archæologists who employ the deceivers, native or other, as guides for a consideration.

## THORPE'S ESSAYS IN HISTORICAL CHEMISTRY.

*Essays in Historical Chemistry.* By T. E. Thorpe. The Macmillan Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 582.

The subjects of these eighteen essays, barring one or two, are all distinctly great. There is one upon Boyle, concerning whom nothing quite adequate has ever been written. Half-a-dozen relate to the better threshed-out subjects of chemists of Lavoisier's time. Five discourse of precursors of modern chemistry, Faraday, Graham, Wöhler, Dumas, and Kopp; two of modern chemists, Victor Meyer and Mendeléef; one of Canizzaro, who was not quite modern. The remaining three are sketches of general nineteenth-century or Victorian progress in synthetic chemistry, in British chemistry, and in technological chemistry. With the exception of Canizzaro, and perhaps Kopp, there is none of these subjects that is not a mine of instruction, although not much that is novel remains to be added about Cavendish, Priestley, or Lavoisier. One can hardly say that the author has extracted from any of his subjects its full lesson, unless it be from that of Victor Meyer. The portraiture of his character, life, and works is fine. To appreciate it, however, the reader needs to be familiar with the chemistry of the aromatic bodies.

Of nearly as much value is the long chapter about Graham, occupying nearly ninety pages, and composed of two independent papers. One would not antecedently suppose that so much not generally known remained to be said of so prominent a figure. It is shown that Graham was one of those who enter upon their experimental careers filled with some idea sufficiently fecund to produce great and inexhaustible work. This, in Graham's case, was the idea of atomicules in motion—an idea whose career has, at this day, perhaps not fairly been initiated. He was a pupil of Thomas Thomson, a disgracefully bad analyst, but a good vehicle for the dissemination of Dalton's doctrine, and, what is more, a discerner of men and of scientific genius. Thomson was impressed by Graham from the very first, and from the first treated him with something like deference. Such conduct on the part of a man of European celebrity—for such Thomson was—without a doubt greatly stimulated the development of his pupil's powers. Let the world pay its debt of gratitude to Thomson for this. The modern doctrine of valency virtually contents itself with a modification of the Berzelian idea that chemical forces are polar; and no doubt there is some truth in that, so far as it goes. Only it is pertinent to inquire how they come to be so. But Graham conceived that even the atoms of hydrogen, much more those of the other elements, were composed of many parts moving without absolute constraint. We need not say how much reason has since been found, some of it recently, for accepting that opinion. But it is difficult to imagine how, say, a thousand atomicules of hydrogen can be held together in one molecule without a chance agglomeration of a thousand and ten or more in another. Why should it be, then, that all the molecules of hydrogen, or any other simple gas, are equal or nearly so, as Graham's experiments proved them to be? As soon as anybody shall so much as suggest an adequate hypothesis to explain that fact and the observed approaches to Prout's law, the real quality of Thomas Graham will begin to shine out. Over his thought from boyhood there towered a misty shape which was always becoming compacted into the consistency of that puissant Jinn, the whole vast kinetic theory of matter. These reflections, and many others, suggested by Dr. Thorpe's account of Graham, lead us to accord a high esteem to that chapter.

The first chapter is on Boyle. An account of Boyle's broader conceptions, with their previous history, and that of their subsequent influence upon philosophy and upon science (which, in both directions, has been greater than is generally known), would have formed no small contribution to our comprehension of ourselves. But all that, if the author was able to furnish us with it, has been crowded out by long extracts from one of the most intolerably long-winded writers who ever abused our language. To the prolixity of garrulous conversation, Boyle added a pedantical choice of words whose only good excuse might have been that they effected compression. The 'Reflexions on a Broomstick' is hardly a caricature. Dr. Thorpe understands Boyle the chemist very well; but technical chemistry is quite the smallest side of that original and prepotent mind.

The essay on Scheele makes use of Nordenskiöld's book; and since few of us have time to go through that volume, this meagre account of its contents will not be unwelcome. This is not the only case in which Dr. Thorpe has drawn the substance of a sketch from a single well-known source, quite legitimately

Cavendish, Priestley, and Lavoisier, who, together, occupy considerably over a hundred pages, have all of them been pretty thoroughly understood for a long time. Of course, an irresistible inclination will induce a Frenchman to overrate Lavoisier or misground his appraisal. This manifests itself even in Berthelot, himself a great man, and as fair a Frenchman as could be found. Lavoisier never made an original experiment in his life, but he saw which the decisive experiments were, he repeated them with such high precision and such circumspect precautions that confidence was commanded, he coördinated them with a clear, scientific logic of which no contemporary was the master; thus he gave the death-blow to a theory of extraordinary vitality, and he enthroned in its place a theory, partly his own, which was mainly true. The account which Dr. Thorpe gives of him and of his work is perfectly just. Dr. Thorpe has no other explanation to offer of Priestley's adherence to phlogiston than the old one, that Priestley was incapable of placing himself in an unwonted point of view. We doubt whether the history of Priestley's opinions in metaphysics and theology sufficiently supports that explanation. There seems to be something worth considering in another view that has been broached, namely, that the vitality of the doctrine of phlogiston was, in some occult or subtle manner, due to the circumstance that it was true in its way.

One of the more striking of the essays is that on Jean Baptiste Dumas. It is largely drawn from Hoffmann's *Eloge* in the *Berichte*; but not so the following:

"If," says the author, "we compare the chemistry of to-day with that of the stirring times when Dumas, half a century ago, was matched almost single-handed against the German school—against such Titans as Berzelius, Liebig, Wöhler—we are amazed at the wealth of material which has been opened out. The change, thus directly or indirectly traceable to the labors and conceptions of Dumas, is as great or even greater than that achieved by the overthrow of the Phlogistians. If Lavoisier was the author of the first French Revolution in Chemistry, Dumas was the creator of the second."

Unquestionably, Dumas was a very considerable genius; and there is none of the many men of science who came into contact with him during the period of his secretaryship of the Academy of Sciences but must remember the delightful old gentleman with warmth and with a sense of obligation. Nevertheless, truth is truth; and even so much as a claim that his relation to the present conception of a chemical compound molecule was that which his baptismal name might suggest, would be definitely inadmissible. But was he not the author of the doctrine of substitution? So Dr. Thorpe represents him to have been; and there is just this much truth in it, that, while it had previously been known that chlorine could drive hydrogen from various compounds, it was Dumas who first showed that this happens if almost any organic body is treated with chlorine; and he added that an analogous reaction would occur if the body was exposed to the action of bromine, of iodine, *or of oxygen.* But when Berzelius attacked him for maintaining the monstrous proposition that chlorine could behave like hydrogen, Dumas replied:

"M. Berzélius m'attribue une opinion précisément contraire à celle que j'ai toujours émise, savoir que, dans cette occasion, le chlore prendrait *la place* de l'hydrogène. Je n'ai jamais dit rien de pareil. . . . Si l'on me fait dire que l'hydrogène est replacé par du chlore qui joue le même rôle que lui, on m'attribue une opinion contre laquelle je proteste hautement, car elle est en contradiction avec tout ce que j'ai écrit sur ces matières."

Thereupon he goes on to say very explicitly that the opinion attributed to him is neither more nor less than a ridiculous (*outrée*) theory which has been urged by one Laurent. He means Auguste Laurent, who, in fact, had said:

"Un composé organique constitue un ensemble, formé par la réunion d'un nombre d'éléments simples ou composés, éléments que l'on peut remplacer à volonté dans ce composé par des groupes analogues [the context shows that he means what we should now call groups of the same valency], sans altérer la physionomie générale, l'harmonie, ou *le type* de ce composé."

It was this Laurent who, in consequence

of the bitter resentment of Dumas against the man who had ventured so to modify *his* doctrine, died, as has often been said, and with little exaggeration, substantially of inanition and almost at Dumas's door, and who, by the above sentence, voluminously expounded and elaborated, has established his clear title, with clear-headed chemists, to being considered the father of the leading conception of modern chemistry.

The truth is, that in all the several scenes of life in which Dumas was busy, he ever showed himself to be an adroit man. He introduced the word "substitution" into chemistry, while loudly proclaiming his rejection of the only meaning that word was fitted to convey. *He*, one of the Forty—*he*, the fastidious selecter of words—did this. So, then, should it turn out, in process of time, that there really *was* a substitution, it would be remembered that he had first said so, and his disclaimer would be forgotten (just as we see Dr. Thorpe forgetting it); while, should it turn out that there was *no* substitution, the inappropriateness of the word would be lost sight of when it had become familiar, and at all events his declaration would be borne in mind. Just so, in regard to Prout's law, Dumas managed to take up such a position that both parties claim his support. But he was a little too adroit on the day when he bethought him quietly to appropriate certain results of Liebig's, for he found himself straightway transfixed, nailed to the counter, without a reply to make. As for his waging war, single-handed, against all the chemists of Germany, it is as easy to understand Dumas's looking upon the situation in that light as it is St. Thomas Aquinas's anticipating as a chief felicity of heaven the triumph of looking over the battlements upon rivals to sanctity frying beneath; but the one is as near a true religious aspiration as the other is to a true scientific sentiment. He was so far from arguing single-handed, that he tardily adopted, and endeavored to pass as his own, Laurent's "outrée" doctrine.

We have endeavored to impart to our readers a sufficient prenotion of the matter of this volume. We ought to add one word of warning against not a few small misstatements of facts of chemistry and chemical history, mistakes utterly trivial and hardly worth more than the mere mention, were it not a curious psychological fact (or must we, nowadays, say a *psychical* one?) that so excellent a chemist as Dr. Thorpe should make so many indisputable slips. We will just mention one as a specimen. The author has been saying how brilliant for England in chemistry were the first two decades of the nineteenth century. So they were, since Davy's work and Dalton's were done then. But he goes on to give two or three instances by way of proof, and among these he names the discovery of acetylene, although it has only recently been brought to the attention of chemists and non-chemists that acetylene was first discovered in 1836. But the author probably had it in his mind that acetylene was discovered by Davy, momentarily forgetting that this Davy was not Sir Humphry, but his obscure protégé Edmund, otherwise known principally for some early activity in applying chemistry to agriculture.

## LINN'S STORY OF THE MORMONS.

*The Story of the Mormons.* From the date of their origin to the year 1901. By William Alexander Linn. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xxiv, 637.

Mr. Linn's elaborate volume on the Mormons we are inclined to call the best that has appeared. None shows itself to have been written in such a special library, with extracts on every page from original witnesses. Nowhere do we find their testimony more compactly stored, or more fairly interpreted and weighed. The bibliothecal sources of knowledge were a collection of which our author might have said more. His readers would gladly have learned that it was accumulated by Miss Helen M. Gould during her crusade which did so much to prevent the seating in Congress of the polygamist Roberts, and that, she having presented it to the New York Public Library, it is now garnered in the Lenox branch. Its contents were 451 books, 325 pamphlets and 52 volumes of newspapers. These figures seem strangely similar to those of a collection in the same line in the Wisconsin Historical Society's Library, where the books are catalogued 448, newspaper files 43, periodicals and pamphlets more numerous than in New York, making in all 1,273 titles. A bibliography of his sources, as well as more guiding dates, is what we most desiderate in Mr. Linn's all-round monumental monograph.

Mr. Linn, so far as we perceive, never mentions the name of Gibbon, and yet often reminds us of that historian. Like Gibbon, he abounds in citations, with references to verse as well as chapter in the originals. Like Gibbon, he enlivens dull pages with pat and sprightly scraps from French favorites. Yet he is most of all Gibbon-like as the lord of irony. His sneers are so solemn that what he says in jest will be construed by some as sober earnest, or near it. In tracing the progress of Mormonism, while making no allusion to Gibbon's notorious secondary causes of the growth of Christianity among pagan Romans, Mr. Linn brings forward many analogous facts, and those pointing the same way. Thus, belief in miraculous gifts was no less prevalent and influential in Latter-Day Saints than among those of the primitive era. Mormon apostles rivalled scriptural miracles as Pharoah's magicians rivalled, or mocked, the mighty works of Moses, "doing also in like manner with their enchantments." Brigham's gulls, which fulfilled his prophecy and ended the plague of crickets (p. 400), is a type of countless others which, if they did not convert sceptics, satisfied credulous simplicity. The undeniable virtues of the first Christians were also of power to draw outsiders into their communion. "A generous intercourse of charity united the most distant provinces, and the smaller congregations were assisted by the alms of the more opulent" (Gibbon, xv., 141, note). Equally magnetic were the good lives of Mormons, who were noted for peace with surrounding Indians, for lives of labor, for charities to the poor and helpless among themselves, so that these never became a public charge. In 1869, a city of over 12,000 souls with no gambling hells, no obscene dance-halls, and scarcely a single whiskey saloon, satisfied the writer as well as other visitors that Mormonism, though its "iron was mixed with miry clay," retained, at least, truth enough to make a lasting lie.

Again, the doctrine of life beyond life brought many to join the early Christians because their faith was firm that a foretaste of its beatitude was at hand in the millennium which would begin, in their judgment, before their own generation had passed away. This identical tenet was equally widespread and operative among Latter-Day votaries. No wonder the Mormon temples or head-centres and the homes of all around them were transfigured, through plausible declamations or fond imaginings, into paradise regained; and that most of all among converts on the farther shores washed by the farthest seas. Distance lends enchantment. A pilgrimage to such a heaven on earth stirred up an enthusiasm not surpassed among mediæval crusaders. The fortitude of the brigade which, at Brigham's bidding, pushed their handcarts through a thousand-mile wilderness to reach their New Jerusalem, was a supreme test of the more than electric omnipotence of an ideal, no matter how illusive. The further west the saintly van advanced, the more who perished by the way, the more it was disencumbered of impostors and apostates, and the nearer it came to the Islands of the Blessed to tell of which demanded the hyperboles of millennial apocryphas.

Another secret of Christian success among pagans in Gibbon's eyes had been organization. Order, and government to enforce it, began with the gathering of the first church. This initiative, fertilized by persecutions, rapidly developed into a system which has made itself immortal, and a propaganda through all ages and continents. As embodied in the Catholic hierarchy, it was copied or mimicked by Mormons in those features best suited to their era and conditions. In this worldly wisdom, which some would call devil-wit, they outdid whatever had been achieved by the orthodox. Their prophets inspired their followers with a faith (*sancta simplicitas*) greater than had been felt in bishops or even popes. Through this subtle persuader they mastered and manipulated their property. They ruled them with a rod which no political boss, no general of the Jesuits or general military, could wield. They extorted services exhaustive, dangerous, hateful, and even criminal. Mormon increment has owed and still owes much to its hierarchy. Its prophets were without honor in their own country, and so compassed sea and land for proselytes. Converts have been mostly made at a distance—a large percentage beyond seas, and through the press as well as by preaching. The capital indispensable for working this machinery demanded for raising it a despotic executive. Viewed as an immigration agency, the missionaries were a success. The labor of the converts, however unskilled, was worth more than their transportation had cost. They had bread enough and to spare, and their change of worlds was uplifting—a physical blessing.

The migrations of Latter-Day Saints which, as we follow them on a map, appear a mighty maze and all without a plan, Mr. Linn contends have never been so clearly accounted for as by him. The exodus from the Missouri to the mountains, within three years after the first prophet's death,

if not a lucky blunder, was a masterstroke. But for this change of base, the Nauvoo temple would have been the last headcentre. All Mormon factions or sections would have dispersed to nought, as several did in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Texas. Their necessity in Utah was Brigham's opportunity to grasp a tyrant's strength and use it as a tyrant; above all, at Mountain Meadows, where, through Danite assassins, he wrought "the most arch act of piteous massacre that ever yet this land was guilty of." Brigham's omnipotence showed its might in establishing the dogma that polygamy is a sacred duty. The practice originating in the lust of leaders was only gradually connived at in others. Five years had elapsed after the migration to Utah before plural marriage was proclaimed a duty (August 28, 1852). It must have been foreseen by the dictator that this decree would fall like a bombshell into his camps, nor was he surprised when 4,000 devotees in England became at once apostates. Nevertheless, he judged it expedient. Not only did it promote peace in his own harem, but he had a notion that, as an article in his creed, it would be a shield against criminal prosecution, because our national Constitution vetoes all laws to restrict the free exercise of religion. It was also clear that through plural marriage the cohesive attraction of his swarms in the wilderness would be intensified. His oasis in a vaster Sahara was a felicity of position which held his dupes like flies who stick on poisoned paper, unable to get away; but plural marriage was a better ball and chain. Fugitive polygamists were a stench in all nostrils everywhere, and in all States were subject to penalties, and consequently must wander men without a country.

While hopeless elsewhere, no people have proved more hopeful than Mormons at home. On the 24th of July comes a sunburst, as was seen by the writer in 1869. On that anniversary the auditorium, seating 9,000, was crowded and well "filled" by a stentorian orator whose first words were: "Twenty-two years ago to-day, 143 men, 3 women, and 2 children entered this valley ; to-day we are as many thousand [86,786]; and twenty-two years hence we shall be as many millions." Hymns equally optimistic were thunderous as pealed forth from the megaphonic organ and the congregational myriad, *ad majorem gloriam* Brigham, who was enthroned on high, clad all in white.

That the author of the 'Book of Mormon,' published at Palmyra, in 1830, could not have been Joseph Smith, jr., a dozen lines concerning his antecedents would satisfy the average reader. In fact, however, we here encounter fifty pages, with cumulative and often amusing evidences that the revelator, "if his new Bible was not divinely revealed," must have stolen his thunder from scholars every way his superiors. But these pages will not be lost. They must make the scales fall from the eyes of some ignorants who are yet studious; a class who are daily beguiled by Mormon emissaries the world over.

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*The Varieties of Religious Experience:* A Study in Human Nature. By William James. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. xii, 534.

It is safe to predict that the incomparable style and freshness of Professor James's new book will assure the position of a classic as rapidly to this (his Edinburgh Gifford Lectures) as to his 'Principles of Psychology,' and his many admirers may well hope that it will prove no less epoch-making. For behind the fascinating flow of his narrative Professor James's art conceals far-reaching novelty of method, of temper, and of philosophy. His method may seem to be merely that of empirical psychological description applied, in masterly fashion, to the typical, and therefore extremer, forms of personal religious experience; but it is a considerable innovation to import scientific methods into fields hitherto abandoned to *à priori* dogmatizing about what the religious consciousness must be and contain. Hence, even though Professor James has only begun the psychological study of religious facts, it is evident that their variety will have henceforth to be treated with the proper respect by subsequent writers.

In the temper of his treatment, Professor James's catholic sympathy and generous appreciation—which even lead him to classify "mind-cure" under the "religion of healthy-mindedness," and, unegotistically, to praise it as the sole original American contribution to philosophy—seem no less remarkable; and though he dwells by preference on the brighter features of his subject, he seems equally remote from the fanaticism of the apologist and of the reviler of religion. As regards philosophy, we get, it is true, only tantalizing glimpses of that new "Pragmatism" which, he assures us, is so native and congenial to the Anglo-Saxon mind, and seems so well calculated to bridge the gulf between knowledge and action, and to expel the paralyzing intellectualism to which so many of our theologians and metaphysicians seem to be enslaved. But Professor James promises to complete his message to the world by a formal statement of his philosophy, and all his readers will echo the wish that health and opportunity will be granted him for the full accomplishment of this design.

The significance of Professor James's present performance will appear even from a brief survey of his topics. He begins by dismissing the appeal to *origin*, which, once used to accredit religions, has now fallen into the hands of medical materialism and serves to *discredit* them as essentially morbid. But, like science, religion must be judged by its present *value*—by its fruits, not by its roots. It is next explained that religious phenomena may differ psychologically in different men, and that their first-hand personal expression is to be studied rather than the ecclesiastical institutions which are built upon the bones of the martyrs. The following chapters describe the immediate consciousness of the unseen, the "healthy-minded" religion of the optimists, the "sick soul" of the "twice-born," whose "divided self" requires to be unified by "conversion." This last symptom is psychologically traceable to what is primarily subliminal feeling, even though the religions may ultimately be right in deriving it from a divine source. In "saintliness" we see the best fruits of the religious experience, and a type of character abstractly higher than that of the strong man, and socially invaluable, even though its forms must change with the times. We may note here a striking plea for accepting poverty rather than war as the proper satisfaction of the ascetic and strenuous instincts, and the warning that "the fear of poverty among the educated classes is the worst moral disease from which our civilization suffers" (p. 369). The mystical states of consciousness, though psychologically analogous to intoxications, especially by nitrous oxide, yet indicate our soul's continuity and union with something higher. Authoritative for those who experience them, they prove to others that the normal rational consciousness is surrounded by potential other types which "have probably somewhere their field of application and adaptation." The value of philosophic theory for religious life, on the other hand, is entirely secondary. Its real source is feeling, which uses the intellect to formulate arguments for its convictions. As proofs, these arguments lack cogency, either logically or psychologically, and leave behind irreducible divergences of opinion.

Thus the psychological survey leads to the conclusion that when what is common to the various manifestations of the religious spirit is extracted and what is due to differences in time, place, phrase, and temper eliminated, it would seem (1) that the world is part of a spiritual universe, whence its chief significance comes; (2) that union with it is our true end; (3) that in prayerful communion there is a real influx of spiritual energy, which (4) infuses a new zest into life and conveys an assurance of peace and safety.

All this no doubt is biologically valuable, but is it objectively true? Professor James answers that at least our continuity with something wider, in which our ideal impulses originate, seems indisputable. But what is the source of these infiltrations from the subliminal, remains a matter for "over-beliefs," as to which men naturally differ. He himself claims to share the "piecemeal supernaturalism" of the plain man, and holds it meaningless to call "God" an absolute Whole, which cannot be conceived to change in response to our action, and makes no difference to any concrete particular fact; he believes that the larger power is real, that in the "faith-state" and "prayer-state" we really interact with it, and that by our reaction its action may be modified and facilitated. The very fact that this larger power is useful, active, and partial (in both senses of the word) renders it finite, and leaves comparatively unimportant the question whether it should be conceived as "God," or as "possibly a larger self of which the present is only a mutilated expression." For the decision of this question, as well as for the systematic account of his "pluralism," we must await Professor James's promised work on metaphysics; meanwhile, one wonders how much longer it will be possible to maintain the traditional ambiguity in the term "God." Professor James has clearly indicated the necessity of a choice between the finite power which satisfies him and the impotent Absolute of Mr. F. H. Bradley, and if the brilliance and suggestiveness of his writing can evoke a popular demand for such a choice, his book may easily come to mark a new era in the history of thought.

*Japan To-day.* By Alfred Stead. E. P. Dutton & Co.

At the banquet given to the first embassy ever sent abroad by the Emperor of Japan, at the Grand Hotel in San Francisco, in 1872, Mr. Hirobumi Ito, then a dapper young man of thirty-one, made a genuine "American speech," outlining the progress of his nation, and concluded with these words:

"'The red disk in the centre of our national flag should no longer appear like a wafer over a sealed empire, but henceforth be in fact what it is designed to be, the noble emblem of the rising sun, moving onward and upward amid the enlightened nations of the world."

Mr. Alfred Stead's new volume, bound in white linen, has on it the bright red disk and expanding stripes which are intended to represent the rising sun. Unfortunately, by limitation on the book cover, the effect suggested is that of sudden glare rather than steady radiance. When read, his hasty monograph proves to be a literary poster with only flat color effects and wholly lacking perspective. The Marquis Ito furnishes a benevolent preface which concludes with "warmest wishes for the unparalleled success of the undertaking." The "undertaking" consists of thirty-two chapters dealing with things on the surface, as they are in the current year. The transparent purpose of the work is to inform the British taxpayers concerning their new ally. Two great men are especially set before us, without regard to space, and with fulsome praise lavished on each. One is Shibusawa, the unofficial leader of finance, and the other is Ito, whom the author calls "the creator of a nation"; and no one will deny the ceaseless activity and brilliant powers of the "Father of the Constitution," who has a genius for building upon the work of the statesmen who went before him and getting the whole credit of it, and for taking adroit advantage of every opportunity. In picturing Ito's colleagues, Mr. Stead displays more sanity and proportion.

On most subjects about which information is not to be got by hasty interviews over a lunch table, or through the medium of pidgin English, the author writes wildly. Two statements on page 56 are specimens. When Mr. Stead says, "There are some 4,000 foreign missionaries in Japan," he is furnishing rhetoric rather than facts, unless he counts in the children and babes of the alien teachers. When he declares, "At the time of the Restoration there were about 8,000,000 adherents of 'Bushido,'" he is about as near the truth as when he attempts to describe what Bushido (the Knightly Way, or Mirror of Chivalry) is. In further announcing that "if all of these 8,000,000 were to make an effort to spread 'Bushido,' it would be a comparatively easy task to do it," he reveals his sanguine temperament and the worker with the nib, rather than the toiler in the processes of centuries of education.

Mr. Stead is right in emphasizing the unique power of the Emperor. It may be even true that, for the present at least, "he is greater than the Constitution itself." Next to him in influence are the "elder statesmen," that is, the survivors of that noble band who wrought the restoration of the Mikado to his ancient authority and to vastly more power than he or they could then dream of, in the civil and military campaigns of 1868. To the Emperor himself, no one can quite take the place of these veterans, and in this fact lies one of the best of the national safeguards. It is probably true, also, despite all the outward show and the boasting of the younger men abroad, that, although the Japanese have a constitutional government, "his mere word outweighs the whole Constitution, and can change the course of events more easily than years of effort by however eminent a statesman. . . . To the general mass of the people the Emperor takes the place of the supreme deity and has reverence accordingly." While the elder statesmen and the Emperor have any mental vigor, it is probable that the younger men will have slight chance of accomplishing anything which the former do not approve. It is this condition of affairs, long well known to Britain's rulers, that has inspired such trust in the Government of Japan, in the soundness of its statesmanship, and in the value of an alliance.

When Mr. Stead is not taking us into his confidence, by "revealing" wonders (communicated largely through servants), as he so often does, he is quoting freely from translations of native authors and newspapers that are apt to be ultra-patriotic. One does not get much real knowledge from his chapters on modern charities and philanthropy, because of the simple fact that, so far as these exist, they have been very largely instituted by the initiative or at the suggestion of aliens. To the discussion of the labor problem, however, he brings illuminating facts and figures. Early in this very year a great mass-meeting of workmen, "some 30,000 in number," was held to urge the making of proper labor laws, the protection of child and female workers, and the right of voting at parliamentary elections. It was resolved that "the 3d of April every year shall be the appointed day for the Japanese workingmen's grand social gathering." The chapters on education are sketchy and very thin, but on commerce, industry, patents, inventions, finance, and merchant shipping, the military and naval service, the author speaks with better knowledge, for here the statistics are easily accessible and the facts are patent.

While Mr. Stead does not hesitate to acknowledge some weak spots in the body politic, his general tone is highly optimistic. He considers that, allied to England, "Japan is now *the* great Power of the Far East." Being insular, her chances of successful invasion are materially reduced, and her situation enables her to deal promptly and effectively with affairs outside her borders. Her fleets are near their base, and are secure of their coal supply. On the whole, we may agree with him that, "with Japan openly allied to Great Britain, the Far Eastern world will no longer resemble a powder magazine, around which the flames of war are ever flaring."

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*The Story of Cairo.* By Stanley Lane-Poole, Litt.D., M.A., Professor of Arabic at Trinity College, Dublin. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Pp. xx, 340. 32 illustrations.

Inclusively and exclusively, Cairo, past and present, is a mediæval town. It was founded at the beginning of what we obscurely picture to ourselves as the Middle Ages; its period of glory as an imperial city fell within these bounds, and to-day it is a survival of a dead past, pursuing its old life unchanged in the very current and vortex of the dominant and intolerant present. For in the East it is the people which survives. The Cairene—and he is Cairo—lives on, untouched by the centuries, unsympathetic in his soul with all this rush and change around him, ready to fall back in a year or a month into the dream life from which he has been shaken. His buildings may drop into rubbish heaps or melt into the mud of the Nile, but he, as unchanged as the pyramids, listens unmoved to tales of railways joining him with the Cape, and of dams to double Egypt. And so it comes that Cairo, unlike Toledo and Pisa—dead and mummied relics of a vanished Europe, preserved in their great stone sepulchres—is of the Middle Ages only, and yet still lives, and with no galvanized vitality, into our day.

The right of Cairo, then, to enter among Messrs. Dent's "Mediæval Towns" is safe, even though the common binding of the series, with its mitre and knightly helmet, its crozier and jousting lance, goes strangely with the city of Saladin and the second home of the 'Arabian Nights.' Such symbols Cairo has known only briefly and hastily, though perhaps Sir John Maundeville, when he served with the Soldan, may have amused the streets of Babylon with a display of a hot northern panoply. Equally safe, too, was the choice of Professor Lane-Poole to write this little book. As an authority on the art, architecture, and history of mediæval Egypt, he has no English-speaking rival. And the book which he has produced is as charming as it is thorough, a book to dream over and yet to study. In the skeleton of an analysis its glamour must vanish, but a few names may show the air here breathed. We have the story told of the successive cities which rose from the time when Amr, the conqueror, pitched his tent and founded the armed camp hence called Fustat, through its gradual growth of faubourgs, till at last the very name Cairo was given to the newer palace-town founded by the conquering Fatimids. Again another period of growth followed, closed by Saladin's citadel and walls. Last came the Grand Cairo of the 'Arabian Nights,' the city whose streets have been trodden in dreams by every European child. It was the creation of the Mamluks, and meant Cairo as it stood till, in the last fifty years, a European suburb grew up to stand beside the old, mediæval town.

Such, dryly, has been the history. But all, as here described, is instinct with turbulent vitality; splendid periods of art and science, of luxury and corruption, of cruelty and refinement, alternating with equally splendid anarchy and destruction. Life as it was really lived in the valley of the Nile, with all its products of hand and brain, opens before us in glittering, colored, fantastic, changing series. It is small wonder that the Cairene finds his Cairo now of a deadly dulness, and would easily exchange an immaculate police force of drab respectability for the old exciting times when the head was loose on the shoulders and a heavy-handed man had a chance. We are left with the question, Does the East really want the security and justice after which Europe toils? Is the problem of Plato's

'Republic' really as fundamental to the Oriental mind?

But over the value of this delightful little book there can be no question. The only pity lies in the size, and that the illustrations could not have been more full.

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*History of the Church of England from the Abolition of the Roman Jurisdiction.* By Richard Watson Dixon, D.D. Vols. v., vi. 1558-1569. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1902.

*The Elizabethan Prayer-Book and Ornaments.* With an Appendix of Documents. By Henry Gee, D.D. Macmillan. 1902.

Dr. Dixon's earlier volumes, which appeared in 1877, 1880, 1885, and 1890, traced the fortunes of the English Church, its progress and retrogression, from Henry's quarrel with the Pope to Mary's death, 1529-58. Ecclesiastical history is not the most alluring of subjects, and, when dealt with on so large a scale, appeals to but a limited audience; but this work deserved and won praise for research, fairness, and good English. Its author was a canon of Carlisle from 1868, vicar of Hayton, Cumberland, 1874-83, and thenceforth of Warkworth, Northumberland; his degree came from Oxford, just before his death. Poetry was something more than his recreation, and he put forth at least four volumes of verse; but his fame will rest on his historical labors, which were strenuous and most conscientious. "Frail in body, and remote from the great collections of manuscripts," he followed the modern methods of investigation with a diligence and capability which are likely to leave his book for some time in possession of its field. His use of the original sources led him to differ frequently from Strype, Burnet, and others of his predecessors. He died January 23, 1900, having just finished his sixth volume, which reaches the twelfth year of Elizabeth's reign.

The new Queen's course was predetermined by circumstances. Whatever her preference for old ways, she was constrained to stand for so much of progress and liberty as was the needful support of her throne. A contemporary poem recites the list of Marian martyrs, and ends each (or most) of its numerous stanzas with the ardent refrain, "We longed for our Elizabeth." Prerogative was much nearer Elizabeth's heart than Protestantism, *per se*, but the two had to stand or fall together. Yet boldness must be tempered with caution and tact, for nearly all the clergy and most of the people were yet unreformed; the bishops had to be endured for a brief season. The completion of the house-cleaning, like its beginnings under Henry, was to be mainly political in its motives and secular in the means employed.

Dixon refutes the old story that the bishops would not attend the coronation on January 15, 1559. Oglethorpe of Carlisle (who was deprived with others five months later) did the crowning. By this time all was ready for the great acts which fixed the character of this reign. When blamed for fostering heresy, the Queen showed her wisdom and manliness (that is the appropriate term) by calmly replying, "I am a heretic." The litany, epistle, and gospel had been read in English on New Year's day. Parliament was convened January 25; the House of Commons "was an assembly of nominees of the crown." Here was promptly introduced the Act of Supremacy, "to restore to the crown the ancient jurisdiction over the estate ecclesiastical and spiritual, and abolishing all foreign powers repugnant to the same." It was passed on February 25. The Act of Uniformity, based on two similar acts of Edward VI., and restoring, with a few alterations, the English service of that reign, took a little longer, for the bishops and their adjutants made their last fight here, but on May 8 the session ended; four days later the Prayer-Book was introduced in the Queen's chapel, and in all the churches June 24. In it the Ornaments Rubric, taken from the final clause of the Act, preceded the Order for Morning Prayer, and restored such ornaments (*i. e.*, vestments) as had been used in the second year of Edward VI.

Other events of that period are dwarfed by the supreme importance of these enactments. In May (apparently) the "Evangelics" (not yet called Puritans) offered to the Queen a Declaration of their doctrines, based on the Forty-two Articles of Edward. This document, which "has received little notice in history," should appeal to theological antiquarians. Less unfamiliar is the embarrassing position of the bishops. The new Oath of Supremacy required nothing more than some of them had submitted to under Henry and Edward; but since then the Smithfield fires had raged with their active or passive coöperation, and they perhaps felt that dignity assigned a limit to Vicar-of-Bray mutations. On May 30 Bonner and Dean Cole of St. Paul's refused to take the oath, and were deprived. Five bishops followed their example on June 21, and others later; Kitchin of Llandaff alone complied, after granted delay. Chiefly to secure conformity, a Royal Commission was established June 24, to be succeeded July 19 by the Court of High Commission. Melancholy results, in part inevitable, followed. Nearly two hundred clergy refused the oath and were deprived. Their places, and especially those of the bishops, could not be filled at once. Scenes of vandalism and iconoclastic bigotry succeeded; the vacant sees were plundered, and during the first years of this reign there was wholesale destruction of church "goods." Official "visitors" led in this bad business; on August 24, 1559, "two great bonfires of roods and of Maries and Johns and other images" blazed in London. Yet the ejected clergy were far less numerous than a century later, under both Commonwealth and Restoration; and the Marian prelates and dignitaries were treated with exemplary lenity. When church and state are united, one or other has to be on top; and while the spirit is abstractly superior to the body, a spiritual organization has usually shown itself less to be trusted than one of humbler pretensions.

The earliest events of Elizabeth's reign were the crucial ones. Next in importance was the filling of the bishoprics, and especially the primacy. Parker was consecrated December 17, 1559; the Nag's Head tale was first published in 1604, and has long been classed with the Protestant fable of Pope Joan. Convocation met in 1563 and revised the Articles of Religion, reducing them to 39. Here it was proposed to dispense with the surplice, to abolish organs, most festivals, the sign of the cross in baptism, etc., and to say the prayers facing the people. Some of these motions were nearly carried. The Church was in a way to be Calvinized or Lutheranized, when the Queen stepped into the breach with sharp orders to her bishops to restore or enforce uniformity. If her influence did not anticipate the attempts of Laud and the Oxford movement long after, it at least pointed in that direction.

Dixon's sixth volume traces the rise and growth of Nonconformity, a subject not unfamiliar. The differences concerned not doctrine, but discipline and worship. Beyond 1570 the history has yet to be written on this scale and with equal clearness and freedom from prejudice. Time was when the annals of church or sect meant axe-grinding, the support at any price of assumed tenets. Canon Dixon's aim was to recover the facts, to set them forth simply and luminously, and to draw such inferences, if any, as the facts might justify.

Dr. Gee, who saw Dixon's closing volumes through the press, differs from his friend on one point. Dixon, following Strype, held that Elizabeth's Prayer-book was a new or revised book; Gee holds it to be a mere restoration of Edward's second book, 1552. The matter is complicated by a contemporary blunder; the appendix or proviso to the Act of Uniformity enforces the "ornaments" of Edward's first and second years, 1547-1549, the Elizabeth book those of Edward's second manual, 1552; moreover, one lays stress on retention, the other on use. Here, then, was an "ornaments" rubric—having been changed in the printed copies to conform with the proviso of the Act—in direct opposition to the tone of the rest of the Prayer-book; and here was matter for a fierce and envenomed controversy. All this may be read at length in Dr. Gee's book, with Guest's letter, on which it is supposed to hinge, and much more that is of interest to students of liturgics, if not to those who share F. W. Robertson's large contempt for "litany makers." The appended documents—"Device for Alteration of Religion" and others—are important as those on which much of the history of that pregnant era is based.

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*Das Alte Lied vom Zorne Achills* aus der Ilias ausgeschieden und metrisch übersetzt von August Fick. Göttingen. New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1902.

Nearly fifty years ago an attempt was made in Germany to reduce the dirges sung over Hector's body in the last book of Homer's Iliad to symmetrical form—preferably into strophes or stanzas of three verses each. This attempt was not unreasonable because of the lyric character of the lament, which approaches melic poetry. About the same time, another German scholar assumed for the original form of the Homeric Catalogue of Ships stanzas of five verses, urging that the catalogue would be remembered more easily and accurately if each of the geographical and political districts enumerated were in a definite frame. For such a division considerable support can be found in the text, though it cannot be carried through without violence. Other Germans have sought to show that the dialogue of Greek tragedy was composed not only symmetrically, but on certain basic numbers, of which the number thirteen has

been much used in these discussions. The theory is a pretty one at first sight; the Greek tragedians were not content with symmetry and correspondence in their choral odes, but sought also a balance between the different parts of their dialogue. Such correspondence or balance of speeches Ritschl had pointed out in the "Seven against Thebes" of Aeschylus, and others have made the like clear in the same poet's "Prometheus." The comparison between the structure of a Greek play and that of a temple, or a pediment group of statuary, became more obvious. Those who discovered the principle were tempted to carry its application too far (though this does not hold of Ritschl), but the truth remains that the Greek poets at times attached more importance than poets of to-day to the exact balance of parts of their work.

In 1887 Fick published his two "discoveries," that the poems of Hesiod were composed in a dialect free from Ionic peculiarities, and that they were arranged in groups of three verses or in multiples of three. So the 'Theogony' was reduced from the 1,022 verses of ordinary editions to three groups of 144 verses each, or 432 verses in all, while from the same poet's 'Works and Days' three poems were formed—two of 72 verses each and a third of 144 verses. As if this were not sufficient ingenuity for a single work, in an appendix the author announced his further discovery that eleven is the basic number of the Homeric poems, and that the number of verses in the larger or smaller divisions of the original, primeval lay on the Wrath of Achilles is eleven or a multiple of eleven. His arguments and illustrations in support of this thesis have been repeated and augmented, with some modifications, in Bezzenberger's *Beiträge*, one of the most recondite of German philological publications.

Fick now presents his theory to the cultured public, offering a German translation in hexameter verse of the original Wrath of Achilles, as he conceives it to have been composed by Homer. The whole makes a poem of 1,936 verses, in four books, each of which is divided into two lays, in stanzas of eleven verses each. The first lay has twenty-five stanzas in five sections—Introduction, 9 stanzas; Beginning of Quarrel, 7 stanzas; Athena's Interference, 5 stanzas; Nestor's Attempt at Reconciliation, 3 stanzas; Achilles's last word, 1 stanza. What could be more symmetrical than this pyramid—9, 7, 5, 3, 1? But this is not all. The first reviser (the *Erweiterer)* exactly doubled the original work, making eight books instead of four; and, of these eight, half had each 517 verses, and the others each 451 verses, or 3,872 verses in all. The second reviser (the *Erbreiterer)* again exactly doubled the work which came into his hands, making sixteen books instead of the eight of the *Erweiterung* and the four of the original Wrath, of precisely the same length, amounting to 7,744 verses in all. Our author calls attention to the fact that this second revision, the *Erbreiterung*, if doubled like its predecessors, would give an extended form of 15,488 verses, which is only 306 less than the number of verses in our ordinary texts.

Fick is a veteran scholar in the field of Indogermanic scholarship. His 'Comparative Lexicon of the Indogermanic Languages' reached a fourth edition a dozen years ago. He has made an admirable book on Greek proper names which has reached a second edition. He has translated the Homeric poems into the Æolic dialect, and thus furnished a practical test of his theory. But even this Æolic translation of the poems, learned and laborious though it was, seemed in places hardly serious, and Fick is reported to have said that the work at least was great fun ("Es hat mir aber Spass gemacht"), and in these more recent Homeric investigations his laborious ingenuity seems clearly to have been misplaced. If the undertaking had not been so colossal and extended over fifteen years, we should consider it a mere *jeu d'esprit.* Whatever we may think of the probability of a poet's working in the manner proposed, and of his finding two successors to double and quadruple the work on the same principles without varying a line, a single consideration appears to be fatal to the theory. This assumes that every verse of the original poem has been preserved with not more than three or four exceptions, while we have good reason to believe that successive revisers of the poem, as they developed the work, substituting a longer passage for a shorter, not simply added but also removed. Thus we cannot assume that all the verses of the original Wrath have been preserved. Such an assumption is far more difficult since new light has been received on the Homeric tradition from the papyrus fragments found in Egypt. Another objection to the work is that it disregards all but strictly linguistic tests, and the convenience of the theory, for the age of a verse or a passage. Thus, although the author reaches an original Wrath which differs little in length from that of the Original Iliad which the recent work of Robert of Halle proposes, the two scholars agree only in the first and eleventh books and a few brief passages besides. This difference is the more marked since any such theory must accept the greater part of the first book of the Iliad as the foundation for the rest of the story.

Most of the conclusions which Fick draws with regard to early Greek mythology and archæology are naturally without weight for those who decline to accept his premises. His freedom in drawing inferences can be illustrated from his discussion of the numbers of the military forces before Troy. Of the twenty-nine contingents of the Greek fleet, two have each twelve ships. This number Fick accepts at once as normal, and reduces the fleet of Menelaus from sixty to twelve boats, without hesitation. To reduce Agamemnon's force from one hundred to twelve seems rather heroic treatment, and he allows the possibility that he may have had a double quota, or twenty-four. In a similar fashion, the number of contingents is reduced from twenty-nine to seven, and a total of eighty-four ships is reached in place of 1,186. The number of men in each boat is again reduced from seventy-five or eighty to twenty-two, and thus the number of Greeks on the expedition is made to be about two thousand—with possibly two hundred more if Agamemnon furnished a double quota of ships—instead of 100,000, which has been the usual estimate. The Trojans and their allies, also, are reduced from the Homeric 50,000 to 1,600. In these numbers, Fick is doubtless nearer the actual truth than the Homeric poems as we have them, but he might more reasonably and scientifically have guessed at 2,000 and 1,600 at once than have reached them by such manipulation as he uses. Certainly he might better have allowed each contingent but one ship with seventy men. He sustains his arguments on this point, by the way, with the quotation of a statement about the site of Troy which was printed before the true Trojan city had been identified, and which no scholar acquainted with the facts would have made since the identification.

The work is handsomely printed. The translation is scholarly, of course, and is often admirable, so far as a foreigner may judge.

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*Reconstruction and the Constitution.* By John W. Burgess. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

We have so recently considered Mr. C. H. McCarthy's work, 'Lincoln's Plan of Reconstruction,' as to make it unnecessary to examine Professor Burgess's essay at length. He certainly tells his story very well; the book is decidedly readable. We see no reason, however, for including in it an account of the Treaty of Washington and the Geneva Convention. They can hardly be said to have any relation either to Reconstruction or to the Constitution. It is not in good taste, we should say, to refer to President Johnson as a person of low birth, in view of President Lincoln's origin; but Professor Burgess certainly states Johnson's merits with convincing force, and goes so far as to declare that the nation "should write his name in the book of its heroes." On the other hand, he denounces, sometimes with positively violent language, the leaders of the Republican party who forced the disastrous "carpet-bag" governments on the Southern States. It seems clear that they will occupy a very different position in the judgment of history from that which was for a long time given them in the party platforms. They could hardly have made a more dismal failure of the work of reconstruction than they did, as Professor Burgess shows conclusively. His exposure of their reckless and unprincipled legislation is the best part of his book.

Curiously enough, Professor Burgess really belongs, politically, with the men on whom he heaps contumely. He is to a considerable extent incapacitated to appreciate the situation, from the fact that his mind is preoccupied with a definition of the "State" obtained from German sources, the application of which throws the whole subject of the war and reconstruction into confusion. According to his theory, the States of our Union never should have been called States; they were not States when they seceded, and it was absurd to treat them as States when they were restored. Of course this theory simplifies matters amazingly. All Constitutional difficulties are removed, and reconstruction becomes as easy as organizing a government for Porto Rico.

But, unfortunately for the theory, American statesmen have not been trained to think politically as they do in the German universities, and the peculiar views which they held of the nature of our States were the cause of the trouble over reconstruction. The theory on which the Northern States engaged in the war was that the Southern States were still members of the Union. Their governments were in the hands of usurpers, it was true, but the

States were in the Union, and could no more get out of it than a minority of stockholders can dissolve a corporation. As Mr. Lincoln said, to assert that the Southern States were no longer in the Union was to make the fatal admission that States, whenever they please, may, of their own motion, dissolve their connection with the Union. The Union, he thought, could not survive that admission, and he declared: "If that be true, I am not President; these gentlemen are not Congress." This theory, whether correct or not, was the original theory of the loyal North. Mr. Lincoln was right; had it not been believed that the Southern States continued to be States of the Union after the ordinances of secession were passed, the North would not have employed "coercion" to preserve the Union and the Constitution.

The furious passions aroused by President Johnson's arbitrary proceedings eventually caused this theory to be disregarded. The violent partisans who controlled the Congress and overruled the President were driven to act as if they held Professor Burgess's theory of statehood, and practically declared that there were no Southern States. The representatives of the Northern States really created a number of new States out of the territory formerly occupied by the Southern States, just as they might have created new States out of the territory conquered from Mexico. Professor Burgess, of course, does not complain of this. As there never were any Southern States, in the proper sense of the word, it was idle to talk of their rights. What he does complain of is that the work of setting up new local governments was scandalously botched. Few will differ with him on this point, and, as we have said, he tells the story well, But, for the reasons assigned above, those who wish to understand the Constitutional questions involved will not find that this book meets their requirements.

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*The Evolution of Sex.* By Profs. Patrick Geddes and J. Arthur Thompson. Revised edition. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons; London: Walter Scott. 8vo, pp. xx, 342, illustrated.

Book I. treats of male and female—of primary and secondary sexual characters and differences, and of theories relating to them. Book II. treats of the analysis of sex—of organs, tissues, cells, hermaphroditism, sex elements, egg cells, male cells or spermatozoa, and a theory of sex, its nature and origin. Book III. treats of the processes of reproduction—of fertilization, parthenogenesis, asexual reproduction, and alternation of generations; and Book IV. treats of the theory of reproduction, including facts of growth, special physiology of sex and reproduction, organic immortality, psychological and ethical aspects of sex, laws of multiplication, and the reproductive factor in evolution.

By means of gleanings from the conclusions reached, something may be shown of the character and inclusiveness of the work. A fundamental idea in it is, that male and female differ in regard to protoplasmic changes (metabolism); the female being less active, longer lived, and more given to construction or upbuilding (anabolism), and the male being more active and more affected by disruptive changes (katabolism). With the origin of sex two more or less divergent lines of variation are thus introduced. Sex originated as the cells developed from the protoplasm, one cell well nourished and quiescent becoming an ovum, another more hungry and more active becoming a flagellate sperm. A primary difference of male from female lies in the relative preponderance of katabolic changes, disruption. The idea that the cell nuclei alone are of importance in fertilization, the cell substance being considered a mere adjunct, is not favored. Fertilization is supposed to benefit the species in a continuance of its vitality, a sort of rejuvenescence, and it may be that it is an important source of variation. Parthenogenesis is said to be a degeneration from ordinary sexual process. Asexual reproduction occurs in many degrees, from continuous budding to discontinuous multiplication; it occurs in many types, from polyzoa to tunicates. Alternation of generations may be described as a rhythm between a relatively anabolic and katabolic preponderance. At the limit, at the maximum or optimum of size, cell division restores the balance between mass and surface; but the actual mechanisms of the process are at present beyond analysis. Reproduction may ward off death in the protozoa, the nearest to immortal of all organisms, but it helped to cause it in the simplest metazoa.

The intellectual and emotional differences between the sexes are correlated with the deep-seated constitutional differences. Egoism and altruism have their roots in the primary hunger and love, or nutritive and reproductive activities. Emotion and activity have a common origin. Spencer's conclusion that man's future evolution must continue mainly in the direction of psychical development, decrease of fertility keeping pace with increase of individuation, is accepted. The greatest step in nature, from single-celled to many-celled animals, though bridged by loose colonies, was made not by selection of the more individuated and highly adapted forms, but by the union of relatively unindividuated cells into an aggregate, in which each became diminishingly competitive and increasingly subordinated to the social whole. These authors read creation's law as not a struggle but as love; they are not at all ready to accept an advantage or utility, ascertained or supposed, as sufficient explanation of a fact; they go farther toward the origin. Their book is an improved edition of a good work; it is a monograph which could hardly be more abridged, unless, perhaps, it might be somewhat in the amount of attention given to particular theories much discussed in the past, but now of only traditional importance.

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*Traces of the Elder Faiths of Ireland:* A Folklore Sketch. In two volumes. By W. G. Wood-Martin, M.R.I.A. Longmans. 1902.

This latest work of Mr. Wood-Martin, in two rather handsome volumes, is based in part upon his earlier book, entitled 'Pagan Ireland.' The new and much enlarged treatise constitutes one of the most ambitious efforts that have yet been made to deal with the life and religion of the ancient Irish people. Ranging all the way from "speculative geological archæology" to contemporary folklore, it professes to set forth the present state of knowledge with regard to the course of Irish paganism from the earliest times till its absorption by Christianity. This was a large undertaking, and we are bound to say that it has not been attended with much success. Perhaps the time is not ripe for such a treatise; at all events, Mr. Wood-Martin's book is so amateurish in character that it neither sets forth competently the present state of knowledge in its field, nor makes any very solid additions to such knowledge. At the same time it exhibits broad and various information based upon prolonged studies. It might be not improperly termed a learned work, and the author, by virtue of his wide acquaintance with the subject and his earlier contributions to its literature, is at least a veteran among amateurs.

Since Mr. Wood-Martin was writing for the general public, he tried to be thoroughly popular in method; and he has succeeded to the extent of being very readable. In the matter of clearness he has not done so well, and his earliest chapters especially are disorderly and confusing. In attempting to avoid the cumbersome methods of a scientific treatise, he has erred on the side of laxity, and allowed himself freedoms which are to be regretted. Thinking it too pedantic, for example, to cite his authorities in footnotes, he has left his readers with no direct means of tracing his most interesting statements or of checking his more doubtful ones. He has a way of inserting long passages of commonplace matter, enclosed between marks of quotation, without any indication of the source. At the same time he usually labels citations from Shakspere and Milton, and he credits a familiar sentence from the "Urn-Burial" to the authorship of Sir John Browne! This last lapse—and later correct references to the great English prose-writer show that it was only a lapse—leads us to add that we have seldom seen so many inaccuracies in a book so handsomely published by a good house. Some of the errors reveal positive ingenuity. Bartholomew Anglicus (I., 185) appears as "Angelicus"; Gay's Fables are assigned to "Gray" (I., 359); and "primitive rights" is once printed where "rites" must be meant (II., 315). We do not intend to give a list of the misprints we have noted; but the number of these inaccuracies, taken together with a peculiar looseness in style and paragraph structure, gives the impression that the copy was made from dictation, and never competently revised or corrected in proof.

We have spoken of certain inexcusable blemishes in Mr. Wood-Martin's work, but, judged as a scientific treatise, it has more fundamental faults. It is characterized throughout by lack of critical method. Instead of going himself to the ultimate available sources of knowledge, the author is too often contented with second or third-hand information. Thus, we are told (I., 340) that "Dr. P. W. Joyce says [Dianrecht] had a son, and a daughter Armedda, more skilful than himself." We have much respect for Dr. Joyce, but we should not quote him as if he were a contemporary of Tigernach, or somehow otherwise possessed of information unknown to the modern world. We should as soon think of saying, "Professor Goodwin declares that Pallas Athene was born from the head of Zeus!" As a result of this rather indiscriminate use of sources, Mr. Wood-Martin's material is a good deal impaired in value; and his habit of mentioning no authorities for many

statements (or else of citing vaguely an Irish manuscript of uncertain date) makes it hard to distinguish the true from the false.

In the treatment of his material, too, Mr. Wood-Martin shows the same lack of proper method. In chapter iv. he discusses Oriental elements in Irish tradition, and mentions Eastern analogues to Celtic tales; but his parallels are not all significant, and he subjects them to no critical examination. Again, in the chapter on St. Patrick (I., 245), the various problems that concern the life of the saint are altogether too summarily dismissed. The author's inability to deal with mythological problems may be inferred from the following short paragraph (I., 346):

"Irish gods were apparently but deified mortals, celebrities of their day, taken indiscriminately from the three so-called colonies of the Formorians [*sic!*], the Dedannan, and the Milesians."

This is of course nothing but the euhemerism of the old Irish annalists served up anew as mythological theory. But the most extraordinary example of Mr. Wood-Martin's capacity for going astray appears in the following passage about the ancient Irish hero, Cuchullin:

"Regarded from another standpoint Cuchullin is, to a certain extent, a mythical and mythological being, as the account of his life given in written records has apparently been remodelled on that of Christ. Cuchullin's age at death is thirty-three. He has an immortal father and a mortal mother of the royal line; he is born in a district remote from Emania, the Irish Jerusalem; when a child of ten he steals away from his mother with his little wooden shield and sword of lath to contend with the hero youths of Emania, as the boy Jesus went into the Temple to argue with the Jewish Doctors; in fact, his deeds, as a youth, are a mere adaptation of the recorded early life of Christ in the Apocryphal Gospels. He is brought up by Culand the artificer, as Christ is brought up by Joseph, the carpenter; he is employed defending the weak against aggression; the last three years of his life are full of trouble and misery; he dies, after being pierced by a dart, after taking a drink, exclaiming, 'The Gods of Erin have deserted us,' standing erect with his back to a pillar-stone to which he had tied himself; other coincidences might be given."

From the preceding quotation alone it ought to be apparent that Mr. Wood-Martin cannot be deemed a trustworthy authority upon the subject with which he deals.

We have felt bound to criticise him frankly, because it would be a pity if his theories should be taken too seriously. It now remains for us to say that his book has its uses, and that, in spite of its faults, we do not regret its publication. Judged as an uncritical collection of material upon Irish folk-lore, it is both of value and of interest. It represents a long labor of compilation, and the bibliography alone (comprising over nine hundred entries) would merit grateful recognition. Mr. Wood-Martin seems to have explored very fully the books in his list, and he has put together an elaborate account of the beliefs and practices of the modern Irish peasantry. His work thus furnishes a valuable supplement to the older Irish writings, on the one hand, and on the other hand to such treatises as Rhys's 'Celtic Folklore,' which deals chiefly with the British Celts. An abundance of local legends are cited to illustrate the survival of ancient customs and superstitions. Some of the chapters (like that, for example, which deals with the "hag" in Irish tradition) are full of suggestive matter. In a word, the Celtic scholar will find much to repay him for working through Mr. Wood-Martin's pages, and the excellent index will lighten his labors. By thus serving the convenience of scholars, 'Traces of the Elder Faiths' may prove in the end to have helped considerably toward a better knowledge of Irish paganism. But in itself the book cannot be called sound or scientific investigation.

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*The Life and Times of Alfred the Great.* By Charles Plummer. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1902.

Mr. Plummer here prints his six Ford lectures, delivered at Oxford last year, with a certain amount of additional material and copious but unobtrusive foot-notes, in a most agreeable and satisfactory little book. It would be impertinent to dilate on the author's competency. His editions of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle and Bede's 'Ecclesiastical History' are the standard editions, and have given him a place among the most distinguished students of early English history. The present work not only sustains that reputation, it also shows that Mr. Plummer is a first-rate popular expositor. The book is full of interest for the general reader, and a valuable monograph for the historical scholar. In two hundred pages it tells us everything that is known about Alfred the Great, with abundant references to previous discussions of debatable matters, and acute comments on all points of controversy. It is not to be expected that everybody will agree with everything in a discussion so beset with difficulties, but it is safe to say that none of Mr. Plummer's opinions can be neglected or waved aside by his successors.

The treatment is so compact that a thorough review would take much space. We can advert to only a few of the many interesting questions discussed. The examination of the Latin 'Life of Alfred' which passes—not without challenge—as the work of Bishop Asser, is specially noteworthy. Mr. Plummer began his investigation in an incredulous frame of mind, but has come to the conclusion that the document, though corrupt and interpolated, is probably authentic in substance. His arguments are ingenious, and some of them are hard to meet. It is unlikely, however, that they will be universally accepted. We must wait for Mr. Stevenson's long-expected edition, which will probably settle the question. The account of Alfred's own works is by far the best that has yet appeared. The translation of Bede is confidently claimed for the King (and his literary bureau), despite the Mercian dialect and the comparative literalness of the rendering. Many good Anglo-Saxonists will dissent, but we are inclined to think that Mr. Plummer has established a strong probability. The history and the topography of the Danish wars are set forth with extraordinary clearness, and the sketch of Alfred's internal administration is appreciative and moderate. The author has succeeded in bringing out the king's personality with a good deal of vividness, and with no appearance of effort.

The informality of style, due to the fact that the lectures are printed substantially as they were delivered, is a distinct relief from the stiffness of most historical monographs.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atherton, Edward. The Adventures of Marco Polo. D. Appleton & Co.
Bernstein, Herman. In the Gates of Israel. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Davis, A. W. C. Balliol College. (Oxford College Histories.) London: F. E. Robinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Hart, J. M. The Essentials of Prose Composition. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.
Henderson, B. W. Merton College. (Oxford College Histories.) London: F. E. Robinson; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Paul, H. W. Matthew Arnold. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan.
Rannie, D. W. Oriel College. (Oxford College Histories.) London: F. E. Robinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Segall, J. B. Corneille and the Spanish Drama. The Columbia University Press. Macmillan.
Smith, F. Hopkinson. Novels, Stories, and Sketches. In 10 vols. Scribners. $15.
Thompson, Rev. H. L. Christ Church. (Oxford College Histories.) London: F. E. Robinson & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
The Temple Bible: (1) The Book of the Prophet Ezekiel, edited by O. C. Whitehouse; (2) The Book of Jeremiah and Lamentations, edited by E. T. Green. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 60c. each.
Troeger, J. W. and Edna B. Harold's Discussions. (Nature-Study Readers.) D. Appleton & Co.
The "Man in the Street" Stories. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.

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*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 28, 1902.*

## The Week.

President Roosevelt went further at Boston than he had gone at Providence. He did so by arguing for national regulation not only of Trusts, or of great combinations, or of corporations doing an interstate business, but of all corporations whatsoever. His words were, "Remember, I say corporations. I do not say merely Trusts, merely combinations of corporations, or corporations under certain peculiar conditions." This means that he would have the national Government sovereign and directive in the case of every corporation doing business anywhere in this country. That sounds revolutionary, but really it amounts to no more than asserting that the United States ought to have what England has—a Companies Act. A national corporation law would be on all fours with a national bankruptcy law. Whether we shall get it or not, is another question. We ourselves do not think that we shall for many years to come. A Constitutional amendment would almost certainly be a necessary preliminary, and to talk about what we shall do after the Constitution is amended is very like predicting our action after larks have fallen from the sky. As the Senate is now constituted, it would be impossible to induce it to agree to an amendment limiting the powers of corporations in any radical manner. Practical and actual reform, we think, therefore, is more likely to come in other ways. By improving and harmonizing the corporation laws of the various States, so as to make them conform to the Massachusetts type, and to destroy those snug harbors which piratical speculators find in the lax laws, limply enforced, of certain States, we are more apt to make real progress than by dropping everything to go in for national control. If State courts, furthermore, were to assert a more continuing sovereignty of the State over the corporation which it creates, it is easy to see that an effective step in advance would be taken.

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The President's words on Saturday about the mischief of "great fortunes not used aright," and about the "ugly baldness" of the follies and vices displayed by "the wicked who prosper," will find an echo in many hearts. They fall fittingly at a time when ostentation by the vulgar rich has been reaching its acme of offensiveness, when the gambling spirit, both in finance and in high play by the admired plungers at Saratoga, has been rampant, and when press and public have stood staring or been running agape at every rumor or authentic report of luxury surpassing all records for fantastic or barbaric forms. It is good to have a Chief Magistrate to whom all this is so frankly repellent, and who lets it be known that it is. In view, however, of the very obvious lurch to luxury which this country has taken since the Spanish war, we think that Mr. Roosevelt and others of his way of thinking and talking about the discipline of war would do well to revise their theories. They held up war to us, it will be remembered, as the great moral tonic of which a luxurious age was in need. It was to prevent our fibre from deteriorating. It was to make us live laborious days. Under the sharp appeal of military duty, the nation was to cease to think about the comforts and elegancies of life, was to give up reckoning happiness in terms of the bank account, and was to scorn all delights except the stern joy of the warrior. This theory always seemed to us bizarre psychologically and ludicrous historically. Being brutalized or else made sybaritic by the luxury which always sweeps in with new floods in war-time, has been the historic danger of war. Capua is never far from Cannæ. Napoleon's wars did not exactly make the French a modest, simple people, despising the pleasures of sense. Even a struggle so essentially heroic and ideal as our civil war was attended and followed by an invasion of insensate displays of new-found wealth. George Ticknor was no Cato the Censor, yet he wrote to a friend abroad in the days of the desperate fighting between the Rapidan and Richmond in 1864, "Meanwhile, luxury reigns as it never did before in Boston, New York, and through the North generally."

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Mr. Roosevelt rendered a public service at Hartford on Friday, when he administered a deserved rebuke to sundry "first citizens" who had tried to snub the Mayor of the city because he was only a salesman in a clothing-store when he was elected. The natural and proper thing, of course, would have been to pursue the same course at Hartford in the reception of the President as at New Haven earlier in the afternoon—that is, have the chief magistrate of the city meet him on his arrival and accompany him in his carriage. This would have been done if the Mayor had been a "leading citizen"; but, as he is not, he was thrust aside at the railroad station and put in the third carriage, while a rich and prominent business man was called upon to act as host for Hartford. As soon as Mr. Roosevelt learned the situation, he sent word to the Mayor that he should be pleased to see him at the house where he was to stay, and in opening his speech that evening he took pains to mention the Mayor by name and to recognize him as the official who represented the city on such an occasion. Altogether it was a most proper rebuke of a discourtesy which discredited all who were responsible for it.

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Study of the Congressional conventions which are now being held from week to week in different sections of the country continues to be highly interesting. The reprehensible tendency in both parties towards a "go-as-you-please race" in the various districts has reached its climax in Wisconsin. In the Milwaukee district of that State the Democrats have just nominated a young lawyer for Congress, and adopted no declaration of principles whatever. The attitude of the Democrats is less important in Wisconsin, which is Republican by a large majority, than in Nebraska, where the Opposition now have four of the six Representatives, and there will be much curiosity in the East to know what questions are pushed to the front there. The Democratic convention in the district which includes Omaha nominated a candidate for Congress on Saturday week, and adopted a platform presenting the issues considered most promising in that region. No allusion is made to the matter of Cuban reciprocity, which is the burning question in the neighboring State of Kansas—it must be remembered that Nebraska has a number of sugar-beet factories; nor is there any reference to the Philippine issue. The Fowler banking bill is condemned as "designed to build up a gigantic banking Trust, and to place in the hands of a few great banks the control of the banking facilities and finances of the country"; compulsory arbitration is favored in disputes between capital and labor "in all cases where the public becomes a sufferer," and such legislation as may be necessary to secure this is favored. But chief stress is laid upon "the tremendous growth and multiplication of Trusts under Republican rule, and the enormous tribute those Trusts have wrung from the American people"; and, as a means of securing relief, it is declared that "we favor legislation by Congress which shall remove tariff duties on Trust-made goods, and place under Government supervision and control corporations which have acquired monopoly powers in the business world."

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While public interest in the revision of the tariff is obviously more general and keen beyond the Alleghenies than in the Eastern part of the country, there are indications in New York and New England that Republicanism is disturbed by the issue even in those States most

strongly wedded to the protective system. There is, for example, a growing agitation among the shoe and leather interests of New England for a removal of the duty on hides, which they find it increasingly hard to endure. Still more significant is the recent breach in the American Protective Tariff League, which has its headquarters in New York city. When the question of Cuban reciprocity became acute, the board of managers held a meeting, and a majority, with characteristic stupidity, decided that the League must oppose any such measure because its constitution declares the object of the body to be the protection of American labor by a tariff on imports "which shall adequately secure American industrial products against the competition of foreign labor." Thereupon Cornelius N. Bliss, who was one of the founders of the League, and its president for seven years, resigned from the Board of Managers, and five other members of the League went out with him on the same issue.

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Republican party organs in Illinois are making efforts to explain away the recent revelations concerning the 5 per cent. assessment of State employees, but they are finding their task a difficult one. Even the Chicago *Tribune*, which, while strongly Republican, can hardly be described as a party organ, makes a feeble attempt to show that the real blame for the whole unfortunate state of things rests with the late ex-Gov. Altgeld, who, the *Tribune* says, devised the assessment system, and left it in full operation to his Republican successor, Gov. Tanner. Gov. Tanner, it appears, weakly fell into a temptation so alluring, and passed the system on to Gov. Yates, who evidently received it with enthusiasm. The plea of the strictly party organs is less apologetic. The "contributions" were "voluntary," they declare, and the expenditure was "legitimate"; the money, "generally speaking," having been used to subsidize a long list of country newspapers through the "yearly subscription plan." The Chicago *Evening Post* remarks that this logic is good enough for some of the inmates of the Kankakee asylum, and it swells the general demand that the next Illinois Legislature shall pass a law prohibiting this barefaced violation of the principles of civil-service reform.

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The navy game of 1902 is most likely to be remembered for Rear-Admiral Higginson's excellent parody of a historic surrender. "Keep your sword, sir," he said to Commander Pillsbury, who had sailed plump into the defending fleet—"keep your sword. I could not take the sword of so gallant and noble a foe." It is doubtful if the event deserved any more serious treatment. The manœuvres have proved what everybody already knew, that it would be almost impossible for a hostile fleet to effect a landing on our coast; that an inferior fleet sailing regardlessly up to a superior one sails to destruction; that two fleets may operate in the same waters for a week without either knowing of the other's movements. In fact, these elaborate preparations have, so far as a mere layman can see, merely enforced the trite lesson of the limitations of naval foresight. We shall not be suspected of belittling the performance of the week if we say that the result seems very meagre when one takes into account the number of honest North Shore folk kept up o' nights, the tons of paper that have been blackened, and the waste of amateur strategy that has been involved. Pending the official report which will tell us how much or how little the fiasco off Thatcher's Island has contributed to naval theory, the mock gravity of the two commanders seems the most felicitous comment upon the battle of the fleets.

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There is a gospel hymn which bids us all "scatter seeds of kindness." Nowhere is this injunction more faithfully acted upon than in the Department of Agriculture at Washington. In fact, for a long period the Department scattered only this kind of seed. As seed, it used to be alleged that it rarely grew—indeed, that cotton seed was often sent to Maine and buckwheat to Alabama—but it served equally well as a remembrance from one's Congressman and as an assurance that Uncle Sam had a tender care for his farmer boys. The reception of a package was supposed to give to the farmer the kind of thrill that Thackeray had in walking with a lord, or that a British tradesman feels in fingering the card of his M.P. The Department of Agriculture no longer plays this farce, but at least distributes seeds that will grow in the locality to which they are sent. It may be said that this is perilously near converting a courtesy into a dole; the seeds that never grew were, of course, no more useful to a farmer than a carload of cut flowers is to a débutante, and might be accepted without loss of self-respect. It is possibly to evade some scruple which the improvement in the quality of Congressional seed might arouse, that the Department has invented a brand-new method of scattering these seeds of kindness. Small packages containing a selection "suitable for the window-box or small garden," will be distributed to the schools, for the purpose of leading the children into a love for "nature study" and a knowledge of the rudiments of agriculture. Thus every Congressman has a ready means of showing his yearning for the children of his district, and through them of reaching the affections of all mothers who are amateurs of window-boxes and small gardens. It is only when seen from the vantage-point of the Department of Agriculture that practical politics has this idyllic look. The image of those blooming window-boxes fragrantly winning votes is as pleasing as any evoked by the reading of 'Evangeline' or 'Hermann and Dorothea.' To be sure, it costs a matter of $270,000 a year to scatter these seeds of kindness. But what is cash when sentiment is involved?

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It is a curious sequel to Mr. Chamberlain's conference of Colonial Premiers that Premier Bond of Newfoundland should take just this occasion to return to the long-suspended Blaine-Bond Convention—a treaty which would constitute an additional obstacle to the incorporation of Newfoundland in the Dominion of Canada. And yet Premier Bond is undoubtedly right in preferring a present good to a remote and dubious benefit, while in this matter Newfoundland has little reason to be grateful to the Dominion. In 1890 Premier Bond negotiated with Mr. Blaine a reciprocity treaty which may briefly be described as the exchange of free bait for free fish. Newfoundland was to waive the various taxes and restrictions concerning the sale of bait, which had long been a source of vexation and unnecessary expense to American fishermen; the United States was to admit fish from Newfoundland free of duty. It would be hard to conceive a fairer exchange. Their bait was indispensable to our fishermen on the Grand Banks; our markets were valuable to their fisheries, which, however, threatened no formidable competition to our own. When the Blaine-Bond Convention was disapproved by Lord Salisbury, at the instance of the Canadian Government, it was understood that the negotiations were merely suspended until the Dominion should complete a similar fisheries arrangement with the United States. Practically, Canada soon occupied a dog-in-the-manger position. Twelve years have passed, and the varying attempts at a general reciprocity agreement between Canada and ourselves have failed. It is clear that the British Government could no longer with any semblance of right prevent Newfoundland from pursuing her independent policy.

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We learn that a controversy has arisen in Canada as to whether frogs are fish or game, and that the question has to be decided, "owing to the fact that the exportation of frogs to the United States has become a big business." It seems that if frogs are game, the close season for them must be determined by the Provincial authorities, while if they are fish the Dominion authorities must decide. The question whether they are fish or game concerns Canadians only, but if the exportation of frogs to the United States has become "a big business," we are glad to have our atten-

tion called to it, and we want to know what is going to be done about it. We have spoken of this matter before, and pointed out that the only protection given the American frog is a miserable 10 per cent. customs tax on the imported product, carelessly classified among "articles not otherwise enumerated." This has got to stop! Are we so weak that we must consent to stand idly by while "a big business" is going on in Canada, furnishing frogs for our markets, and all the time our own domestic frogs hopping around without the slightest attention from our statesmen? What are Secretary Shaw and Congressman Cannon talking about? Of course, we must have tariff revision, and that speedily. The tariff must be revised in favor of the American frog.

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The friendly suggestion of a German newspaper that the United States should "clean up" Hayti, and "enable white men to do business in that country," shows, first, that our qualities as good house-cleaners are beginning to be recognized, which is gratifying; and, second, that the aim of all interference with backward nations for their good is "to do business with them." And yet the Government at Washington is likely to feel that such a suggestion is rather "academically correct"—Secretary Shaw's term for impracticable tariff reduction—than of immediate importance. A little experience of the cleaning-up process has shown us its difficulties, particularly when the cleansing has been applied forcibly to those who prefer their own manner of life and are careless of doing business with the nation which is chastening them for their good. Then, if we once started on the cleaning-up process in the Antilles and in Central and South America, where could we stop? Colombia and Venezuela both have revolutions on hand; Chili, Argentina, and Peru have several outstanding quarrels; while even Bolivia and Brazil are more or less at odds over the "rubber state" of Acre. Possible the German counsellor who would see us start out on a tour of sanitation through the backward American republics, beginning with the "exclusive black régime" of Hayti, forgets that we have a very pretty race problem of our own, for which business in remote regions must wait. If there has been any reflex good from the heedless expansion of recent years, it has been this, that painful experience with other people's house-cleaning has at last recalled certain old-fashioned notions about setting our own house in order. But a German critic could hardly realize how little the American people can to-day be caught by the Imperialist chaff for which its appetite was unlimited, two years ago.

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In the *Économiste Français* of August 2, M. Leroy-Beaulieu gives a review of the business situation of the world, two months after the conclusion of peace in South Africa. The expectation of renewed prosperity in consequence of the termination of the war has not been fulfilled. In fact, it ought not to have been expected. The business of war is slaughter, cessation of industry, and destruction of property. It is the reverse of everything which makes "good times." The results of two years of fighting and the unproductive expenditure of a thousand million dollars are not to be erased by signing a treaty of peace. Time alone can restore the useful things which war has swept away. Even the Transvaal gold mines will require two years' trial and a hundred million dollars of fresh capital to put them in as good a position as they were in when the war began. Although the business situation in Europe is not now brilliant, it is, in Leroy-Beaulieu's opinion, highly encouraging, because it promises continued peace. In Turkey alone is there any cause of inquietude. As to the United States, he thinks that speculation has been going at too rapid a pace, and that the scaffolding of our gigantic Trusts does not possess the solidity that might be desired. "It would not be surprising," he says, "if, in the course of a year or eighteen months, there were a strong reaction in the United States, if not even a panic."

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The selection of M. J. J. Jusserand as successor to Ambassador Cambon at Washington is in every way a happy one. M. Jusserand has been long in the diplomatic service, and represents the best traditions of the French Foreign Office. He is also an accomplished littérateur, the master of an eloquent English style, and the author of many learned and delightful books on English literature and antiquities. It is these extra-diplomatic qualifications which will make his incumbency at Washington notable. His appointment constitutes a recognition of the strong and increasing comity between French and American scholarship. Personally he will merit and will undoubtedly receive the kind of welcome that England has given to the long line of literary American ambassadors at the Court of St. James's. It is a most graceful sequel to the Rochambeau centenary to send us a man who combines in himself so much that is admirable in French diplomacy, scholarship, and letters; and the news that M. Jusserand, now at Copenhagen, consents to suspend his Scandinavian studies in favor of the American Embassy, will be heartily welcomed.

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The announcement that the German Emperor has decided to move his headquarters for the manœuvres from Posen to Frankfort-on-the-Oder will inevitably give rise to the belief that the political crisis in Prussian Poland is far more serious than has been suspected. Only a few weeks ago, it was announced that the Emperor would march into Posen at the head of 100,000 men, like some conquering hero of the Middle Ages, in order to overawe his dissatisfied Polish subjects. Now it appears that the fears of his court officials, who were known to be opposed to his going into so excited a community, have prevailed, and the Emperor and his many guests will be lodged in a city about whose loyalty there can be no doubt, and in which the secret police will have a much easier task. The latest German newspapers are full of the case of a financial official, Herr Löhning, who was removed from his position in Posen because, it was said, he had married a sergeant's daughter. The Government organs which have defended his removal are now attributing the discharge to "pernicious activity" in the Polish agitation. That a large and enthusiastic meeting of protest against the Government's policy should have been held by the Poles in Berlin is also proof of the popular excitement in the matter, which will not be decreased by the Emperor's change of headquarters. Meanwhile the Government is carrying out its plan of fighting the Polish influences by encouraging the immigration of Germans from other portions of the Empire. *Colonization gegen Polonization* is the apt popular characterization of this elaborate scheme.

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Mr. Balfour's Ministry got another facer on Friday in what was morally an overwhelming defeat in a strong Conservative constituency. In the by-election in Kent the Tory majority of two years ago was cut nearly 4,000 votes. It is obvious that any such proportionate loss in a general election would drive the Conservatives ignominiously from office. Of course, they still have their large majority in the Commons, which legally is good for five years yet; but a government must have prestige and signs of popular favor behind it, as well as a Parliamentary majority, and such a succession of defeats as the new Ministry has already encountered is terribly damaging. The chief grievances alleged are the Education Bill and the corn tax, but the indications are that the party majority has in general gone stale. It was secured under something very like false pretences in 1900, with the cry that the war was "over"; and now that nothing is really left of the war but its burdens and miseries, the reaction is in full tide. It is a critical period for Mr. Balfour's leadership, and the autumn session of Parliament will show whether he is able to read aright the signs of the times. One may imagine the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain experiencing just now, as he contemplates the plight of Mr. Balfour, the truth of the French saying that there is something agreeable in the misfortunes of one's friends.

*THE PRESIDENT ON HIS TRAVELS.*

President Roosevelt's speech at Hartford on Friday was, for the most part, a rather tedious example of what the Imperialists so greatly deprecate—a harking back to the dead past. Glorification of our motives and of our deeds in the Philippines, albeit with some confusion as to the facts of history, is so easy that we should think a man who so loathes the "easy" as the President does would not so monotonously fall into it. He pointed to our treatment of Porto Rico as the true way to administer our island possessions. But why did he not specify? Why did he not frankly say that the great reason of the Porto Ricans' prosperity and content is that they enjoy free trade with us? Almost at the very moment he was speaking, Gov. Taft was telling the Filipinos in Manila that they deserved free trade and would soon get it. Why could not the President be equally precise, instead of resorting to vague platitudes? The only apparent reason is, that the Republican party is just now torn to pieces over the tariff, and that if Mr. Roosevelt were to say explicitly that we ought to grant free trade to the Philippines, as we have granted it to Porto Rico, he would be rubbing salt into the party's wounds. But surely he cannot go on preferring what he calls "the easy and lazy thing," which would be, in this case, to be silent about an issue which is coming to have the first place politically.

The President's speech at Providence on Trusts was evidently prepared with care and deliberation beforehand, as befits the importance of the subject and the position of the speaker. Although it contains nothing really new, what it says acquires new character and increased force when spoken by the President of the United States. It is a matter of consequence, too, that Mr. Roosevelt's words are not spoken to-day in order to be forgotten to-morrow. Moreover, they do not say, "Good Lord, good devil." Although defective in an important particular, which we shall point out, they compel the Republican party either to adopt an aggressive policy toward Trusts and industrial monopolies, or to confess itself unable to deal with the most momentous question of domestic policy, and therefore unfit longer to govern the country. How this deliverance strikes the "money power" may be learned from the comments of the New York *Sun*, which not obscurely classes the speech with the utterances of Charles E. Littlefield, Eugene V. Debs, and Job Harriman, while it observes that in some ways it goes beyond those of William J. Bryan.

The President declares that the evils of industrial monopoly have reached a point which demand a stronger control than any heretofore employed. The powers of the separate States are either inadequate, or are rendered nugatory by their dispersion in so many different hands. Congressional power is alone capable of dealing effectively with the questions at issue. Whether the needed powers are available under the Constitution as it now stands, is open to some doubt. If they cannot be exercised, then the Constitution should be amended in a way to accomplish the desired end of national control over these industrial combinations. Meanwhile the President believes that Congress has power to enforce publicity upon all corporations doing an interstate business, and that this power should be exercised to the full extent. All the facts relating to Trusts and combines should be exposed. Such publicity, he thinks, would cure many of the evils complained of, but he would not stop there. He would not stop anywhere short of the subjugation of the Trusts to national control.

It has been manifest from the beginning of Mr. Roosevelt's Presidency that he must either take the lead in the campaign against monopolies or resign it to the Democratic party. The case is analogous to that which existed when the two parties were confronted by the Cuban question. If the Republicans did not take the lead in declaring war, the Democrats would become the war party and gain an advantage in the next election. That was the reason why the "stop-watch" was held over President McKinley's head by the party leaders, as the late Mr. Boutelle described. That was the reason why the leaders could not wait a few months to let Spain withdraw from Cuba with dignity. The reason why President Roosevelt cannot hold his peace, even if he wished to, in the presence of the railway mergers and the billion-dollar Trusts, is that the pesky Democrats will not allow him to rest quietly. We do not say, nor do we imply, that he would like to rest. His temperament is of the stirring kind, as he has proved on more than one occasion, and especially when he carried the franchise-tax law through the State Legislature. But if he were ever so fond of his ease, he could not indulge the sedentary habit now.

It is fair to say also that the Trust fabricators and managers are not exactly free moral agents. They, too, are impelled by circumstances. In the case of the great railway merger, it was clear that if the properties concerned were not brought together by these men, they would be manipulated by somebody else somewhat later. In short, we are in the presence of a new irrepressible conflict of opposing forces. None the less must the conflict be fought out to the end. That society will triumph over the Trusts finally, we have no doubt. The problem is to secure the triumph with the least possible violence to sound principles of government.

The glaring defect in President Roosevelt's Providence speech was his failure to take notice of the tariff as an instrument by which the industrial combines, or a portion of them, maintain their power. The very same newspapers which print his speech contain the news that contracts have been made in Chicago for iron and steel from England, because our own furnaces cannot supply the demand. Every pound of material so imported has to pay a heavy duty for the benefit of the Steel Trust and all other home producers. It is needless to say that this duty is unnecessary and is a sheer gratuity. It is needless to say that Congress has the power to repeal this duty, and by so much lessen the power of the Steel Trust. Nor can the President plead ignorance of the public desire for this method of dealing with the Trusts when the conventions of his own party in Iowa, Idaho, and elsewhere are demanding the abolition of such restrictive and unnecessary taxes. So long as Mr. Roosevelt ignores this branch of the question, he leaves his flank exposed to a fire which must become more and more galling as the fight proceeds.

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*SECRETARY SHAW ON THE TARIFF.*

To sustain the Republican contention that it is ridiculous to talk of the tariff as an issue this year, and that Grover Cleveland was a thick-head for saying it is, the Secretary of the Treasury made on August 19 a second speech to the Republicans of Vermont, all about the tariff. It was mostly devoted to explaining that the Iowa Republicans meant nothing in particular when they declared, in State Convention, for tariff revision, and especially for the abolition of all duties that serve to "shelter monopolies." This was only "academic," says Secretary Shaw, and will lead, and was intended to lead, to nothing whatever. We consider this pretty long-range shooting. Mr. Shaw had better go out to Iowa and say it to their faces. The Republicans of his State, when they insisted on overriding in their platform the timid counsels of Shaw and Allison and Wilson, asserted that they were in dead earnest about tariff revision, and especially about shearing away the protection afforded to Trusts. To learn now by way of Vermont that they were only gammoning, will make them wonder if Iowans speak the truth only when away from home.

The Secretary protested, however, that it was a mistake to "quote" him as against tariff revision. He is for it—under certain circumstances. But those circumstances are so impossible of realization that it remains true, unfortunately, that Secretary Shaw is against tariff revision. He is against, that is, any particular change at any particular time. But if the tariff is ever to be revised, the work must be begun at a given time and in a given place. Mr.

Shaw lays his hand on his heart and vows that he has never "opposed a readjustment of the tariff." But listen to his explanation: "Whenever Congress reaches the conclusion that the friends of protection are strong enough to conservatively modify certain schedules, so as to meet changed conditions and at the same time successfully resist the efforts of the Opposition to revise the entire tariff law, thus paralyzing business for a season, I shall be in favor of it." Now that is only a roundabout way of saying "never."

Thus we see that Secretary Shaw confesses the helplessness of the Republican party before the tariff problem. It does not defend existing schedules—oh, no! the Secretary protests against that charge almost tearfully. He admits that there are unjust duties, schedules that are fairly crying out for revision. But he takes a great deal of satisfaction in saying again and again that neither he nor his party is "committed" to any of these tariff taxes. But might they not as well be committed to them if they do not propose to touch them or allow others to touch them? If we were a tariff beneficiary, we should not care whether our legal favors were given to us and continued to us by a party that was not committed to them, and would not defend them, or not. The only question we should ask would be, "Will the party secure us in the possession of our plunder?" As long as Secretary Shaw's party does that, the monopolists can afford to snap their fingers at such solemn talk as his in condemnation of an unfair tariff which, nevertheless, he asserts cannot be revised.

In such frankness of public speech as Mr. Shaw's there is, however, a great benefit. He is an unconsciously severe critic of the protective tariff. Almost naïvely, he exposes it as a system of confederated selfishness. By hook and by crook, by log-rolling and by bargaining, by promises and by threats, and by cash payments for value received, powerful interests succeed in writing into the tariff the particular legislative favors they most desire. Then they take their stand firmly on the principle, "honor among thieves." That is, they fight, tooth and nail, every attempt to abolish even a flagrant tariff injustice, on the ground of "one for all and all for one," since the whole system would be brought to the earth if any man's peculiar spoils were to be imperilled. Just that, in fact, is what Secretary Shaw means when he says that you cannot modify certain duties without bringing on a general revision. In each case, the alarmed and angry beneficiaries say, "Oh, you mean to take away my pet little protection, do you? Well, I want you to understand that if you touch a penny of my plunder, I will smash your whole tariff, do you hear?" Thereupon follow expressions such as Mr. Shaw's about the danger to "prosperity" of any "protracted debate" on a corrupt tariff, and the dividers of the spoil go off chuckling, in the certainty that the Republican party has again been frightened into doing nothing about the tariff.

How inevitably a protective tariff plays off one selfish interest against another, is shown in the Secretary's assertion that the Iowa farmers would favor no tariff revision that affected their products. This is probably correct. Protection has been educating the whole country to think of tariff taxation as a game of grab, and Iowa could not be expected to lag behind other States in this national school of selfishness. Into such narrow and inconsistent notions do we necessarily drive people when we make them think of taxes, not as a means of raising needed revenue, but as an ingenious method of taking money out of one man's pocket to put it in another's. But, fortunately, men's minds become opened to the injustice of this. We believe the Iowa farmers are astir about the tariff, not so much because they think it hurts them in pocket, as because they see in it a form of public inequity. This is the thing to make the Republican leaders quake. Let the people once come to perceive that tariff taxes are used as a means of class favoritism, of giving one man an unjust advantage over his neighbor, and of destroying that equality of all men before the law which is the breath of life in the nostrils of democracy, and they will find a sure and rapid road to tariff revision. If the Republican party plaintively urges that it would like to do the work and will, but only at the Greek Kalends, another party will speedily be put in power which will not only refuse to defend tariff injustices, but will rectify them.

The Idaho Republican State Convention met just after the Republican Secretary of the Treasury had informed the nation that there is no warrant for the theory adopted by the Iowa Republicans that the tariff may "shelter monopoly," and had argued that it is a bad thing to talk about revision because it is likely to "paralyze business." Yet the convention declared boldly and clearly for this policy, announcing that "we favor a revision of the tariff, without unreasonable delay, which will place upon the free list every article and product controlled by any monopoly, and such other articles and products as are beyond the need of protection"; and giving this reason for the demand—"that many of the industries of this country have outgrown their infancy, and the American manufacturer has entered the market of the world, and is successfully competing with the manufacturers of all other countries."

The Idaho Republicans did not adopt this clear-cut deliverance because they want to snub Secretary Shaw, or to break with such other party leaders in Congress as Representatives Grosvenor of Ohio and Cannon of Illinois and Senator Hanna of Ohio, who agree with the Secretary. They did it only because forced to do so in order to have any chance of carrying their State this year. Idaho, like other Rocky Mountain States, went for Bryan by a tremendous majority in 1896, his vote being 23,192 and McKinley's only 6,314; but by 1900 there had been such a readjustment of party lines in the larger population that, on a total poll nearly twice as large, Bryan's vote was only 29,414, while McKinley's rose to 27,198, and in the Congressional fight the Fusion nominee had a plurality of but 1,227 over the Republican candidate. As the tide appears to have continued running in favor of the Republicans since 1900, there should be a good chance of the party's carrying the State this year—provided it does not affront public sentiment. It was clear that the Democrats would advocate tariff revision, and there was nothing for the Republicans to do but commit their candidate for Congress (the State has only one Representative) to a radical position; so we have the thoroughgoing demand for revision, and even the open sneer at the "infant industry" humbug.

## *STICKING TO THE POINT.*

Ashfield has built up for itself, during the many years that Professor Norton has gathered high-minded friends about him there, a peculiar name among Massachusetts towns. More truly than in former years to Marshfield or to Quincy, do the people look to it for a certain order of political deliverances. These are not in the direct line of party. They have not upon them the *cachet* of those holding great office. But they are the utterance of men to whom, as to William Penn, "it ought to be a part of a man's religion that his country shall be well governed," and who are ready with Lowell to give that supreme proof that they love their country—namely, that they loathe her shame. So it has been that voices at the Ashfield annual dinner have often been weighty with that higher statesmanship which compels the tardy obedience of statesmen. There Curtis spoke year after year. The politicians broke into their customary guffaws at his fantastic ideas of a reformed civil service, and the ephemera of the press buzzed about his head, just as they will about the men who addressed their countrymen at Ashfield on Thursday; but time showed that Curtis's fearless scrutiny of the present swayed the future, and so it may be with these fresh reminders of our shortcomings and of our duty in the Philippines.

The peculiar value of the Ashfield speeches of Messrs. Ehrich and Smith, and of Professor Norton himself, seems to us to lie in a sharp recalling of the people's attention to the main question:

that is, not how we got into the Philippines, but what we are doing there, what is to be the aim and motive of our stay, and what the signal for our withdrawal. We must stick to the point. We must not allow ourselves to be confused by minor issues and side questions. The armed insurrection is put down; true, but what answer have we for the Filipinos who urgently ask what their present status is, and what their future fate is to be? It will not do to point them to our schools, to our measures of sanitation. Certainly they will not be reassured by being referred to the swarms of exploiters and concessionaires from the United States, who are seeking their lands and their forests, their mines and their franchises. All that we can point to with pride, all that we have to allude to with shame, in our administration of the islands, goes for nothing beside the main questions: "Do we mean to hold the inhabitants as purchased chattels? Are they citizens, or are they slaves? Is their right to free and independent self-government to be admitted or to be denied?"

There is much fallacious talk about keeping an "open mind" on this subject. "Let us wait and see; let us suspend judgment; let us advance step by step." But that, as John Morley said about the proposal to give Ireland home rule "step by step," is a mere phrase and nothing more. Step by step to what goal? That is the question. If we are stepping towards Filipino independence, we must know and declare that fact before we can move our feet intelligently. The end not simply crowns the work, but determines the work. This is elementary in human conduct. We must know what our end is, or else we cannot rightly choose our means. If every extension of local government in Ireland signifies a preparation for complete home rule, well and good. If, on the contrary, it means throwing a sop in a fright to agitators, it is statesmanship that will curse its victims, and surely return to plague its inventors. The same political philosophy applies to the Philippines. We cannot go forward, as the Republican party appears to desire to do, in a state of non-committal. It is either freedom or despotism that we are laboring for, and we must make up our minds which at the start, and stick to our single purpose all the way through.

It is said that the people have lost interest in the Philippine question. Well, if they have, it is a powerful argument for our leaving at the earliest day a place where we never should have gone. If we do not let the natives manage their own affairs, and refuse to be bothered with their government or their welfare ourselves, the demonstration of our unfitness for an Imperial career is complete. But a state of apparent indifference in public sentiment may mean much or little, may indicate one drift of opinion or quite another. One thing it surely does disprove, and that is the theory that there is any general and hearty acquiescence in the notion that this republic should set about governing over-sea colonies permanently after the fashion of an empire. That would be a mighty change in our standards and in our policy; and such a change, as Burke said, would surely be accompanied by many visible signs and by great and widespread popular agitation. But nothing of that sort is perceptible. If there is, as the Imperialists gleefully allege, seeming apathy about their Philippine venture, that is the last thing in the world on which they should congratulate themselves. They are proposing a radical departure, a sharp break with our past; and they ought, if they are to succeed, to be finding vivid interest and enthusiastic support among the people. Indifference means inertia; and it must not be forgotten that American inertia is wholly in favor of free men and independent government.

What we, for our part, see in the present quiescent state of the Philippine question is evidence that this matter is being worked out apart from the confusion of war and the violent strifes of party; that the people are still trusting, as Mr. Ehrich said, in the upright intentions, as well as in the hopeful words, of President Roosevelt; that they believe the American spirit of fair play and American principles will conquer in the end. Meanwhile, the patriotic attitude is one of vigilance, to seize upon every development of the problem as it presents itself, and press its teachings home; and of continued readiness to raise at every juncture the question that will not be put by: "Is our future to copy fair our past, or are we to impose upon others a yoke which we ourselves fought to shake off, and attempt to govern 8,000,000 men across the ocean without their consent?"

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### *THE NEW BRITISH ACADEMY.*

In order to understand the scope of the institution recently chartered by the English Crown, one has only to repeat its official style. The forty-nine scholars who last winter applied for a charter now constitute the British Academy for the Promotion of Historical, Philosophical, and Philological Studies; and each of these gentlemen is, we presume, entitled to write after his name, F.B.A.P.H.P.P.S.—a dignity which deprives their reported waiver of the title of "Immortals" of much of its merit. Mr. Herbert Spencer has probably found in this case more than usual justification for his habitual refusal of academic honors. The significant omission of the word literature from the name of this Academy, the specification of the studies which it desires to promote, the list of original fellows—all show very clearly that this new body is in no way comparable to the French Academy, but rather to the affiliated academies which make up the Institute of France.

In other words, the British Academy will make no pretension to literary authority, but, whatever its immediate ambitions may be, will very soon take on the usual functions of a learned society—namely, the fostering of research, the holding of stated meetings, the publication of transactions, etc. It is well to recognize at the outset—for there has been some confusion of mind about the matter—that the eminent historians, metaphysicians, and philologists who make up this body cannot in the nature of the case form a tribunal of taste. They have been chosen strictly from the point of view of their eminence as specialists, and not at all for their general reputation in the world of British culture. It is a fortunate chance that Mr. Balfour the theologian, Lord Rosebery the historian, and Sir Leslie Stephen the biographer, have also a place in literature; but this is accidental. Many of the members are mere names to the intelligent Englishman. Literary eminence has been severely disregarded in making up the roll of fellows, or we must have had at the very least Mr. Swinburne, Mr. Meredith, and Mr. Hardy, with a selection from Mr. Stephen Phillips, Mr. William Watson, and Mr. W. B. Yeats. The Academy as it stands represents very adequately the historical scholarship of the Empire, but is not likely to have any large influence upon the cultivated public at large.

It might well be asked, then, why the project has been the subject of so much general discussion. It is simply due to the expectation aroused by the word "Academy." These same gentlemen organizing a "Society" for the promotion of their chosen studies would have been an object neither of tender solicitude nor of invidious comment. But the word Academy, which we feel they used ill-advisedly, immediately recalled Matthew Arnold's plea for a literary authority, as well as the long and distinguished sway of the Académie Française. This was an expectation which the learned men who make up the British Academy cannot possibly fulfil, and there is even danger that some painful antiquary who has not been asked to join may disinter from Cotgrave's Dictionary the participle, '*Académié*. Besotted, puzzled or plundered with too much skill, or studying."

But the grievance against the new Academy is merely a verbal one. One may predict for it a very honorable career in the way of coördinating historical research and of setting higher standards for metaphysical and philological investigation. It should do something to break up the excessive provincialism and individualism of English scholarship. But all this is likely to be apart from the main currents of British activity. The grievance of those who desire to see a genu-

ine British Academy is less with these gentlemen who have inadvertently borrowed the name, than with the English writer and the English reader who desire neither counsel nor guidance. From the middle of the seventeenth century to the present day the dream of setting up an Academy to put an end to literary anarchy in England has haunted certain superior minds, and literary anarchy has continued to prevail. When one recalls how easy it was for Richelieu to dragoon an unwilling club of literary men into the service of the state, and how cheerfully the authority of the French Academy was recognized from the first, and its purpose of assuming the control of the French language fully approved, then one gains some conception of the kind of national temperament that desires official warrant for its tastes, and authority for its intellectual recreations. This, we need hardly say, is not the British temperament.

That England would be the gainer by establishing, after the French precedent, an official aristocracy, or oligarchy, of letters, many have plausibly maintained. The history and present condition of such an institution in the field of the fine arts —the Royal Academy—does not, however, show that the English have the gift of this kind of regimentation, and many will learn with a certain relief that the Royal charter, just announced, creates merely a learned society of exceptional dignity, not in any proper sense a British Academy.

*OPERATIC DIVISION OF LABOR.*

Italian journals announced, not long ago, that the well-known Milanese music publisher, Sonzogno, had once more offered a big prize—$10,000—for the best one-act opera. Composers of all nationalities may compete, and while the libretto must be Italian, the addition of the German Humperdinck, the French Massenet, and the Belgian Jan Blockx to the list of judges guarantees that the music will not be regarded too much from the Italian point of view. Sonzogno's first competition, twelve years ago, resulted in the selection of "Cavalleria Rusticana," which, for a year or two, was sung more frequently than "Faust," "Carmen," or "Lohengrin," and carried Mascagni's fame to all parts of the world. On the strength of that triumph, he succeeded in securing the performance, on profitable terms, of half-a-dozen subsequent operas, though all of them proved failures. His engagement for a series of concerts and performances of his operas in this country, next autumn, is also, obviously, a consequence of his one success.

Generally speaking, the composing of music is about the least profitable business in which a human being can indulge. Financial success, indeed, means more even than it does in literature, but it is extremely rare. In Germany, during the last two or three decades, the only composers who have made anything worth mentioning out of their operas are Nessler, Brüll, Humperdinck, and perhaps Goldmark. Yet Germany has about seventy opera-houses, and dozens of new operas are tried on the public every year. In Italy the number of new works is as great, if not greater, and France also contributes a considerable number; yet a reasonably lasting addition to the European repertory is made only once or twice in a decade.

The question is often asked, "Why do not our American composers write grand operas?" The answer is: Because there is about as much encouragement for them as there would be if they wrote treatises on trigonometry in Anglo-Saxon or Sanskrit. One of our very best musicians, Professor Paine of Harvard, spent about ten years in writing the libretto and the music of an opera. Perusal of the vocal score shows that it is an excellent work—far better than nine-tenths of the operatic novelties. Yet there is no possibility of getting it produced in America, France, or Italy. In Germany there is a possibility, but very little probability. Some years ago, Eugene D'Albert, famous both as pianist and composer, complained in a Leipzig music journal that even well-known musicians seldom succeed in getting their operas on the stage unless they are willing to pay $5,000 or more out of their own pockets. There are numberless difficulties to surmount, chief among which are the disinclination of famous singers to spend time on a work which may have only two or three performances, and the unwillingness of managers to buy a sumptuous scenic outfit for an opera which is almost sure to prove as unprofitable as its predecessors.

Such is the discouraging situation. A ray of light, however, has suddenly come from what seemed at first a mere calamity. When the Stuttgart Opera-house burned down, a few months ago, the singers and players were confronted with the alternative of taking a long vacation, which they could not afford, or going on the road. They chose the latter. In the United States a travelling opera company is an annual phenomenon. In Germany it was a novelty, which had only one notable precursor —the Neumann-Seidl performances of the Nibelung Tetralogy after the first Bayreuth Festival. But the Stuttgarters pursued a very different policy from Mr. Grau's. When our Metropolitan Opera-house company travels, it limits its repertory to six or eight of the most familiar popular operas. With such a policy the Stuttgarters would have come to grief, for the popular operas are in each German city "worked for all they are worth" by the local manager. Therefore they tried an experiment. Their repertory included certain new operas which had not yet been produced generally. The Berliners, for instance, had not heard "Orestes," although its composer, Weingärtner, is one of the most prominent musicians in that city; nor had the opera-goers of Munich had a chance of hearing "Lobetanz," by their gifted fellow-citizen, Ludwig Thuille. By producing these operas in the Prussian and Bavarian capitals respectively, the Stuttgarters insured abundant newspaper notice, and greatly increased the interest in their visit, as well as their profits.

This experiment suggests a reform of the whole operatic situation. Why should there not be a division of labor in the production of operas, as in every other business that aims at success? Why should not each company learn five or six new operas every year and, after singing them a few times at home, visit other cities and give them there? This would obviate the necessity of rehearsing the same untried opera in several cities, and would effect a great saving in the expenditures on scenery. It would, no doubt, happen frequently that operas which had aroused only a languid interest in one city would in another enjoy a brilliant success, and this would react on the home audience and cause it to revise its verdict. This was the case even with two such master-works as "Carmen" and "Faust," and there is excellent reason for believing that other fine operas have been lost to the world because no such opportunity was given for revising a first hasty verdict. In any case, if managers could produce their novelties in half-a-dozen or a dozen different cities, they would be sure to get back the money invested in them, and this would make them more willing to try new operas, whereby the composers and the public also would be benefited. Such a plan, to be sure, could be followed only in countries like Germany, France, and Italy, where there are many opera-houses in cities not too far apart. But in the end American composers, too, would be benefited, because the demand for new operas would be greatly increased, and if an American opera should win a brilliant success in a dozen foreign cities, Mr. Grau would, no doubt, be glad to produce it at the Metropolitan Opera-house and take it on the road as far as San Francisco.

MONTALEMBERT'S LETTERS.

PARIS, August 12, 1902.

The agitation going on in France at the present moment on the subject of the execution of a recent law on the religious congregations, lends unusual interest to a correspondence of Montalembert's which has just been published. Montalembert was among the first apostles of the liberty of teaching, as opposed to what was once a monopoly of the University created by Napoleon. Together with Lacordaire and La-

mennais, he founded in 1830 a Catholic organ, *L'Avenir*, which had extraordinary success. It took for its device "God and Liberty"; its aim was to reconcile Catholicism with democracy. It went so far as to demand the separation of Church and State in order to secure complete independence for the Church. Some of its doctrines frightened the bishops, who felt themselves sufficiently protected by the Concordat signed by Napoleon and the Pope. They brought some of the doctrines of the *Avenir* before Gregory XVI. Lamennais, Lacordaire, and Montalembert went in person to Rome to defend themselves; after some delays, the journal was condemned and disappeared in 1832.

Montalembert's reputation was made. Although he bowed before the decision of Rome, he continued to defend such doctrines of the *Avenir* as had not been specifically condemned, and chiefly engaged in the defence of the liberty of teaching, which he believed to be one of the "necessary liberties," to use an expression of Thiers. We find, in a letter written on the 8th of April, 1839, to a friend of his, the Abbé Delor:

"The liberty of teaching which so justly preoccupies you is the object of my constant wishes; under its banner I entered public life when I had hardly emerged from infancy [Montalembert entered the House of Peers when he came of age], and I will never desert it. But I have little hope as long as the bishops, the clergy, and the Catholic heads of families follow the present system—that is to say, as long as they keep aloof, isolated from the social movement and the political habits of the country, expecting the return of an order of things which I believe is gone for ever, instead of descending into the arena. . . . There is nothing to hope. The Government will maintain a monopoly which it thinks precious; false liberalism will not claim a liberty which would be profitable only to Catholicism, and the isolated voice of a few royalistic Peers or Deputies will be lost in the storm of egoistic and noisy passions which dominate the Chambers. The question of the liberty of teaching is entirely in the hands of the bishops."

The Abbé Delor, to whom this letter was addressed, lived at Limoges; he died only in 1899, at the age of ninety years. The letters which Montalembert addressed to him during a long period have just been published. In 1841, M. Villemain, who was then Minister of Public Instruction, presented to the Chambers an Education bill. It authorized the opening of free schools, independent of the University, under certain guarantees of culture and morality. The masters were to have diplomas, conferred after examination. The law applied to the seminaries where the young priests were educated and were so far under the control solely of the bishops. This last clause provoked the opposition of the episcopate, and, after long discussions, the bill was withdrawn. Montalembert took a prominent part in the discussion, and his letters to the Abbé Delor bear traces of it. We also find allusions to an affair which made much noise in 1844. A certain Mademoiselle C——— of Tulle had entered a Carmelite convent against the will of her parents. The municipal council asked the Government to close the convent, and the Prefect of the Corrèze was inclined to use violence and to disperse the Carmelites forcibly. The Bishop, Monseigneur Berteaud, wrote to the Minister of the Interior, Martin du Nord: "You have the power to do so; but the doors will not open themselves—you will have to break them in, and you will find me behind them in my sacerdotal robes."

Montalembert was Deputy after the Revolution of 1848. Under the Republic, as under the monarchy, he remained at the head of the party which placed religious interests above political. He writes to his friend: "The Catholics, like all other Frenchmen, adore success. After having saluted, with a haste as servile as it is inexplicable, the advent of the Republic, many are tempted to look with distrust on the soldier who, faithful to his device and to his habit, tells the truth to the new powers as he spoke it to the fallen powers, without fear and without hope." He had not identified religion with royalty; he no more wished to identify it with democracy.

M. de Montalembert took a very active part in the discussion of the law still known under the name of "the Falloux law," from the Minister who proposed it. It established freedom of secondary instruction. The Catholic paper, the *Univers*, attacked M. de Falloux's bill, which the editor, Louis Veuillot, did not consider of a nature to satisfy the Catholics completely. From that date there arose a constant state of opposition between Montalembert and Veuillot. Montalembert represented what may be called the liberal wing of the Catholic party; Veuillot was hostile to all liberalism. In 1852 Montalembert wrote to his friend:

"I have remained what I was, the humble soldier of the Church, but also the firm friend of Liberty. It is under her shield and that of Truth that I have so resolutely struggled since 1847 against the wretches who, under cover of her name, have propagated the democratic and social revolution. But now I see that the Catholics who follow the *Univers* don't want any more of Liberty, which has helped them to so many successes [the Falloux law]; they bow to force and victory. . . . I want to remain erect, and I have ceased to be the man of the present movement."

By this he means the reaction which culminated in the establishment of the Empire. Montalembert did not refuse support to Prince Louis Napoleon when he was elected by the vote of the people; he hoped to enlist him among the supporters of his views. The Prince had seen him many times, and had given him hopes which were bitterly disappointed. The anger of Montalembert, who was of a very passionate disposition, was equal to the sympathy which he had felt for a time. He is very bitter, after the proclamation of the Empire, against "the mean Catholics who burned their incense before Liberty, when they believed her triumphant, and who now sacrifice her without remorse or embarrassment to the new influences and to the fashion of the day." He speaks of himself as "shipwrecked."

Montalembert, thus hostile to the Empire, was in opposition to L. Veuillot, who continued to support the Empire till the Italian policy of Napoleon alarmed him for the temporal power of the Papacy. The Catholic world was divided till the Roman question was opened. In 1860 the Romagna was detached from the States of the Church, and some French bishops, who had long been silent, entered a protest against this curtailing of the Papal territory. Montalembert applauded their efforts loudly.

"Nantes," said he, "Poitiers and Perpignan [meaning the bishops of these towns], and others, have been admirable. They have said things which cannot be surpassed; but the accent of Tulle has been supplied by nobody else. A little thunder and lightning was necessary. . . . I am in anguish, in desolation, in all the bitterness of powerless wrath; what despicable blindness everywhere! I long thought that when their houses should burn, people would see. They are burning, and people won't see."

The houses did burn, and the temporal power found few defenders. In 1860 Montalembert asked M. de Persigny for permission to found a paper, in which he meant to defend the temporal power; but it was refused. "The Minister," he said, "tried to reassure me as to the designs of the Government; he did not succeed—far from it. How ignorant they are, how blinded by pride, how entangled in their own nets!"

Montalembert wrote a curious letter to his friend the Abbé Delor, who had expressed to him the hope of seeing some day on the throne in France a friend of the Church of Rome:

"You see the salvation of the Church and of society in I don't know what kind of orthodox Cæsar. This dream is completely foreign to the spirit which presided over the Catholic movement of 1830 and of 1850—a liberal spirit to which I remained faithful, and which will not seek in Utopias for the solution of present difficulties. I know in the history of France but two orthodox Cæsars, Charlemagne and Cæsar. Charlemagne left behind him only the pitiful race of the Carlovingians, reduced to a happy impotence by the liberal spirit of the Germanic races: Saint Louis had for his grandson Philippe le Bel, whose fatal germ survived in all his successors."

In 1863, Montalembert was a candidate for the Legislature, but he was attacked by the Government and defeated. He had stood only with reluctance, and he writes to his friend: "I have encountered so much treachery and meanness in contemporary France, especially among the Catholics, that I have no great desire to enter again into public life." He adds: "I should like enlightened and sincere priests like yourself to ask themselves, How is it that the French clergy, which, in 1848 and 1849, succeeded in having 180 Catholic Representatives elected, could not have a single one in 1863? How are we to explain this incredible political and social diminution of influence?" He attributes it himself to the set of Catholic journalists whose tactics have set the nation against them. He denounces their defamation of the vanquished and the weak, their adulation of the strong, their constant and systematic denunciation and proscription of reason and of liberty. He has eloquent words against the influence exercised over the clergy of France by the Catholic press proclaiming itself the only interpreter of Catholic truth.

These letters of Montalembert's deserve to be read, and I have read them with melancholy; the past throws its light over the present, and the present has much to learn from the past.

## Correspondence.

### THE STUDY OF HISTORY IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Dr. Dodd has done a real service to the South in showing how greatly the

teaching of history has been neglected there. His statement may surprise many people, but it is not materially erroneous. It would perhaps be valuable if the discussion were carried further and the whole subject given a thorough examination. Many Southerners would be glad to see such a discussion, and it could not fail to bring up in a variety of views much real truth.

The South has had too few of the benefits of full discussion. The fathers of most of us were Confederate soldiers, but that does not mean that we ought to believe that their political views were correct. The mere acceptance of their views as an act of loyalty stands for an impoverished state of thought on the part of the children. Tradition weakens thought. If the *Nation* can, therefore, make itself a means of bringing out counter opinions on this subject, it will deserve the thanks of all right-minded people. It will also strengthen the group of independent investigators to which Dr. Dodd has referred.

The most conservative force in Southern history is the politician. In this part of the Union he has always had great influence. He dominated most phases of thought. It has suited his purposes to glorify the men of the past and to flatter those of the present. He has created in the popular mind an unreal historical spirit. He is not necessarily insincere. He got his views of history in the same school in which he has taught them, and they frequently seem to be honestly held. But whether he is sincere or not, he is sagacious enough to see that if, through independent historical research, men should come to modify their views of politics, his own chances of success would be lessened. He has, therefore, defended the old ideas. Any attempt to introduce new notions will arouse his opposition; and his influence is such over public opinion that conditions may become very uncomfortable for the apostles of new ideas.

This condition of affairs has a vital relation to Southern institutions of learning. Most of these institutions depend for their success directly on public opinion. They must have either legislative appropriations, or popular contributions, or tuition fees. They are, accordingly, very prone to be conservative. It suits them to have history taught in a colorless and nerveless manner. The real secret of the spirit of independence at Trinity College is the fact that it has received liberal donations of equipment and endowment, and is liberated from the power of existing public opinion. It has thus been able to take its own course and to develop a new spirit in its own community. Other institutions will doubtless do the same thing as soon as they are financially able.—Very truly,

JOHN S. BASSETT.

TRINITY COLLEGE, DURHAM, N. C.,
August 23, 1902.

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MARGARET FULLER AND "THE DIAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly pardon me for giving you a little word of information? In your paper of August 7 you have an article on that book of Thoreau which has lately been published. You say something about Margaret Fuller, "then one of the editors of the *Dial*," and about Emerson as the associate editor. Now, by reference to T. W. Higginson, Kenyon West, and others who have written about Margaret Fuller, as well as by reference to the biographies by Clarke, Channing, and Emerson, you will see that, during the four years of the *Dial's* existence, Margaret Fuller was its only editor for two years. She was its first editor, receiving no help from Emerson except as he was contributor, the same as Alcott and others. When she finally gave up the editing, it was because she had been overtaxed, had many burdens, and had received no pay. We must be just to the memory of the noblest woman of letters that America has yet produced.—Sincerely yours,

F. L. H.

DARK HARBOR, ME., August 17, 1902.

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PROPERTY IN LETTERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have recently had my attention called to what is perhaps an isolated case of a breach of academic ethics, and one which is not, I hope, likely to become general.

The case is that of a young man who was an unsuccessful candidate for an academic appointment in one of the larger universities. He sent in with his application such testimonials as to character and ability as he had himself received from friends and instructors, and requested others to write to the President of the university direct in his behalf. In such cases the candidate is entitled to receive again all the papers he has sent in, but in this case—and here comes my point—he received not only his own letters, but those addressed to the university President in his behalf. Perhaps the notion that a letter is the private and exclusive property of the one to whom it is addressed *and the writer of the letter*, is old-fashioned and out of date, but all honor to those who believe they have no right to make public the contents of a letter without the consent of the writer.—Most truly yours,

LOUIS N. WILSON, Librarian.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, WORCESTER, MASS.,
August 15, 1902.

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THE "SWEAT BOX."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a Chicago paper of recent date we read:

"The attempt to wring a confession from the prisoner by putting him in the 'sweat box,' it is expected, will result," etc.

And again:

"The prisoner has become almost a physical wreck under the 'sweat box' ordeal, and appears as if he might break down at any time."

Much outcry is being made, and justly, against the cruelty and barbarism of the "water cure" and other atrocities practised by our army upon the benighted Filipinos; yet here at home, in our own Christian land, under the shadow of church spires and university domes, we tolerate the unlawful and inhuman custom of torturing persons arrested on suspicion of being principals in or accessories to a crime. This torture is inflicted without sanction or authority of law, and in conflict with all Constitutional rights and guaranties. It is done for the purpose of extorting confessions of guilt from the suspected persons. As "no person shall be compelled, in any criminal case, to be a witness against himself," these extorted confessions cannot be used as evidence against him. The ruse is, however, to introduce them as "voluntary" confessions; and thus, by an abuse of authority and disregard for law and right, by means of duress and torture, a prisoner under the law is forced to renounce the protection of the law, and, contrary to his constitutional right, is compelled to give incriminating testimony against himself.

And by whom is this illegal process conducted? By the most petty and subordinate officers of the law—policemen and jailors; men whose only recommendation to the offices they hold is, frequently, their brutality. What right have these men to "try" or in any way interfere with prisoners? The person held by them is entitled to "a trial by jury," and what man can deprive him of that right? The duty of a policeman is merely to bring the person "by lawful authority" into the custody of the law; and a jailor's business is to "keep him safely" until a "speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury," shall be had.

As you would abolish lynch law and all other relics of barbarism from our system of jurisprudence, I beg of you to help abolish also the unlawful, inhuman physical tortures administered by means of the "sweat box" or "third degree."

MARGARET IRVING HAMILTON.

AUGUST 16, 1902

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# Notes.

Fisher Unwin will soon bring out 'Lombard Studies,' by Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco, whose 'Italian Characters,' 'The Liberation of Italy,' and 'Cavour' are well known.

Thomas Whittaker's autumn list will embrace 'Makers of Modern Fiction,' by W. J. Dawson; 'Cameos from Nature,' by Mrs. J. T. Gumersall; 'The Church and its Social Mission,' by Dr. J. Marshall Lang, Principal of the University of Aberdeen; 'The Story of Catherine of Siena,' by Florence Witts; 'Up and Down the Pantiles,' by Emma Marshall; and a 'Robert Browning Birthday Book.'

From Scribners we are to have a posthumous volume from the pen of Frank R. Stockton, 'John Gayther's Garden and the Stories Told Therein'; and 'Views and Reviews, Essays in Appreciation—Art,' by W. E. Henley.

'Recollections of a Player,' by James H. Stoddart, is in the press of the Century Co., together with a Bible for children edited by the Rev. Francis Brown, D.D., of the Union Theological Seminary.

The Outlook Co. are to publish 'The Tragedy of Pelée,' by George Kennan, illustrated.

'The Philosophy of Despair,' the reply of Science to pessimism, by President David Starr Jordan, is announced by Elder & Shepard, San Francisco.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation a compilation of coffee history, coffee anecdote, and coffee verse, by Arthur H. Gray, with "recipes for the making of coffee from the leading chefs of the country."

We have received from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly* the two volumes of the 'Reference Catalogue of Current Literature,' the British analogue of our 'American

Trade List Annual'—*i. e.*, a congeries of publishers' catalogues bound together and indexed. It is needless to say more, yet the bulk of this issue is notably greater than that of 1898. Every library and every enterprising bookseller needs this tool.

'Our Literary Deluge' seems an odd title for a book condemning the multiplication of books, especially when made up of transient articles which have already seen the light in various periodicals (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The author, Francis W. Halsey, has a chapter on "Biographies that are Histories," in which his measure of comparison is Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall.' That a single life covering the Scriptural age of man should require two-thirds as many words as Gibbon's twelve centuries of the civilized world's history, is made to appear monstrous; but what of a voluminous historical novel like 'War and Peace' covering only five or six years? And may not mercy be craved for a single work, itself an historical source, and final for its subject, by contrast with dribbling biography like that welcomed for Stevenson, Ruskin, Rossetti, or Carlyle, or with dribbling history like that of the Oxford Movement? Mr. Halsey's time-and-space standard would lead to a *reductio ad absurdum*. Each age demands great fulness for its own history, and cannot dispense with it. Not that biographers must not be called and strictly held to account; but there may be volume without prolixity and without padding, and where there is controversy in the subject there must be volume if the rectification is documentary.

The Chetham Society of Manchester, in publishing the "Remains, Historical and Literary, connected with the Palatine Counties of Lancaster and Chester," arrives in its forty-sixth volume at the 'Portmote or Court Leet Records of the Borough or Town and Royal Manor of Salford' (1597-1669). These have been laboriously and conscientiously transcribed by J. G. de T. Mandley, and in the present (first) volume come down to April 18, 1632. The matter is monotonous enough, but pictures effectively the habits of the time—dunghills and middens out of place, foul drains, unringed swine, unmuzzled "mastiths," untrimmed hedges, neglected pavements, tippling, scolding, "carding," broils and tuslements, receiving strangers of doubtful solvency, etc. The proper names of persons will attract the genealogist. Of more or less frequent occurrence are Higginson, Mather, Bancroft, Parkhurst, Radcliffe, Pendleton, Bolton, Holden, Mosley, Nugent, Burgess, Pilkington, Hutchinson, Blagden, Holland, Percival, Hollins, Beck, Worrall, Bowker. The laxity of government is shown in the number of old offenders against sanitary and other ordinances. Needless to add that odd spellings and strange terms for the antiquarian abound.

The little 'Onward and Upward: A Book for Boys and Girls [from ten to fourteen],' by Hugh H. Quilter, B.A. (Oxon.), of which Sonnenschein and Dutton are the respective London and New York publishers, is noticeable chiefly as an unsectarian contribution to popular education at a time when the sectarian features of the Education Bill are exciting so much contention in England. Morality is sought to be inculcated without supernatural sanction, through the medium of natural history and a comparison of "human beings with other members of the animal world." We think the author has not done justice to the moral evolution of the brute creation. He has also raised without firmly satisfying questionings about the use of animal food, and of animal pelage for clothing and ornament, and about the keeping of animals in confinement. Mr. Quilter frowns on menageries.

'Registering of Title to Land,' by Jacques Dumas, Procureur de la République at Rethel, France (Chicago: Callaghan & Co.), is a series of five lectures delivered before the law department of Yale University in April, 1900. The Storrs Lecturer of that year was a French magistrate who has won distinction by some scholarly works on problems of landed property. The system of registering title which he describes is quite recent in this country, having been adopted by only three States—Illinois, Ohio, and Massachusetts. In this book, which practically repeats the lectures, one need not look for any new facts on the system of registering title; but the student of law, as well as the general reader who has heard of the Torrens Act and is interested in these matters, will find in Mr. Dumas's work a clear and entertaining exposition of the systems of registering title in various countries. The book, which was written in English by a foreigner, has not suffered from that fact. It reads well, and has the French quality of clearness, and the dry recital of facts is enlivened by some of those "idées générales" of which the French are so fond.

The fifth volume of Publications of the Mississippi Historical Society (Oxford, Miss.) is notable as a survey, required by law, of the materials relating to the history of the State from the earliest times. It has been edited by Dr. Franklin L. Riley, Chairman of the Historical Commission appointed *ad hoc*. It contains calendars of collections of books, newspapers (even to loose copies), and manuscripts (see the valuable section entitled "An account of manuscripts, papers, and documents in private hands"), and devotes nearly eighty pages to extinct towns and villages. The small Indian tribes of the State are commemorated. The negro cuts no figure here. The "collectors and students" whose specialties are enumerated at pp. 269-286 pass him wholly by. Shall we infer that this people which "has no history" is therefore happy, according to the proverb? The "Mississippi plan" and Reconstruction are equally ignored by collectors.

Slavery is the opening subject in the seventh volume of Transactions of the Kansas State Historical Society (Topeka). The President tells of "The Passing of Slavery in Western Missouri." C. E. Cory answers the question: "Were there ever slaves in Kansas?" John Brown, of course, makes a frequent appearance in these 600 pages. The Society has one large volume of his personal letters "concerning his actions in Kansas and at Harper's Ferry." That he had any association with Quantrill is denied in the paper on "The Early Life of Quantrill in Kansas." A sketch of the life of Col. Richard J. Hinton is furnished by William E. Connelley. We remark also a chapter on Lincoln in Kansas in December, 1859. His first speech was made on the eve of Brown's execution. He could not approve of the Harper's Ferry raid, or of any but a peaceful anti-slavery propaganda; but "John Brown has shown great courage, rare unselfishness, as Governor Wise testifies." Among Lincoln's notes for his Kansas speeches is this interesting one: "Last year Gov. Seward and myself, at different times and occasions, expressed the opinion that slavery is a durable element of discord, and that we shall not have peace with it until it either masters or is mastered by the free principle." At pages 472-486 will be found explanations of the origin of county and city names in Kansas.

The second volume of the seventh series of the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society (Boston) offers a third portion of the Trumbull papers in its archives, from 1777 to the peace of 1783. Letters *to* Jonathan Trumbull predominate. The scarcity of bread and provisions in Plymouth, Newport, and Nantucket in 1779 is noticeable among the topics of this correspondence, and for want of flour Yale College, as President Stiles writes, had to be prorogued. Roger Sherman's use of a singular verb with the subject "Congress" is contrary to the prevailing use: Congress . . . they, writes Silas Deane; Congress seem, writes Henry Laurens; Congress are, writes Titus Hosmer. The index to this volume leaves much to be desired.

The current issue of the *Goethe-Jahrbuch* contains some interesting personalia, not the least important among these being fresh confirmation of the fact that, in 1772, the doctor dissertation of Goethe was refused by the faculty of the University of Strassburg, chiefly for religious reasons. Two letters to this effect from Professor Staeber had been known, in which some doubt was expressed as to the complete sanity of young Goethe, and the statement was made that the dissertation had been suppressed by the law faculty *ex capite religionis et prudentiæ*. The new evidence is found in a hitherto unpublished letter of Doctor Medicinæ Metzger, dated August 7, 1771, which states that student Goethe, reputed to have been diligent in his work in Göttingen and Leipzig, had in Strassburg (having been thoroughly saturated with the wickedness of Monsieur Voltaire) defended the thesis "Jesus auctor et judex sacrorum," in which the proposition was maintained that Jesus Christ was not the author of the Christian religion, but that this system had been contrived by a number of wise men and then ascribed to the Nazarene. Metzger further states that the University authorities had refused to give Goethe permission to print this heretical dissertation.

Among the historical manuscripts published in the August Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is a report by Wait Winthrop of a committee appointed to consider the affairs of the Free Grammar School of Boston in 1710. He recommends the appointment of Inspectors, "Gentlemen, of Liberal Education, Together with some of the Revd. Ministers of the Town. . . . At their said Visitation, One of the Ministers, by turn's, to pray with the Schollars, and Entertain 'em with some Instructions of Piety, specially adapted to their age and Education." It is interesting to note that in a license for a tavern on the "Isles of Sholes," dated 1684, it is specially stipulated that the keeper "shall well behave himself. . . . without suffering unlawful games or meetings or other disorders, & without selling any strong liquour to any

Indian whatever; & that he shall put in every barrell he shall brew two bushels of good malt." There is also a detailed description of the impressment, in 1758, by British soldiers, of a servant of Thomas Dawes on his return from Evening School.

The Quarterly Statement for July of the Palestine Exploration Fund announces the beginning of the excavation of Tell Jezar. This is the site of the Philistine town Gezer, one of the few places whose continuous life connects prehistoric times with our own days. Three of the tablets found at Tell el-Amarna were from the governor of this town begging for assistance to put down a rebellion. A Pharaoh burned it and gave the site to his daughter, the wife of Solomon, who rebuilt it; and here Saladin encamped during his negotiations with Richard Cœur de Lion. Hopes are entertained that the excavation will throw light not only upon Biblical problems—as, for instance, whether this Pharaoh was an Egyptian king or a ruler of the North Arabian land of Musur—but also upon the nature and extent of Mycenæan influence on Palestinian culture, and upon the ethnological affinities of the Philistines and other coast dwellers. Among the other contents are remarks by Sir C. W. Wilson on the topography of Jerusalem at the time of Christ, with a plan, and some notes by Professor Clermont-Ganneau, in which he describes the fragment of a slab with a Greek inscription, an official document that apparently contained "valuable details regarding the geography and administrative organization of Palestine." An interesting side light is cast on the life of a small town by the discovery of some forty stones inscribed with imprecatory prayers. Mr. Macalister, who is in charge of the work at Gezer, deplores the fact that a "syndicate of fellahin, peddlers, and tourists are rapidly making Palestine archæologically a desert."

M. Brunetière writes in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 1 on the "Error of the Eighteenth Century," and protests against the belief "that the moral question is a social question." As an historical essay the article is interesting, even though the reader's tranquillity be occasionally ruffled by the critic's method and ultra-conservatism. Admitting that morals (*la morale*) cannot properly be subordinated to social utility, we fail to see consistency in Brunetière's statements, on the one hand, that morals are absolute and can be conceived of only *sub specie æternitatis*, and, on the other, that "their character of eternity is no more opposed to their progress than the immutability of the laws of nature is opposed to the progress of science"—unless we may understand that morals vary with time and place, which M. Brunetière denies. "C'est une mauvaise plaisanterie que de dire que, selon les temps et les lieux, les mêmes actions ont été diversement jugées." We fear there is some hair-splitting in these arguments, but recommend the article to students of moral science.

For four years now the great French Language Association called Alliance Français has been conducting annual "vacation courses" on a large scale, through which foreigners have had the opportunity of perfecting themselves in the French language and literature. At the end of each season a commission, consisting of university professors, examines the students and gives them their *diplômes de capacité*. The ordinary testimonial is given to those who have acquired the ability to speak and write the language thoroughly, while a higher certificate makes the recipient eligible to the position of a teacher of French abroad. The courses are open to all natives and foreigners. Not only are they being held this year during the two summer months in Paris, but also in Bordeaux, Nancy, Luc-sur-Mer, Caen, and Lyons. They are immensely popular, last year's enrolment containing 208 German, 74 American, 50 English, 149 Russian, and other foreign names. During the present year the courses are in charge of Professor Brunot of the Sorbonne and Professor Huguet of Caen, who act under the direction of a counsellor of the French Academy. Prominent teachers of languages from the universities and lycées constitute the teaching force of these vacation schools.

A correspondent reminds us, apropos of the statement in our Paris letter last week that Lauzun died at Montrouge (his country seat) on January 1, 1794, that he really perished by the guillotine in Paris and on December 31, 1793.

—The Editor's Study, in the September *Harper's*, continues its interesting confession as to editorial ideals and policies, recurring to the question of organic unity of contents, which had been considered in the July number. We do not yet find any very clear definition of the unifying principle, and can hardly conceive of any considerable number of readers with a culture broad and deep enough to have a relish for each and every one of the viands provided for the *Harper's* monthly banquet, and to assign to each its fitting place in a unified scheme of intellectual dietetics. We get, however, some interesting principles of exclusion. Banishing from the start partisan politics and subjects of religious or sectarian division, closing the bars at a later date against a class of special educational literature abundantly provided elsewhere, it has now become the editorial policy of this magazine to exclude the "timely" article also. Attention is specially called to the fact that it is the one magazine which has had nothing to say during the past few months concerning volcanoes or Edward VII. It would be no loss to the cause of letters if this determination to avoid the special province of the newspaper should prove contagious. In the realm of science all questions of practical application and commercial interest are tabooed. With these exclusions the editor considers that his magazine will henceforth be more free for its proper scope—"for its appeal to the most essential interests of that culture from which it is itself nourished." As to the brevity of its average article, to which we called attention two months ago, the editor disclaims any arbitrary curtailment, but holds that the newspapers and reviews have relieved the monthly magazine of its obligation to provide elaborately complete articles on subjects of weighty concern. Mr. Howells, in the Easy Chair, discusses the results of his inquiry of last spring as to whether poetry is still read and loved as of old. Only seven letters of reply were received, but these were all favorable to the muse, and the editorial comment is decidedly hopeful.

—Robert T. Hill and Prof. Israel C. Russell continue in the September *Century* the discussion of the recent West India volcanic eruptions. The difficulty of arriving at demonstrable truth in such a matter is seen in the varying conclusions of these two expert geologists as to the essential character of the destruction of Martinique. Dr. Hill regards the evidence as practically establishing the fact of a terrific aerial explosion within the cloud after it had erupted from the mountain. While no proof of the composition of the gases causing this explosion is as yet available, he thinks it likely that "either sulphuretted hydrogen or sulphur dioxid was criminally implicated." He leans strongly to the hypothesis that there were two clouds erupted; one, from the summit, floating southward horizontally, and developing violent electric discharges, the other bursting from some clogged-up ancient vent at a point lower down, and carrying with it a heavy load of gases, which this closed vent had held in confinement. The electric discharges passing from the upper cloud into the lower, he thinks, would have produced just such effects as are actually found in the ruins. Professor Russell, on the other hand, attributes the death of the people of Martinique to the inhalation of dust-laden steam, and regards the appearance of the dead bodies as inconsistent with the supposition that they were exposed to a blast of burning gases at any time during the eruption. Sylvester Baxter continues the subject of civic improvement, devoting his attention to streets and highways. The famous Long Meadow Street of the Connecticut valley, the Beacon Street boulevard of Brookline, Grove Street of Medford, and the Essex Woods Road near Manchester-by-the-Sea, are among the successful efforts at improvement cited and described. The article is full of good practical suggestions, and, at a time when improvement is in the air and money plenty, it ought to contribute to important material results.

—As a rule, the presumption is strong against a new text-book, and still stronger against a new grammar for use in schools. To change old formulas is dangerous for the pupil, and inconvenient for the teacher; to change references is a vexation. But the Doctor of Philosophy is not permitted to be mute and inglorious; it is his destiny to publish, and to treat afresh old matter which may have been better treated before by a much abler and better scholar. He must, therefore, "dree his weird," and he must not be held too closely to account for the doom of necessity. It is a pleasure to be able to add that these remarks do not apply to 'A Grammar of Attic and Ionic Greek,' by Prof. Frank Cole Babbitt (American Book Co.). This little book is well worthy of being associated with the memory of the eminent scholar, Prof. F. D. Allen, to whom it is dedicated, and by whose advice it was undertaken. About fifty pages were actually accomplished with his collaboration; the credit of the remainder belongs entirely to Dr. Babbitt. The general aim of the book is to include all the essentials for work in school or college. Attic forms and Attic syntax are presented in the body of the work; Ionic forms and Homeric syntax are given in smaller type at the foot of each page. The same mode of distinction is carried out in the list of irregular verbs, and the result is to impart constantly to the learner a very clear concep-

tion of the difference between Attic and Homeric forms and usage. The latest researches in philology and in textual criticism are also applied in a conservative manner so as to help the memory rather than burden it; and the pupil is introduced to historical syntax just so far as it is calculated to clear up the usage of the language and to aid his mastery of principles. The classification and treatment of the subject of syntax is particularly luminous; it is in some respects novel and original, and brings light and order to a very complex subject. Explanations are frequently added of anomalies or of syntactical phenomena, such as the teacher himself might give (and sometimes does give), but which the pupil is constantly liable to forget. Every device of typography has been ingeniously employed to clarify the presentation of the facts. As a working manual, the many merits of this book and its brief compass should commend it to the serious attention of teachers.

—The 'Companion to English History (Middle Ages),' which is edited by Mr. Francis Pierrepont Barnard (H. Frowde), is a book to be most heartily commended both for its main idea and for its execution. What the "source-book" would fain do in one direction, this volume aims at accomplishing in another. We do not mean to say that the editor suggests such a comparison, but in both cases there is the same purpose of securing thoroughness and at the same time of arousing interest. What manner of work the 'Companion' is may best be gathered from a synopsis of its contents. To speak briefly, it is a series of separate essays on subjects connected with the social, domestic, intellectual, artistic, and commercial life of England during the Middle Ages. Architecture comes first in the scheme of arrangement and bulks largest in respect to space. Ecclesiastical Architecture is treated by the Rev. Arthur Galton; Domestic Architecture by Mr. J. A. Gotch; and Military Architecture by Mr. C. W. C. Oman. The other sections and authors are as follows: Costume (Mr. A. Hartshorne), Heraldry (Mr. F. P. Barnard), Shipping (Mr. M. Oppenheim), Town Life (Miss Lucy Toulmin-Smith); Country Life (Mr. G. P. Warner); Monasticism (Rev. Augustus Jessopp); Trade and Commerce (Mr. I. S. Leadam); Learning and Education (Mr. R. S. Rait); Art (Mr. G. McN. Rushforth). The average length of a section is about thirty pages, and there are nearly a hundred illustrations. What a help this book will be to teachers in the higher schools and in colleges of almost every degree will be apprehended at a glance by every one who has the least experience in such matters. Every topic, with the possible exception of heraldry, is of high consequence, and it might be contended that, as a factor in a book of this kind, heraldry is the most important of all, because its rules and conventions are so little understood by people at large. In two ways especially is a connected series of articles like this notable and admirable. Apart from the fact that the contributors are experts, a large amount of rich material is turned into appropriate form, and placed within easy reach of those who can make use of it in the daily instruction of their classes. Secondly, it supplements the text-book at a point where the best of text-books can hardly fail to be weak. It goes beyond the limits of political epitome, and shows, by the very character of its topics, how broad and how deep a subject history is. "Although," says the preface, "this volume is designed primarily for higher educational purposes, it is believed that it will also prove of interest to the reading public at large." Should this forecast prove incorrect, so much the worse for the reading public.

—The question whether Catholicism contains the progressive elements necessary to adapt itself to every real advance of mankind and thus become reanimated by the spirit of the age, has recently excited considerable discussion in Germany. In proof of this, we need only refer to such works as 'Der Katholicismus als Princip der Fortschritts' and 'Die neue Zeit und der alte Glaube,' by Professor Schell of the University of Würzburg; 'Reformkatholicismus,' by Dr. Müller of Munich, and the series of "Kirchenpolitische Briefe," by the late Prof. F. H. Kraus of the University of Freiburg in Baden in the *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, since 1895. The latest publications of this kind are 'Der Katholicismus und das Zwanzigste Jahrundert im Lichte der kirchlichen Entwicklung der Neuzeit,' by Dr. Albert Ehrhard, professor in the University of Vienna (Stuttgart: Roth); and Prof. Friedrich Jodl's "Gedanken über Reform-Katholicismus,' just issued by the Neuer Frankfurter-Verlag. The sensation created by Professor Ehrhard's work is evident from the fact that the first edition was exhausted in ten days, and that the twelfth has just appeared. He asserts that, however much the papacy as a secular power may have promoted culture and exerted a wholesome influence in the Middle Ages, the temporal sovereignty of the Pope is now obsolete, and, if restored, would be a serious hindrance to the Catholic Church in the fulfilment of its mission. Another obstacle is the order of the Jesuits, whose supremacy in the Vatican must be utterly overthrown. Professor Jodl, who has the chair of ethics in the University of Vienna, and is an exceedingly liberal-minded and sharp-sighted thinker, commends Ehrhard's courage and conscientiousness and the nobleness of his purpose, but holds that the proposed reform would involve such radical changes in the essential character of Catholicism as to be equivalent to its extinction as an ecclesiastical organization. The arguments in support of this view are presented with admirable clearness, and are likely to be accepted by all unprejudiced readers as conclusive. We may add that the theological professors and their clerical allies in Vienna rendered Ehrhard's position there so unpleasant that he resigned, and was then called to a professorship in the University of Freiburg in Baden.

—Petrarch, it is well known, between the years 1343 and 1373 inclusive, was honored with five embassies from various potentates, civil and ecclesiastical—to Naples, to Venice, to Prague, to Paris, to Venice again. The first three were in the nature of political negotiations; in the last two the poet's part was purely ornamental. A sixth embassy had altogether escaped notice till brought to light at the Paris Congress of International History in 1900. It was discovered by Monseigneur Fraknoï, inspector-general of museums and libraries in Hungary. This scholar, as one may read in the first volume of the *Annales* of the Congress just published by Armand Colin in Paris, while engaged in the Vatican archives in researches on Louis the Great, King of Hungary, discovered a letter of Pope Clement VI. to the lord of Verona, Martino de la Scala, dated Avignon, November 13, 1347. Louis was preparing a descent upon the kingdom of Naples to avenge the assassination of his brother Andrew, and the Pope's letter begged Scala to refuse transit through his domains to the King's forces. He accredits to him, "pro parte nostra," "dilectus filius magister Franciscus Petrarchi clericus Florentinus." It was already common knowledge that Petrarch quitted France in November, 1347, for Italy, for literary purposes, *e. g.*, to make a collection of Cicero's works. Several letters written by the way are preserved, the most noted that to his friend Cola di Rienzo, dated Genoa, November 27, 1347, intimating that it had been his intention to proceed to Rome, but that the news meanwhile received of Cola's actions, unauthentic though it might be, decided him to turn his steps elsewhere. "Flecto iter."

—The importance of the document now revealed lies in the inconsistency involved in Petrarch's holding a commission from the Pope who had on October 7 declared Cola a rebel, and was aiming, in the embassy to Scala, against the Roman tribune as well as against the King of Hungary, and the patriotic impulse heretofore ascribed to Petrarch on setting out from Avignon—namely, to ally himself at Rome with Cola. The latter was, as the Curia well knew, in negotiations with Louis. Monseigneur Fraknoï concludes that we must view the letter as a purely literary production, "addressed to the general public of amateurs of this kind of prose." Parallel cases might easily be drawn from the epistles of Erasmus. ("He *must* be literary," says his biographer, Professor Emerton; "he *might* be accurate.") At all events, Petrarch proceeded straight to Verona, with the poor luck that attended all his other serious missions. On December 4, Louis was received at Vicenza by Scala's brother and son, and conducted with pomp to Verona, where he was sumptuously entertained for four days.

## THE MASTERY OF THE PACIFIC.

*The Mastery of the Pacific.* By Archibald R. Colquhoun. With maps and illustrations. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Early in the sixteenth century the Portuguese swept south and east from Goa and seized Malacca, on the Malay Peninsula, and ten years afterward occupied the Moluccas, the Spice Islands of commerce. But nearly all of their acquisitions have been absorbed by the Dutch. Almost simultaneously the Spaniards, under the foreign Magellan, discovered Cebu in the Philippines, and fulfilled the Papal condition for possession by converting all the inhabitants in eight days. Forty years later, Legaspi, with the aid of the Augustinian friars, after a six years' campaign, actually overpowered and took possession of the islands that lay north of Mindanao; and ever since Spain has nominally ruled the whole archipelago and the unimportant Ladrone and Caroline groups, although until

within the last decade the Moros remained vigorous protestants. In fact, at the time of our own invasion, our predecessors were still engaged in extending their authority among those people by force of arms.

Three hundred years ago the Dutch, by arms and trade together, began their Pacific dominion, which, after various fortunes, now embraces a compact group of mighty and productive islands. These are held and managed purely in the commercial interest of Holland, with a supervision that is a curious mixture of interference and neglect, not always as radical or as remunerative as more nervous nations might employ. Java, as is well known, became a garden by a peculiar system of forced labor now somewhat mitigated, which compelled the natives to work a certain part of each month without payment, after the feudal fashion. For the rest of the time, either they were paid by the Government or their privately raised produce was sold by compulsion at a fixed price. Their natural sloth was overcome by coercion, but the native chiefs were the medium through which this discipline was enforced.

We cannot intelligently discredit the author's opinion that the hold which Holland as a nation has upon the great Netherland India is gradually relaxing, nor his prediction as to the ultimate fate of both. He believes that the retrograde assimilation of the colonists with the natives is weakening the home ties, and that the negative attitude of the national Government towards those possessions foreshadows their loss. Even the prolonged Achinese war is prosecuted by the colony, not by the nation, and is absorbing the revenue that otherwise would go to The Hague. In Mr. Colquhoun's view, Germany will hold the mouths of the Rhine ere long, and with them will secure a tropical island empire which neither the courage nor the obstinacy of the Dutch may suffice to defend. As outposts the Carolines, the Bismarck archipelago, parts of the Samoan group and of New Guinea, are already under the German flag. The prophecy may come true. France, with her ineptitude for colonizing, is negligible, notwithstanding certain insular possessions and her foothold on the continent of Asia. The Japanese hold the north and west of the Pacific. These spirited, artistic people, more acute than profound, the Latins of Asia, may hereafter emerge at the head of the yellow race in a struggle for commercial and material preëminence. But that prospect is now remote, and they have not yet demonstrated their qualification as colonists. Formosa, a trophy of war, is a trial ground for foreign command where their immediate success is not conspicuous. The Chinese, whose continent is washed by the Pacific under other names, are emigrants but not colonists. They show no disposition to create new Chinas, but, with characteristic conservatism, preserve their own qualities, neither making proselytes nor adopting the ways of others. Submissive to government, they appreciate justice and fair dealing, meet oppression with guile, and make no attempt to govern others. But they maintain a rigorous system of authority and of mutual assistance among themselves wherever they may be, and in that sense they organize well. With their commercial instincts and their undeveloped resources, adequate administration might cover the ocean with their fleets and make them masters of its trade. But this would require such an awakening as only Japan has shown possible.

The great South Pacific Power is the Australian Federation, a better example than even Canada (for it is homogeneous) of what Britons can do with themselves when away from home and under their own flag. A colony in name, it is a nation in fact, and, despite the imperial glamour of yesterday, which led her to waste men and money on the South African veldt in a quarrel in which she had no concern, we may be pretty sure that, when Australian interests clash with those of Britain, the latter will be disregarded. Race feeling may make Australia a British ally in emergency; it will not keep her subordinate when she thinks she has the right of way. Two pressing problems there are those of tariff and labor. Regardless of her home teachings and practice, the colonial Federal Government insists upon a tariff midway between one for revenue and one for protection. This operates against New Zealand, which declined to enter the Federation, as well as against more unrelated countries, and draws its circle of exclusion closely about the island continent. But as a policy it may be open to debate, for the State of New South Wales contains a strong free-trade party. The labor question seems settled determinately against the admission of the dark-skinned races. People who are not white are not wanted, and the Australians are about to exclude through education tests even their fellow-subjects of India. The end of 1906 is the date fixed for the departure of any Pacific Islander who may then be present.

Our own vital concern in this Pacific problem lies with the Philippines, and here we find the author an intelligent, well-informed historian and critic, who is sympathetic and friendly, neither exaggerating nor making light of our burden. There is none of the exultation which the English sometimes show over our entanglement in extra-continental expansion. "This ends the Monroe Doctrine," and "Now you are practically by our side," are common expressions and commoner sentiments among the Britons of controlling grade in the East, who see logical inconsistency in maintaining that America is only for Americans when we absorb outlying lands of Asia. Mr. Colquhoun is thoroughly, but not offensively, British when he discusses our affairs, whose importance he marks by devoting to them the principal section of his volume. We find there the views of a sagacious and experienced observer, a distinct well-wisher, whose mental equipoise and long acquaintance with that side of the world give those views great value. That he should have some bias towards ways that have brought success to Britain is natural, and may readily be discounted at the final settlement. He cannot feel, as an American must, the full pressure of the unfamiliar problem; but, relieved from immediate responsibility for action, he is the better equipped for observation and advice.

Our author does not concern himself with how or why we went to the Philippines, but only with the actual and probable consequences. Of these, space permits merely the briefest abstract. He insists with authority that "no such problem has ever presented itself to Great Britain or any other colonizing Power as that which confronts the United States in the Philippines." The essential requirement is to fit the Filipino character for the administration of American democracy. This involves either the regeneration of a race, or the forced adaptation of a political system to absolutely repugnant conditions. As studied by Mr. Colquhoun, the Filipino lacks certain civic essentials without which a state cannot stand. Thus, he has no public spirit in the wide sense. The peasant will follow a personal leader, but not from patriotism. Brave and reckless when properly led, bright and hospitable in his private relations, he lacks the spirit that welds together a people into homogeneousness. Individually and collectively his characteristic is "untrustworthiness, added to the power of deceiving the most vigilant." "He is a half-civilized, clever, irresponsible child, who has warped ideas of right and wrong." "He is never honest, as we count that virtue, never truthful, and never industrious or persevering." "The Malay is the laziest of Orientals, and the Filipino is not the least lazy of Malays." Mr. Foreman, the highest authority, declares: "The best of the natives neither appreciate, are grateful for, nor seem to understand a spontaneous gift."

Mr. Colquhoun does not concede his distrust of our efforts "to thrust the results of centuries of struggle and progress [as found in America] ready-made upon the half-fledged Filipino." "If the little brown brother were altogether simple and amenable, the danger would be less, though still considerable." "If unnaturally stimulated, he may grow up into a Frankenstein." He frankly insists that the introduction of modern education to overcome at one stroke for the next generation the evil tendencies of the Filipino, half hereditary and half following misgovernment, will be futile because, beautiful as is the theory, "it involves an entire subversion of the laws of nature," for the education which creates character "cannot be crammed in a few years." He foresees that there will be let loose "a mass of half-educated, conceited natives . . . who will turn their attention to promulgation of sedition or equally undesirable practices," and cites India in illustration. He by no means deprecates education, but looks with the utmost favor upon our costly and extraordinary efforts in that direction, which have no parallel, provided too much reliance is not placed upon it; and he urges, as a *sine qua non*, that the civil service should be pure, firm, and intelligent from top to bottom. Inasmuch as a system of quasi-independence, which he does not approve, has been instituted, his final advice, as one "who has seen a good deal of government in Oriental countries, is to interfere as little as possible with the customs, prejudices, and religion of the Filipinos, and to keep a tight hold." That we may relinquish the islands, even to themselves, does not seem to occur to him as possible.

The Anglo-Japanese alliance had not been made when this book was written, but the author hoped that Japan might pursue a policy in common with the aims and interests of Britain and America, which he assumes will coincide. He foresees the geographical importance of Japan, and would align its policy with those of the English-speaking countries in whose keeping he confidently rests the "Mastery of the Pa-

cific." The true mastery of the Pacific is commercial supremacy, which implies neither armies, colonies, nor aggressive fleets. Men-of-war there must be for patrolling distant waters; there need be none for challenge. The example of a self-contained continental nation, secure in moral strength, with recognized ability for defence, whose commerce reaches every land, and whose learning and good-will are the common property of humanity, tells further as a world-power than an arm outstretched for conquest.

Regardless of questions of state, or rather because of them, this volume, the discussion of which has been unavoidably delayed, is heartily commended as the clearly expressed views of an expert whose feelings are those of a cosmopolitan Briton with American impulses. Excepting that the author makes a Chinese fleet towards the close of the thirteenth century escort Marco Polo "from China to Europe" (p. 15), his facts are as trustworthy as his descriptions are lucid.

## CHEYNE AND HASTINGS.

*Encyclopædia Biblica.* Edited by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne and J. Sutherland Black. Vol. III. L—P. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xviii, 650.

*A Dictionary of the Bible.* Edited by James Hastings. Vol. IV. Pleroma-Zuzim. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xii, 994.

With the closing volume of one, and the second last of the other, of these encyclopædias their relative importance, their objects and values have become fairly clear. That they do not compete with one another as a whole or in any exact sense is abundantly evident. Yet precisely where the differentia lies is not so evident. Part is undoubtedly the contrast of the theological as opposed to the historical. The Hastings dictionary is theological not simply in that it includes articles on theology—in this volume, notably on Predestination, Promise, Psychology, Salvation—but also by general attitude. So the thing had to be and is; not, as in Cheyne, so it historically was. Part, also, is due to the personality of the editors. Dr. Hastings might easily have exercised a greater control over his contributors and levelled up the quality of their work; to Dr. Cheyne this was evidently an opportunity for the freeing of his soul, and he has certainly freed his soul to an extent which probably no other editor has ever dared to approach. In the present volume, besides numberless small articles, he has written sixteen articles of importance and collaborated in as many more. On his contributors, too, his hand has clearly been heavy in guidance and annotation. The only province which Dr. Hastings, on the other hand, has claimed for himself is that of the obsolete and obscure words used in the English versions. Part, again, can be ascribed to a different standard of scholarship. But this aspect could easily be pushed too far, and it would certainly not be correct to assert broadly that Hastings is intended or suited for the plain man and Cheyne for the professional student. For there are articles in Hastings which no scholar can afford to disregard, and if often it gives no sign of a difficulty, often also it gives the materials to judge more soberly of the difficulties raised in Cheyne.

The advantage to the student of the many-sidedness of view thus produced cannot easily be overestimated. For example, the article on Put in Hastings is by W. M. Müller; in Cheyne by Dr. Cheyne himself. Yet generally W. M. Müller has charge of the Egyptology in Cheyne, to the great advantage of that book. Contrast, for example, his with Driver's Potiphar—a good article in itself but somewhat second-hand. Why Dr. Cheyne, in this case, elected to write on Put is most obscure, unless it was in order to get in Jerahmeel. Other examples of such weighty articles in Hastings are Budde on Poetry (11 pages, and much better than Duhm in Cheyne), Davidson on Prophecy and Prophets (20 pages), Sanday on Son of Man, and Driver on Son of God (9 and 10 pages), Wolff Baudissin on Priests and Levites (30 pages; the corresponding articles in Cheyne are short). As in the former volumes of Hastings, the articles showing most precise scholarship are the theologically non-contentious. Here Nestle has been a tower of strength, and gives 17 pages to Septuagint, 7 to Syriac versions, 9 to text of N. T., and 12 to Sirach—all admirable. Further, H. J. White gives 17 pages to Vulgate; Strack 6½ to text of O. T.; Kenyon 13 to Writing. On the other hand, the Hastings articles on separate Biblical books are notably feeble and hesitant. A good example is W. T. Davison's treatment of Psalms, and an outstanding exception is F. C. Porter's 26-page article on Revelation. Another source of weakness in Hastings is the preference, over professional students, for writers whose training has been of a practical kind in Palestine. Thus, G. Post of Beirut on natural history gives good general information based on present conditions, but exhibits lamentable scholarship, and draws most dubious Biblical conclusions. The writers in Cheyne are often less ample and picturesque in description, but are evidently on firmer ground. The same holds of Sir Charles Wilson's geographical articles. Even F. J. Bliss, first-hand authority as he is, does not give as good an account of Pottery as the more stay-at-home J. L. Myres.

Turning now to Cheyne, it is more than hard to give any adequate conception of the wealth of learning and ingenuity which this volume displays. The outstanding characteristics are the same as before. Articles most happily compounded abound. In other cases the suspicion will not down that behind the compound lies editorial history. As before, the 'Britannica' articles of Robertson Smith have been brought to date, if not ahead of it, by Dr. Cheyne himself. In some cases the supplement is so extensive that the stem might well have been omitted, or the reader referred to the 'Britannica' itself. Thus, on Psalms, Dr. Cheyne adds a wholly admirable sixteen pages to the original seven. Prophetic Literature is an equally admirable but entirely new article of twenty-four pages. It is highly and hardly intelligibly compounded, being written by Cheyne, Guthe, Paul Volz, and, for Christian Prophets, J. A. Robinson. A good example of the advantage of the compounding method at its best is the article on Purim. In it, instead of one hypothesis, we are given three, by C. H. W. Johns, J. G. Frazer, and Cheyne; the last regards not only Mordecai, but Daniel, as corruptions of the omnipresent Jerahmeel. On this whole question of Jerahmeel an open mind must clearly be kept until the appearance of 'Critica Biblica.' It is to be trusted that that book will amply justify Dr. Cheyne's critical methods. At present, to the profane, his use of Jerahmeel cannot but seem like Mr. Dick's obsession by King Charles's head. There is hardly an article written by him into which it does not find its way, and, apparently, almost all the corruptions of proper names in the Old Testament have sprung from a rooted hostility to it on the part of the Hebrew scribes.

But, in estimating this and other matters in Cheyne, due weight must be allowed to the avowed attitude and plan of the editor. His desire, reiterated in this volume at many points, is not to give assured, accepted results, but to shake up the old, to discard, to suggest. For him, explicitly, the new is best even if uncertain. He seeks to give a collection of problems, a collection of material for solving them, and of possible, even if varying, solutions. "Even to be mistaken," he says, on col. 3949, "would have been less misfortune than to be thrown back on the dim, colorless exegesis of Hupfeld and his school." Granted the legitimacy of such an attitude in an encyclopædia, the destructive, querying character of the present book can be amply justified.

Further, in the present volume, it is again on New Testament rubrics that we find the most revolutionary articles. The Dutch school has now formally taken possession; Van Manen comes to support Schmiedel. His article, Old-Christian Literature, in its very title, is a challenge, and is followed up by a thoroughly negative treatment of Paul. In this latter case, it is true, we are given a choice of the less radical criticism of the Tübingen school in a reprint of the late E. Hatch's article from the 'Britannica.' Beside these, Dr. Cheyne's own article on Moses, which reduces or expands him to a tribe, is mild. On Names also Dr. Cheyne writes, and adds a long paragraph in defence of his many criticisms of the tradition of proper names in the Hebrew text. Having thus relieved his mind, however, the way is clear for Nöldeke, Kautzsch, and G. B. Gray to contribute a monumental treatise on Names in thirty solid pages. Another most weighty monograph which must be mentioned is Ed. Meyer's seventeen pages on Phœnicia.

To sum up: the professional student will use Cheyne first and last. He will refer to Hastings to see if it by chance contains an article of weight. Such search will often repay him. The plain man, and for this purpose the term must cover the enormous majority even of clerics, will be compelled to the use of Hastings. Much of Cheyne will be unintelligible to him; more will be misleading. If he has the instinct to avoid these two dangers, then his gain also may be great. Certainly no just view of the Biblical science of to-day can be attained without the use of both. Is it symptomatic of the position of the said science that, to appearance, an adequate encyclopædia of it—an encyclopædia, that is, in the ordinary sense—cannot yet be written? Hastings marks a past stage; Cheyne marks a period of chaos; the time is clearly not yet ripe.

*The Poem of the Cid.* Edited and translated by Archer M. Huntington. Vols. I. and II. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Spanish scholarship in America has an illustrious history. The first of our great scholars in point of time, George Ticknor, is still the first historian of Spanish literature in point of excellence; Longfellow's graceful translation of the 'Coplas' of Manrique has made it almost as familiar here as on its native soil; while Lowell—"unable to speak the language, though knowing more of it than almost any of them," as he proudly boasts in one of his letters—has, alike in prose and in verse, given evidence of his admiration for the genius of the Spaniards and his knowledge of their historic culture. There was something in our own romantic past and in the heroic imagination which saw the savage stretches of the West dared and conquered, that gave us kinship, and a more than intellectual sympathy, with the race whose valor and energy drove back the Moorish invader step by step, unified a mass of divergent kingdoms, and, in another hemisphere, won for itself the gigantic fruits of its own discovery. These are the three great stages of Spanish history—the victory over Islam, the unification of the peninsula under the hegemony of Castile and Leon, the discovery and colonization of the Americas; and the first of these stages, with some foreshadowing of the second, has received literary expression in one of the noblest monuments of Spanish poetry, the famous 'Poem of the Cid.'

The 'Poema del Cid' is for Spanish literature what the 'Chanson de Roland' is for French and the 'Niebelungen Lied' for German, and in date of composition it falls approximately half way between the two. The firm touch of the French epic it does not possess; but in the rapid narrative succession of its events, in the splendid epic spirit which transfuses it as a whole, and in the simplicity of its heroic ideals, it expresses, as no other Spanish work of the imagination has succeeded in expressing, its age, its race, and its country. Lope and Calderon are mirrors of their own time—both are typical Spaniards of the seventeenth century; but only the 'Poem of the Cid' and 'Don Quixote' express in every age and clime the genius of the Spanish race.

It is this remarkable poem which Mr. Huntington seeks to introduce to a wider American audience in the two ornate volumes under review. The first, which contains the Spanish text, was published several years ago, and attracted some attention among scholars; the second, with a metrical translation of the poem into English, has just appeared; and a third volume, with critical and explanatory notes, is expected to complete the whole work. Until this last volume appears, it will be impossible to place any final estimate on the nature of Mr. Huntington's scholarship, but his interest in things Spanish has been known to cultivated readers for some time, and any contribution he may make to his favorite studies must at least receive respectful attention.

The 'Poem of the Cid' has been preserved in a single manuscript of the fourteenth century; the scribe was a careless one, and the poem as we have it is irregular in metre, often obscure in sense, and teeming with errors; but all critical texts must of necessity be based on this unique copy, which is now in the possession of a private gentleman of Madrid. Three editions before the appearance of Mr. Huntington's were based on a careful study of the manuscript, that in the "Colección de Poesias Castellanas anteriores al Siglo XV." of Sanchez, that of Janer in the "Biblioteca de Autores Españoles," and Vollmöller's, published in 1879. Of these the last is by far the best, and Mr. Huntington has in the main followed Vollmöller's reading of the poem. In fact, Señor Menéndez Pidal, the latest editor of the epic, asserts that Mr. Huntington has not departed from Vollmöller's text in a single essential point, and a careful comparison of the two has tended only to corroborate this statement. Mr. Huntington has not contributed any significant emendation of his own or added anything to our better understanding of the poem; and for philological purposes his edition cannot compare with the more recent one of Menéndez Pidal, which is an exact palæographical transcript of the original manuscript.

As a translator, however, Mr. Huntington has rendered more important services. As early as 1808, John Hookham Frere published, in an appendix to Southey's 'Chronicle of the Cid,' translations of a few selected passages from the poem, and these were reprinted in 1874 with several interesting additions, in his collected 'Works.' Frere's renderings are remarkable for their spirit and dash; and their flowing and colloquial verse has been praised by judges as competent as Southey and Ticknor. The passages selected are typical, but they do not cover more than a fifth of the entire poem, and the long, barren stretches of epic recitation are left unrepresented. They suffer chiefly, however, from looseness in translation; as in his famous Aristophanic renderings, Frere has attempted to give the spirit of the original rather than to translate it with literal accuracy. A second version, that of the late John Ormsby, appeared in 1879, with an introduction and notes. This is more complete; all the important passages appear in metrical translation, and the rest of the poem is represented by condensed prose paraphrases. Better work, so far as it goes, could not be looked for. Ormsby is a faithful and spirited translator, and has performed his task with a gusto that is contagious.

Mr. Huntington has rendered the whole poem, line for line, in blank verse, and his is therefore the first complete English translation. For the most part accurate, it suffers from the medium which he has chosen for its rendering. The metre of the original, in the corrupt manuscript which we possess, is very irregular, but the norm may be said to be the line of seven iambic feet. This is our own ballad metre, and the rhythmical effect is not unlike that of Macaulay's "Lays of Ancient Rome." Both Frere and Ormsby have therefore used the ballad metre, and the result in general is splendid. The dignity of blank verse wholly fails to give the spirit and rush of the original versification, though the freedom from rhyme makes the task of literal translation simpler. Yet the lack of rhyme seriously affects the interest of Mr. Huntington's version in the prosier portions, and in the more vivid passages spoils some of the poem's dash and simplicity. Frere's happy but careless methods are shown in the following passage:

"The story of the lion should have taught you shame at least.
You rushed out at the door, and ran away so hard
You fell into the cesspool that was open in the yard.
We dragged you forth in all men's sight, dripping from the drain;
For shame, never wear a mantle, nor a knightly robe again."

This is vigorous verse; but, as Ormsby has pointed out, there is no "cesspool" or "drain" or "dragging" in the original. Diego Gonzales is taunted with having hidden behind the beam of a wine-press, and spoiled his beautiful garments so that he will never be able to wear them again. Ormsby's and Mr. Huntington's versions of the passage follow:

"For you to boast! the lion scare have you forgotten, too?
How through the open door you rushed, across the courtyard flew;
How sprawling in your terror on the wine-press beam you lay?
Ay! never more, I trow, you wore the mantle of that day."

"Shouldst not forget the story of the lion!
Didst through the portal fly and place thyself
Within the court, didst go to hide behind
The wine-press beam, but ne'er again didst wear
Thy cloak nor tunic."

Ormsby has here corrected the more obvious errors of Frere without losing the latter's vigor and spirit, but Mr. Huntington's is even more faithful to the original. Diego did not mount the wine-press beam, but hid behind it (*tras la viga lagar*), and not only his mantle, but also his lower garment (*brial*) was spoilt for ever. Both Ormsby and Frere, however, give a more vivid impression of the surging flow of the original, with its ballad metre and its resonant rhyme. But it is no slight merit, after all, to have rendered the whole of a great work like the 'Poem of the Cid' into English verse for the first time, and to have performed the task with fidelity and distinction.

In conclusion, attention should be called to the beautiful dress of these two volumes, which represent the final excellence of the work of the De Vinne press. The full vellum binding, the clearly marked typography, and the photogravure illustrations of Spanish scenes are alike to be commended, though the curved lines placed at the end of every verse seem to us an innovation of doubtful merit, both trivial and distracting.

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*Music in the History of the Western Church.* With an Introduction on Religious Music among Primitive and Ancient Peoples. By Edward Dickinson, Professor of the History of Music in the Conservatory of Music, Oberlin College. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892.

Nothing in this book is more remarkable than the inequality of its workmanship. We easily distinguish two strata of work, one which, taken alone, would make an excellent book, and another of very inferior quality. It seems clear that a group of well-studied essays on portions of the author's subject has been enlarged to the supposed necessary bulk by adding extraneous and superfluous matter neither original nor well compiled. These two portions of the work might have been written by two several authors. The larger shows a careful student using well-digested material and displaying clearness of thought, originality, and a pleasing though somewhat careless literary style. In this part Mr. Dickinson is

perspicuous, even when discussing subtle matters of theory; rich and sometimes graceful in illustration, temperate in phrase-making and in the use of epithets. In the other part he is obscure, wordy, abounding in hollow phrases and conventional art jargon, and staggers under a load of ill-chosen, vague, and needless adjectives. *Nihil fuit unquam sic impar sibi.*

Whatever fault we have to find with this book must be understood to belong chiefly to its superfluous portions. One criticism, however, which applies in some measure to the whole, concerns a habit acquired, no doubt, in the course of teaching. A lecturer is not expected to give his authority for every statement; but when he turns his lectures into a book, he should cheerfully submit to a law which the profoundest scholars have respected, and support by reference to accepted authorities all assertions of facts not readily ascertainable. An assertion, for example, that the myths of Greece represent the gods as dancing, and the ritual dance as an imitation of theirs, might not need to be proved to scholars familiar with the Homeric hymns, if Mr. Dickinson counts on many such; but the statement (p. 6) that the myths of *many* nations do so, needs support for almost any reader. So, too, the assertion (p. 8) that the Hellenic ritual dance was *adopted* by the Romans, a conjecture intrinsically improbable, even if we did not know that the Italians had ritual dances of their own long before they ever came in contact with the Hellenes. The reader might ask for proof, or at least authority, as to any recognized use in the early Church of dancing round the altar (p. 8); as to the symbolism of ancient Egyptian and Hindu music (p. 11); for the assertion that much of the musical art of the Greeks came from Egypt, and for a good many others of the same absolute sort. The lecturer may reasonably claim from his audience a frequent *acte de foi* such as Edmond About wittily defines as "l'opération d'un homme qui ferme les yeux pour mieux voir." He is permitted to adopt the principle of "Open your mouth and shut your eyes, I'll give you something will make you wise"; but the modern reader of serious books does not want to be treated to kindergarten methods.

As to this writer's peculiarities of language and style, we must really leave it mainly to the reader to discover them. It will suffice to mention a very few. To say nothing of such a monstrosity as *orchestik* (p. 8), the reader will be rather staggered, we conceive, by such expressions as "*drastic* descriptive literalism" (p. 179), "*lustrous* sound tints," "quick to *sense* devotional demands" (p. 387), "changes in *spiritual emphasis*" (p. 388), "the ruling *postulate*" (p. 139, referring to demands of public taste), "periods of *relapsed* zeal" (p. 79), and the qualification of Gounod (p. 216) as "so *liable* or perhaps so neutral in his art."

The habit of phrase-making, so dear to the art critic, and a certain tendency to enter into the enthusiasms and opinions of the author he may be momentarily using, betray Mr. Dickinson into frequent inconsistencies. Thus, we learn (page 11) of the symbolism of Egyptian music; on page 39, Music has "no associative symbolism, like poetry." On page 80 we hear (with no little amazement) of the "*terse* embodiment" of ideas in the Roman liturgy; but on page 83 the Mass is "an elaborate development" of the Last Supper. On page 85 all parts of the Mass "are designed to . . . prepare the officers" (meaning the officiants) "and people to share in" the eucharistic sacrifice, "and to impress on them its meaning and effect"; but on pages 90, 91 the service is logically in Latin "because the Mass is not considered as proceeding from the people, but is performed for them and their name." How, being in Latin, it can impress any meaning on the people we are not told. Again, on page 95, the liturgic chant is "a sort of religious folk-song proceeding from the inner shrine of religion," while on page 109 Gevaert is approvingly quoted to the effect that it is derived from the purely secular κιθαρῳδία of Roman private life.

We cannot always commend Mr. Dickinson's logic. The argument, for instance, on page 21, that the Hebrews invented no musical instruments because theirs are all found among nations older in civilization, would prove that sewing-machines were not invented in America because they are used in Japan. On page 82 he first postulates that a Universal Church must have a universal form of speech; his next assumption is that this "must inevitably be the Latin." There is no attempt to prove either proposition, though the reader cannot be supposed to forget that the only church which ever had the least claim to be called universal, the original church of Jerusalem, was notoriously Greek, as was also, for that matter, the original church at Rome. These views of our author must be classed, we suppose, with his surprising enthusiasm for the decrees of Trent (p. 156), his admiration of Ignatius Loyola, the founder of the Jesuit order (*ibid.*), and his absurd claim (p. 62) that the Papacy dates back to the fourth century—mere echoes, we will hope, of the books consulted while writing on the Roman liturgy.

We turn with real pleasure to the agreeable duty of giving Mr. Dickinson the praise which he deserves for many excellent things. When on his own ground, he can be exceedingly interesting. His history of the Sequences (p. 121, *seq.*) and his chapter on Organum and Discant are sure to delight and instruct readers not acquainted with systematic histories of music. Still more pleasing is the account of the birth of modern opera; and the author's views on Palestrina, on the Cantata and Passion Music, and the chapter on Bach are very good and profitable reading. We may also commend the chapters on Mediæval Chorus Music, on the Lutheran Hymnody, on Anglican Church Music, and on the Congregational Song of England and America. The last chapter, on Problems of Church Music in America, will be found of unquestionable value. When at his best, Mr. Dickinson often rises to a plane of really excellent writing. On page 163 he makes a beautiful comparison of the gently shifting harmonies of certain music with the play of light on a sunlit, breeze-swept meadow. He has also a decided aptitude for epitomizing history in a philosophical way. We regret that space will not permit us to quote his acute characterization of the Anglican Reformation (p. 325) and some other thoughtful passages which we have found most suggestive, even when not convincing. Readers who may have read with surprise the statement (p. 229) that Lutheran congregational song is derived from an ancient habit of ejaculating "Kyrie Eleison, Christe Eleison" chorally on solemn occasions, may be interested to know that the fact is confirmed by a passage, overlooked by Mr. Dickinson, in that curious ninth and twelfth-century poem, "Reynardus Vulpes," where, on p. 38 of Mone's edition, we read that (the multitude)

> "Salve festa dies" cantabat, ut usque solebat
> In primis feriis, et "Kyrl" vulgus "ole";

where the *tmesis* of Kyriole (*i. e.*, Kyrie Eleison) in the pentameter will amuse the classical scholar.

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*A History of the Peninsular War.* By Charles Oman, M.A. Vol. I. 1807-1809. With maps, plans, and portraits. Henry Frowde. 1902.

The question which will arise in the mind of every one who sees this title, may as well be answered at once and in Mr. Oman's own words:

> "More than one friend," he says, "has asked me during the last few months whether it is worth while to rewrite the history of the Peninsular War when Napier's great work is everywhere accessible. I can only reply that I no more dream of superseding the immortal six volumes of that grand old soldier than Dr. S. R. Gardiner dreamed of superseding Clarendon's 'History of the Great Rebellion' when he started to write the later volumes of his account of the reign of Charles I."

In this passage Mr. Oman terms Napier a "grand old soldier," but it becomes quite apparent from what follows that he holds his illustrious predecessor guilty of gross partiality. As a narrator of the incidents of the war, Napier is unrivalled; but when he wanders off into politics, English or Spanish, he is a less trustworthy guide. Those who have read the recently published letters of Lady Sarah Lennox will be quick to apprehend the chief point in Mr. Oman's criticism of her son. For example, the quotation which we gave from her letter regarding the death of Lord Edward Fitzgerald shows how deep was her sympathy for the popular cause as well as for a beloved and unfortunate kinsman. The same liberalism (and it may well have been strengthened by her friendship with Fox) was communicated to her sons. Charles Napier had more than a little of it, and in the case of William it took a most unusual form. Himself a soldier in the bitter struggle of which he wrote the story, he had something like hero-worship for Napoleon. At a time when Nelson was bidding every midshipman hate the French as part of his duty, Napier saw in the national foe a true apostle of liberty. It is related of Lord Raglan, who served his apprenticeship in the Peninsular War, that before Sebastopol he spoke of the enemy as "the French," even when he was in conference with his French allies. Napier had none of this feeling. He disliked and despised the Tory administrations which were conducting affairs during the Peninsular War. He even seems to have anticipated the view of Napoleon's character which arose in France at the time of the Bonapartist revival under Louis Philippe. We are not surprised to encounter a "Populist" estimate of the Emperor in the pages of Mr. Watson, but there is some

ground for wonder when we encounter it in the work of a British historian who risked his life a hundred times and was wounded almost unto death, in the Peninsula. Mr. Oman is only recalling facts when he says:

"In his preface, Napier goes so far as to say that the Tories fought the Emperor not because he was the dangerous enemy of the British Empire, but because he was the champion of Democracy, and they the champions of caste and privilege. When the tidings of Napoleon's death at St. Helena reached him (as readers of his 'Life' will remember) he cast himself down on his sofa and wept for three hours."

To carry out a comparison between Napier and Mr. Oman would be a long matter, and such a contrast is quite unnecessary. The differences of situation will occur to those who have not read the present work, as well as to those who have. During the past two generations a vast amount of new material has been disclosed, and upon this Mr. Oman's history is largely based. The author trusts that "it will not be considered presumptuous for one who has been working for some ten or fifteen years at the original sources to endeavor to summarize in print the results of his investigations." A particular reason which has had to do with the writing of this book may also be mentioned. Sir Charles Vaughan, the diplomatist, collected at the time and on the spot a great amount of information which has never been used. In the manner of Thucydides and Froissart, he sought out leading personages, asked them questions, and set down what they told him when the events were fresh in mind. After many years his papers have come by legacy into the possession of All Souls College. Apparently they have never been opened since his death. Having these to start with, and the Record Office to fall back upon, Mr. Oman has essayed to write a new, exhaustive, and accurate history of the Peninsular War. He promises a bibliography in the next volume, but there is enough already to show that he has not set out in any light-hearted spirit to supplement the eloquent and classical work which all the world knows.

Mr. Oman is much more friendly towards the British Governments of 1808-1814 than Napier was, and speaks a bold word on behalf of "Castlereagh's splendid service to England." He is likewise more lenient towards the Spaniards, despite "the cruelties of the guerrillas, the disgraceful panic on the eve of Talavera, the idiotic pride and obstinacy of Cuesta, the cowardice of Imaz and La Peña." He listens to the representations of Arguelles, Toreño, and Arteche on behalf of their countrymen, and will not accept any statement of fact which does not regard the Spanish as well as the French contention.

If we were to pronounce judgment upon the work from the evidence of the first volume, we should lay special stress upon the statistical and topographical excellence which it displays. Should the same standard in these respects be maintained throughout, Mr. Oman will deserve to be ranked high among the historians of intricate campaigning. For most readers the centre of interest in the first volume will be the last section, in which are described Sir John Moore's advance to Sahagun, his retreat before Napoleon and Soult, and the battle of Corunna. Mr. Oman, viewing Moore as a general rather than a man, can see a good many shortcomings that are concealed from Napier. For instance, he lays stress upon a certain over-conscientiousness under responsibility, the moral effect produced by fear of losing "not a British army, but *the* British army." On the other hand, he has warm praise for Moore at his best. "He was a man of courage and honor, and at the critical moment recovered the confidence and decision which was sometimes wanting in the hours of doubt and waiting."

Mr. Oman thinks that Napoleon interfered in Spanish affairs because he thought himself a second Charlemagne, rather than because he was trying to "force the Continental system upon every state in Europe." But we are unable to take up in detail either the military or the political features of this important book. It is enough to say that it enhances the reputation which Mr. Oman has already made by his 'Art of War in the Middle Ages.'

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*Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne.* Par le Vicomte G. d'Avenel. Paris: Armand Colin.

This is the fourth volume of the series of sketches which M. d'Avenel has been writing, at the request of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, on some aspects of modern life generally neglected by the historian. Having heretofore studied the big department stores and the organization of horse races, the financial companies and the manufactures of paper or silk, he gives us, in the present book, some first-hand information on the great dressmakers and milliners of Paris, the advertising departments of the press, the theatrical business in all its ramifications, and the money-lending institutions, both public and private.

M. d'Avenel's method is easily explained. He generally starts out knowing little or nothing about the institution or the business that he expects to describe. Like a conscientious reporter, he goes, pencil in one hand and note-book in the other, to visit the principal places of interest; he interviews the men who know all about it, and gathers from them as many facts, figures, and characteristic anecdotes as he can. When he has done that, he thinks of giving a little historical background to his essay. Being skilled in historical research (he is the biographer of Richelieu), he looks up the old documents and always finds interesting facts on the origin of so-called modern institutions. At last, since he has a philosophical bent of mind, he meditates somewhat on the why and wherefore of things, and, with this mixture of facts, figures, anecdotes, philosophical remarks, and witty sayings, he makes up those entertaining and instructive articles which he gathers under the happy title of 'Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne.' In this latest group of studies, those who do not care to penetrate the mysteries of the dressmakers' shops of the Rue de la Paix, or to know how many rabbits it takes to manufacture our hats, will find a chapter full of information on the business aspect of the press of to-day, and a very complete and readable sketch of the French theatres. The future historian of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries will be grateful to M. d'Avenel for his exemplifications of our modern civilization.

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## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, C. C. An Elementary Commercial Geography. D. Appleton & Co. $1.10.
Adams, John. The Minor Prophets. (Bible Class Primers.) Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. 20 cents.
Adams, R. C. Good without God. Peter Eckler.
Amery, L. S. The Times History of the War in South Africa, 1899-1902. Vol. 2. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $30.
Bacon, Francis. Essays or Counsels Civil and Moral. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Baedeker, Karl. London and its Environs. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $1.80.
Bagot, Richard. The Just and the Unjust. John Lane. $1.50.
Banister, H. C. Musical Analysis: A Handbook for Students. London: William Reeves; New York: Scribners. 75 cents.
Boas, Franz. Kathlamet Texts. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Bond, A. K. How Can I Cure My Indigestion? The Contemporary Pub. Co.
Burdick, F. M. The Essentials of Business Law. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Cadness, Henry. Decorative Brush-Work and Elementary Design. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $1.40.
Campbell, George. A Revolution in the Science of Cosmology. Topeka: Crane & Co.
Chase, Eliza B. In Quest of the Quaint. Philadelphia: Ferris & Leach.
Correct Social Usage, by Sixteen Distinguished Authors. 3 vols. The New York Society of Self-Culture.
Cox, W. V. Celebration of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Establishment of the Seat of Government in the District of Columbia. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Cramer, Frank. Talks to Students on the Art of Study. San Francisco: The Hoffman-Edwards Co.
Cunningham, J. T. Sexual Dimorphism in the Animal Kingdom. London: Adam & Charles Black.
Cyr, Ellen M. The Advanced First Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Dalman, Gustaf. The Words of Jesus. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
D'Annunzio, Gabriele. The Dead City. Chicago: Laird & Lee. $1.25.
Delitzsch, Friedrich. Babel and Bible. Chicago: The Open Court Pub. Co.
D'Esterre-Keeling, Elsa. Sir Joshua Reynolds. P. R. A. (The Makers of British Art.) London: The Walter Scott Pub. Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Diekhoff, T. J. C. Lessing's Nathan der Weise. American Book Co. 80 cents.
Duff, M. E. G. An Anthology of Victorian Poetry. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Earl of Iddesleigh. Luck o' Lassendale. John Lane. $1.50.
European and Japanese Gardens: Papers Read Before the American Institute of Architects. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. $2.
Gardiner, J. H., Kittredge, G. L., and Arnold, Sarah L. The Mother Tongue. Book II. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Ginn, Edwin. Scott's Lady of the Lake. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Holborn, Alfred. The Pentateuch in the Light of To-day. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. 75 cents.
Hunt, W. C. Census Report for 1900: Population. Part II. Washington: United States Census Office.
Irving, Washington. Sketch Book. 2 vols. (Caxton Series.) London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Isaac Pitman's Shorthand Instructor. Rev. ed. Isaac Pitman & Sons.
Jekyll, Gertrude, and Mawley, Edward. Roses for English Gardens. (The "Country Life" Library.) Scribners. $3.75.
Jessup, Alexander. The Best of Stevenson. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Lanier, J. J. Kinship of God and Man. 2 vols. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Manson, J. A. Sir Edwin Landseer, R. A. (The Makers of British Art.) London; The Walter Scott Pub. Co.; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
McCartney, John. The Story of a Great Horse: Cresceus, 2:02¼. Indianapolis: The Hollenbeck Press.
Miller, E. D. Modern Polo. New ed. London: Hurst & Blackett; New York: Scribners. $5.
Ostini, Fritz von. Uhde. Leipzig: Vellhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Phin, John. The Shakespeare Cyclopædia and New Glossary. The Industrial Publication Co. $1.50.
Pryor, G. L. Neither Bond nor Free. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co.
Shelley, P. B. Poetical Works. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Sidis, Boris. Psychopathical Researches. G. E. Stechert.
Strachan, James. Hebrew Ideals. Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. 60 cents.
Tolman, H. C. Urbs Beata. Milwaukee: The Young Churchman Co. 75 cents.
Toward the Rising Sun. (Youth's Companion Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER* 4, 1902.

## The Week.

When President Roosevelt last week told the citizens of Augusta, Me., that "this continent"—an obvious slip of the tongue when he meant hemisphere—"is no longer to be regarded as a colonizing ground for any European Power," the sentiment excited only the conventional enthusiasm. Everybody realized that it was the turn of the Monroe Doctrine, and nobody attached any especial importance to the verbal form of the President's remarks—on these well-worn subjects he notoriously says whatever occurs to him at the time. Least of all did anybody for a moment imagine that he had suddenly heard of any particular colonization, or that the "war game" was likely to be the prelude to a serious mobilization. It took an Austrian newspaper, the *Neue Freie Presse*, to make out of the President's platitude an international affront. The Austrian editor apparently believes that the President virtually has served notice on England, France, and Holland to relinquish their ill-gotten colonies, and warns Germany off from South America. This latter view is shared by the rarely well-informed Vienna correspondent of the London *Times*. In England the speech fell as quietly as it did here—beyond the limits of Augusta, Me.—and it will be something of a surprise to the British Foreign Office to learn, by way of Vienna, that Mr. Roosevelt has been "waving his bony fist against England, because the Boer war published to the world the poverty of Great Britain's resources." All this to-do—simply because the President, on his way to Augusta, and wondering what he should give the people, remembered Blaine, and gave them the Monroe Doctrine—suggests that to the various fallacies already registered we should add the telegraphic fallacy. It must be grateful to the indignant shade of Blaine to hear this passing mention of the Doctrine reverberating through the capitals of Europe.

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Among the echoes of President Roosevelt's speeches which come from abroad, we note that the *Kreuz-Zeitung* rebukes him for speaking in a tone of "arrogance." This it explains, however, by saying that such haughtiness is a result of "the Puritanical belief in the God-given mission of the United States." So it may be, but we seem to remember a similar confidence expressed of late years by German public men. Bismarck was nothing if not pious, and would never have dared to set about aggrandizing Germany by unscrupulous diplomacy had he not believed that the divine sanction rested upon his labors. The Kaiser himself has pretty steadily assumed, in his public speeches, that he was deep in the counsels of the Almighty. God and the Hohenzollerns together were to be a match for anybody. There is nothing surprising about this. Any great and growing and prosperous country, like Germany or the United States, is tempted to see in mere bigness and success a signal proof of the favor of Heaven. This is not exactly the Scriptural view of the matter; it is not even a view which a sober reading of history will confirm; but it is very human. God on the side of the biggest battalions; right the sure concomitant of might—that has been the implicit belief of every nation that has been exalted unto heaven, as a preliminary to being cast down to Gehenna. "Well," said an unctuous clergyman to Lincoln in the dark days of the civil war, "I am certain that the Lord is on our side." "What bothers me," said the President, "is the question whether we are on the Lord's side."

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It is evident that President Roosevelt has made more speeches in his recent tour than he had conned over before he started. His remarks on the Trust question were carefully prepared. Whether reduced to writing or not beforehand, they had been well thought out. Quite different was his talk on the Monroe Doctrine on Labor Day in the town of Proctor, Vt., where he said:

> "Remember that the Monroe Doctrine will be respected as long as we have a first-class, efficient navy, and not very much longer."

This, in face of the fact that the Monroe Doctrine was formulated in the year 1829, and has been respected by every Power on the globe—with the temporary exception of France under Napoleon III. —from that day to this, although we had no such navy as the President describes, and during a large part of the time nothing that could be classed as a navy. Our navy was very near its lowest point relatively to that of Great Britain at the time when President Cleveland sent his Venezuela message to Congress. It is true that we had begun to build a new navy, but it was in no condition to uphold the Monroe Doctrine or any other doctrine that any strong naval Power, which had sufficient coaling stations on this side of the water, might see fit to dispute. Only England and France were thus equipped, and either of them could have annihilated our navy at that time. No Power ever had such provocation to dispute the Monroe Doctrine—if it be conceded that that doctrine was really involved in the Venezuela controversy—as Great Britain then had. It was Heaven's blessing to both countries that she did not dispute it; but how strange it seems, in the light of that event, to read from a successor of President Cleveland that the Monroe Doctrine will be respected only as long as we have a first-class, efficient navy. Have we a first-class, efficient navy now? If we have, why are we building more battle-ships?

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The announcement that Gen. Miles is to be permitted to make an "inspection trip" to the Philippines will be received by the friends of that officer as a substantial victory for the commander of the army. Last winter his application to go, with or without his baker's dozen of Cubans and Porto Ricans, to proclaim American justice and right-doing, was rejected by the War Department. Since it was Gen. Miles who helped to bring out the water-cure facts, and who officially stated that the American troops had conducted the war "with undue severity," the Administration and the War Department were not at all anxious to have him indulge his propensity to talk to reporters on conditions in the archipelago. Doubtless their change of front is due to a desire on the part of the War Department to be well rid of Gen. Miles during half of the remaining year of his active service, and perhaps to the belief that the situation in the Philippines is now so peaceful as to render it little likely that Gen. Miles can do any "harm" by his inspection trip. But the necessity for such an inspection will occur to no one. Inspector-General Breckinridge, a most capable officer, Adjutant-General Corbin, Paymaster-General Bates, Quartermaster-Gen. Ludington, and other War Department lights, have had their chance at inspecting—with what result the public knows not. Gen. Breckinridge's doubtless voluminous reports have not been given to the press, and there are no signs that they will be. Gen. Miles's may easily have the same fate. In this connection it is interesting to note the statement of the correspondent of a leading New England daily, who declares that no department in Washington gives out Philippine news or information except that which reflects favorably upon our colonial experiment. Everything unfavorable is carefully hidden from the representatives of the press.

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The announcement that the forthcoming report of Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell upon industrial and labor conditions in the Philippines will contain an urgent plea for Chinese laborers, will surprise few who have studied the question of the development of the islands. Whether his statement that coolies are absolutely es-

sential to the industrial development of the archipelago will influence the Administration or Congress, is quite another matter. The discreditable Chinese legislation to which President Roosevelt gave his signature last winter placed the Philippines and our other colonial acquirements under the exclusion laws, despite numerous protests from Americans and Filipinos. But Congress could not find time really to apply itself to the solution of this question, any more than it could give its best thought to the Philippine money problem. It is interesting to note that the Germans, next to ourselves the youngest colonizers, are finding the question of labor in their colonies quite as serious as it is in Rhodesia and elsewhere. Some German writers and newspapers would have forced labor—that is, a "mild slavery"—or, as an alternative, severe taxation of the natives, to be paid in natural products. This seems to be the trend, the world over, whether in Egypt, in South Africa, or under the disgraceful rule of the Congo State. Who can say for certain that the exclusion of the Chinese from the Philippines will not give rise to threats to make the lazy natives work in Anglo-Saxon style?

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The first break in President Palma's Cabinet has come, and it is more than usually significant. When Minister Terry of the Department of Agriculture first offered his resignation, press and public in Cuba regarded it as an ominous event, and strong influences were brought to bear upon him to induce him to reconsider his determination. He held the matter under advisement for a few days, but in the end persisted in his purpose to withdraw from the Government. This is a grave symptom of political trouble in the young republic. It shows that Señor Terry has become convinced of the failure of his plans to aid Cuban agriculture, and is disgusted at the way in which the radical and irresponsible elements are getting the upper hand. A man of wealth and high standing himself, his willingness to cast in his lot with that of his friend, Estrada Palma, was rightly thought to argue well for the moderation and stability of the new Government. His peremptory resignation now will naturally, therefore, be taken as an alarming sign. It was so interpreted in advance by the conservative Cuban newspapers.

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The following statement was given out by the Department at Washington on Thursday:

"Secretary Shaw recently invited some of the largest national banks in the principal cities to order additional amounts of circulating notes to be printed. National banks are entitled to issue circulation to the full amount of their capital. This aggregate capital is $700,000,000, but the banks have only outstanding $358,000,000. His suggestions have met with very favorable response. It is not his intention that they should issue this additional circulation except in case of actual necessity and emergency, should one arise. With this in view, the banks, which have made arrangements to deposit United States bonds as security for such additional circulation, have sent in their orders, and the Secretary has had all branches of the Treasury service busily engaged in expediting the preparation of the notes, pending a possible emergency."

Coupled with this statement was a rumor circulating in Wall Street to the effect that the Secretary had sent his invitation to the aforesaid banks, which hold large Government deposits, and that it was understood by them as an intimation that, if the suggestion were not complied with to the extent of $100,000,000, the deposits would be withdrawn from the non-assenting banks.

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That is idle gossip assuredly. In order to "take out" $100,000,000 of new bank-notes, an equal amount of Government bonds must be deposited in the Treasury. At the market rate, there would be a premium ranging from 5 to 34 per cent. on the purchase, but, in fact, the bonds could not be obtained at all. Not more than $5,000,000 could be collected without raising the premium considerably. Probably the amount that might be secured by purchase, at any premium which would allow a profit on the resulting bank-notes, would be too trivial to bother about. More money can be made with a given amount of bank capital in other ways than can be made by buying bonds and issuing notes thereon. Attempts to force the banks to issue notes without the prospect of gain may be rightfully termed "tinkering the currency." Moreover, this is a species of tinkering that will do no good. If it is the aim of the Secretary to relieve the money market and furnish a new supply of currency for crop-moving purposes, the plan proposed will be a failure. The amount paid out for bonds with which to secure bank-notes might be better used directly for crop-moving purposes. The amount obtainable by the borrowing of bonds and the issuing of notes thereon must in any case be small, and subject to serious delays. It should be the aim of statesmanship to devise a better system—one which shall do its own work, and not need tinkering by Government officials at harvest time, or at any other time.

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In substance, the circular issued by the Southern Railway's "voting trustees" to the shareholders amounts to this—that owners of the property are asked to deposit irrevocable proxies for the election of their officers during the next five years. Clearly, this is asking a pretty large concession, and it is incumbent on those who ask it to say what they have to offer in return. When voting power was thus conceded, for a term of years, at the reorganization of the various bankrupt railways, the position was that banking interests, able to put the reorganization through, were willing to undertake it only when assured of maintenance of control until sound conditions were restored. This was a wholly logical position; bankers could hardly be expected to devote their time and energies to the work while confronted daily with the possible passing of the property to a hostile ownership. But the present case is different. The limitations imposed by the trustees themselves have been attained. No one professes that the Southern Railway is not solvent, prosperous, and free from need of further direction by reorganizers. Under such circumstances, a request for another five-year surrender of the right to vote for the managers of their choice might appeal to shareholders in a somewhat different way.

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The circular issued by the "voting trustees" gives the reasons which they have to advance. "The events of the last eighteen months in connection with railroad properties," they say, "have revealed the danger to which corporate properties are exposed of the control of their stock being bought up in the market by purchasers not identified with the property or permanently interested in its development and improvement." They add that "negotiations having an important bearing upon the interests of the Southern Railway Company" are now pending, which, it is inferred, might be overturned if control were left in the open market. The reference very plainly is to the roving band of millionaire speculators who, last April, with the help of accommodating banking institutions, managed to snatch control of the Louisville and Nashville system. It is pretty clearly hinted by the Southern Railway trustees that these Wall Street adventurers are still a menace, and that it will not be safe to give them another opportunity. This is an extraordinary situation, but it is a situation which exists, and which provides the only warrant for the request of the trustees. It may be compared to the course of events in the Middle Ages, when small proprietors placed themselves under feudal control of a powerful neighbor baron, as the alternative to perpetual spoliation from wandering robber bands. Whether the shareholders of the Southern and other companies will care to accept this mediæval tenure, remains to be seen. As a principle of general application, we are inclined to doubt it. Are they at all assured that the Wall Street rovers will, within the next five years, be disarmed or dispersed; and if not, will another five-year concession then be asked? Or is the present extension of the voting trust only designed to cover the period during which the Northern Securities suit shall be decided, and the way perhaps paved for a Southern Securities combination?

Mayor Low's weekly talks to the public are evidently something more than mere academic discussions of current problems. If proof were needed, it is supplied by the instructions given by President Wells of the Tax Board to his deputies, in which he directs them to assess real property in their districts at the full market value. This is one of the methods outlined by the Mayor through which the working capital of the city may be increased. The Constitutional debt limit is 10 per cent. of the taxable valuation of the city, and the addition of more than a billion dollars to this valuation means a large increase in the capacity to borrow, or, in other words, a large increase in the city's capital. It is quite certain that this change will not be carried through without opposition from many property owners. The increase of assessment must, of course, be accompanied by a corresponding decrease in the tax rate. The plan is that tax bills shall not be increased, but taxpayers will not be wanting who will fear that the rate will gradually climb again to the usual figures, while the valuations remain at the newly established level. Despite this, it must be admitted that the Mayor's plan, now to be carried into execution, is only a straightforward compliance with the law, and for this reason at least is desirable and commendable. It is gratifying to note that, in making the change, President Wells is intent upon correcting the evils of unjust, careless, and corrupt valuation. Under the new system the Tax Department, as never before, will need expert assessors who are both honest and capable. Blundering guesses at values can no longer be tolerated.

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One effect of the new scheme of valuations will be to place this city squarely in line with the rest of the State in favor of the total abolition of the direct State tax, a change in State finance now almost achieved through the efforts of Gov. Odell. This change has already reached a wide popularity in the rural districts, for the very good reason that it has lifted a vast burden of taxation from the rural counties, which now, instead of paying considerable sums into the State treasury, pay only a trifle and receive back large amounts for the support of their academies and schools and for the improvement of their roads. The change has not, however, attracted so much interest and attention in this city because the burdens of indirect taxation fall heavily here. There has been no active opposition of any consequence to Gov. Odell's programme; it merely has been received with less enthusiasm in this city than in the rural districts. With our property assessments based upon full market values, however, New York city would undoubtedly suffer seriously from a resumption of the direct State tax. Rural assessments range from 40 to 50 per cent. of actual values, and in the spreading of the State tax a wholly unjust proportion would consequently fall upon the city. It is the nature of equalization boards to raise valuations, not to reduce them, and little or no relief could be expected from this source. But with the direct tax out of the way, the city has no such injustice to fear.

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When Senator Platt says that the Republican State Convention will adopt a platform containing a very warm endorsement of the Roosevelt Administration, but not declaring for the renomination of the President in 1904, the head of the machine shows his teeth. It is true that there are no precedents in New York for suggesting a second term for a President two years before the meeting of the National Convention, but neither were there such precedents in Kansas, Iowa, Pennsylvania, and other States where Republican conventions have already declared for Mr. Roosevelt's renomination. It is not any regard for tradition which deters the Platt machine from passing a resolution on this subject in line with those adopted in several other States. It is simply the purpose to show the President that he cannot count with assurance upon the delegation from his own State in the National Convention of 1904.

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Following the example of Harvard, the University of Pennsylvania rearranges its order of studies so that an ambitious student may attain the bachelor's degree in three years. This is brought about much as it was at Cambridge, by requiring a certain number of courses for the degree, and permitting the student to follow as many in any year as he is able and willing to undertake. By carrying twenty hours of classes a week, the required sixty courses are completed in three years. Furthermore, the University intends to accept the logic of this "unit" system, and let every man achieve his sixty units in his own time—be it three, six, or ten years. Certain practical implications of this change should be noted. The abolishment of "conditions," and the requirement instead that the deficient "unit" or its equivalent shall be made up another year, will greatly simplify college administration, and do away with the most ungrateful part of the professor's task. Finally, the presence of a large number of three-year men (in Harvard they are already a sixth of the whole) practically means the formation of an "honor school," and we shall soon see fully recognized the English distinction between honor men and pass men, which is not quite the American discrimination between "sports" and "grinds." That this innovation will greatly change the traditional leisureliness and solidarity of American college life, no one can doubt. But this life has already pretty well disappeared from the urban colleges.

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The sudden application of the Crimes Act to five more Irish counties is difficult to account for. There has been no news which warrants one in believing that there has been any marked increase of crime in Ireland. The Nationalist members had no trouble in showing before Parliament that Ireland was in a condition of considerable tranquillity. The inclusion of the Borough of Dublin in the proclamation can have no other reason than that of regulating and perhaps suppressing the newspapers which represent the new Irish League. In this case the act is plainly used as a means of political, nay, of partisan aggression. To take such a step shortly after the activities of the *agent provocateur* Sheridan had been fully exposed, seems to us a tactical mistake of the first magnitude. No one can doubt that the general application of the Crimes Act is calculated to produce precisely the condition of disorder in view of which it was formulated. Pending an explanation of the bare dispatches, it seems that Mr. Balfour has committed himself to a policy of provocation. Those Unionists who imagine that the political propaganda of the Irish League may best be countered by coercion, may soon have as foolish a look before the country as Lord Rosebery and his fellow Liberal Imperialists, who professed to see in Irish reform an out-worn issue.

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The visit of the King of Italy to Germany is somewhat in the way of tardy amends for the Russian excursion of a few weeks ago. It has given the Kaiser a chance to emphasize the importance and vitality of the Triple Alliance—a sentiment to which his royal guest gave only a conventional response. In fact, the immediate political significance of the visit is almost nil. The personal aspects of the meeting are, however, most interesting. We see in conference the two European monarchs who take the royal office most seriously, and who alone have the personal force to make a lasting impression upon the destinies of their people. One would give much if he could for a moment look into the very heart of these two ambitious young men. Does the Kaiser look forward to the peaceful triumphs of German science and industry, or does his mind work upon armies advancing through conquered or ceded territory? Does the King commit himself to the uplifting and education of those confused but mighty forces which are working in regenerated Italy, or has the dream of an Albanian overlordship and a Tripolitan dependency captured his imagination?—these are the questions which every observer of European politics would like to have answered.

### *RADICAL MEASURES AND CONSERVATIVE PARTIES.*

Attorney-General Knox expressed the opinion last week that Congress would surely act in consequence of the President's speeches regarding the regulation of Trusts. We are not so certain of that ourselves, but we are certain that Congress will be much more likely to act as a result of the bold attitude which Mr. Roosevelt has assumed in the presence of the people. For one thing, he will have done a great deal to crystallize public opinion. His words may not be always wise, or his recommendations happy; but he is setting the country to thinking, and the country's thought takes, in the long run, the form of legislation. But the greatest reason for expecting definite enactments to follow the President's appeals lies in the fact that he, in the act of urging radical measures, is the leader of a conservative party.

As a general rule, it is by the hand of the conservative party—call it Tory, the Right, the Centre, or Republican—that innovating and progressive laws are written upon the statute-book. The advanced party, the agitators, the Liberals, first take up the issue, work for it, alarm the country by their proposals, and lose political power. Then the "saviours of society" come into control of the Government, and proceed quietly to "dish the Whigs" by adopting their measure. It has been so in England in connection with the extension of the franchise, which the Conservatives stoutly withstood, only to go later, under the lead of the cynical Disraeli or the reluctant Salisbury, much further than their opponents had proposed. The capital instance, however, is Irish legislation. Since moving heaven and earth to defeat Mr. Gladstone's "revolutionary projects," the Tories have passed two acts for Ireland more revolutionary, in some respects, than anything Mr. Gladstone ever brought forward, certainly more radical than anything he ever enacted into law. We refer to Lord Salisbury's acts for expropriating Irish landlords and for setting up local government in Ireland. No wonder that the late Sir Charles Russell thought actual home rule would yet be granted by the Conservatives. They would call it by some more sweet-smelling name—"devolution of Imperial powers," or what not; but the *thing* they really may give Ireland, in the end.

There is a great deal of political philosophy and of human nature in this historic law of progress by means of the party that puts on the brakes. So much depends on who says a thing! In politics, as in theology, Pascal's doctrine of "another mouth" has constant application. "Dans une autre bouche," the proposition would have been orthodox; but anything that Arnauld said must be heretical, and so he had to be condemned by the Sorbonne for what a really good Catholic might have uttered with impunity. It is on this principle that Mr. Roosevelt can say with general approval what would awaken general dismay coming from Mr. Bryan's mouth. Such is the nature of political man! Character and reputation count, in these things, for more than mere language. Mr. Bryan had the name of a leveller, and when he talked about legislating against Trusts, people thought he meant an attack on all property, and were willing to give up a part of what they had to the Republican party in order to prevent the destruction of their all. But when Mr. Roosevelt says essentially the same thing, his record, his position, make all the difference in the world. He is a born and bred conservative, therefore there cannot be anything revolutionary in what he proposes. It is by such implicit reasoning that his speeches fall so gently upon an undisturbed public equanimity. "That's so," the very people say who have hardly got over their terror at Bryan. "The Republican President must be right."

It is largely in such ways, we must not forget, that political progress is possible. Through the infection of the conservative party with radical ideas, the English system and the American system show their superiority to the French. "We do not make reforms in France," said a French Senator to Richard Cobden; "we make revolutions." Our way is, fortunately, to peg away at that slow amelioration which we call reform, and not to shake society to its foundations in the hope of setting things right. And one reason we are able to do it is that even our staidest and most inert party cannot for ever remain stationary. When the time comes, it will be found "stealing the clothes of the Whigs." We do not say that Mr. Roosevelt is stealing the clothes of the Democrats, but their preliminary agitation has prepared the ground for his harvest. It is possible for him to do in the guise of a conservative what they never could have done as radicals. This is his advantage. It is the immense advantage which any chief of the conservative party has who adopts an innovating course. He disarms suspicion, and quiets vague alarm, by virtue of his very position. Mr. Gladstone was so keenly sensible of this truth that he besought Lord Salisbury in 1885 to strike hands with the Irish and carry through remedial legislation as a Conservative policy. He knew that he himself would have to dash his strength against rock-like prejudices which would not exist for the Tory leader. And if President Roosevelt shall prove able to secure a more stringent Federal control of corporations, it will be due in a great degree to the fact that he and his party can put their own label upon radical legislation, and make it pass current as the purest example of stable and conservative policy.

### *TARIFF REVISION AND PROSPERITY.*

Congressman Hopkins of Illinois is the latest Republican statesman to maintain that it is out of the question to touch a bad tariff in good times. He said in Washington on Thursday that it would be "suicidal" to think about tariff changes while we are enjoying such "great prosperity." Talk not to him of worn-out duties, of tricky schedules, of rates fixed by the Trusts for the Trusts, of needed readjustments in the interest both of trade and of political morality. All that he could see was a prosperous country, and might his tongue cleave to the roof of his mouth before he would wag it in favor of "disturbing business interests" and "unsettling present conditions" by means of tariff revision.

Mr. Hopkins, it is only fair to remember, has a Senatorial contest on his hands. He has been named by his party convention to succeed Mr. Mason as Senator from Illinois. Now a would-be Senator, it is not invidious to say, is under a certain amount of suspicion when he shows tender consideration for tariff beneficiaries. The Senate is the bounteous dispenser of tariff favors, and their sure bulwark against rash disturbers, whether by means of reciprocity treaty or outright amendment. But it does not necessarily follow that the Illinois Representative, en route to the Senate Chamber, is unconsciously influenced by the air which he expects soon to breathe. He may very well be only one more of the men who catch up the current cry that a movement to revise the tariff would be instantly fatal to American prosperity. It is, however, merely one of those catch-words which serve as an excuse for not giving attention to the real conditions of the problem. A calm examination of them will show, we are convinced, that the plea against tariff revision, on the ground that it will injure business, is essentially hollow and specious. It may deceive the unthinking, or be used as a cloak by the designing, but it has no support in the facts of the case.

To begin with, no one but a tariff lunatic can deny that the real basis of our present prosperity is in our succession of good crops. What was the market anxiously watching all the early summer months? What were foreigners persistently inquiring about? The condition and prospects of our staple agricultural products. As soon as it was known that our corn and wheat and cotton were practically secure for this year, everybody settled down and said, "Well, that means another year of prosperity." What did the London *Times* refer to the other day when it said that "the dice have fallen kindly" again for Americans? Had it heard that Cannon and Grosvenor were opposed to tariff revision, and did it therefore conclude that

American prosperity was to be uninterrupted? No; it studied the crop reports, and saw that we were to have abundant harvests again, which meant that prosperous conditions were to continue. Had our crops generally failed, of what avail would the tariff have been, revised or unrevised, to assure us prosperity? In much of the foolish talk on this subject we need to listen to the sarcastic warnings of Burke against attributing all good things to the contrivance of man, and allowing nothing for the bounty of Providence.

Passing on to details of the tariff itself, we have, first, some protective duties which confessedly no longer protect. That is, they are practically without any effect on business. How, then, can their removal disturb business? By taking away nothing can you reduce a figure? Next we have such tariff schedules as those on steel products and manufactures of glass. These are the ones to which Speaker Henderson referred, in a letter to an Iowa constituent, as crying out for revision, so grossly abused had they been in sheltering monopoly at the expense of the consumer. But whose prosperity would be impaired by cutting off those iniquitous duties? Not that of the general mass of the people. Yet it is their prosperity which the Republican party professes to be anxious to promote. They would get their steel and glass cheaper, and would not have the rankling sense that they were being taxed for the benefit of odious monopolies. As for the Trust beneficiaries, they might not feel either so prosperous or so secure; but an exclusive prosperity dependent upon special legislation is something which cannot be too soon impaired. We are bidden not to be envious of the prosperity of the wicked, and are assured that, even when they flourish for a time like a green bay tree, they will one day be found cut down and withered; but in this matter of a tariff stuffed with favoritism, we have the axe in our own hands, and the tree will be brought low as soon as the people determine to allow it to flourish artificially no longer.

It is when we put such specific cases as the ones we have mentioned that we see how much sham there is in the Republican unwillingness to injure prosperity by revising the tariff. If there is a log-rolling combine of plunderers who have the party by the throat, and tell it that it must not remove unjust duties on peril of having the whole system upset and the business world convulsed, then, indeed, there is a reason for Republican alarm and helplessness, though it cannot be confessed. But there is no honest reason against such a correction of tariff blunders, and such a revision of tariff inequalities and injustices, as we have suggested. The excuse for doing nothing is really a condemnation for not wanting to do anything.

We may add that this is a subject on which President Roosevelt cannot persist in keeping silent. He must speak to establish his own sincerity. The charge is freely made that his speeches about restraining Trusts are only declamation; that he knows nothing can be done; that his Constitutional amendment will take years to get, if it is ever secured at all. But in cutting away the tariff protection of Trusts, there is something definite that can be done immediately. The Republicans of the West are demanding that it be done. Unless the President is willing to rest under the suspicion that he is talking clap-trap, for political purposes, and that he has not really enlisted for a war against Trusts by every legitimate weapon, he will soon take occasion to say that he agrees with those ardent supporters of his in the West who are clamorous for the removal of the tariff duties that shelter monopoly.

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*COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LAWS.*

No one will deny that it is profitable to compare the laws of different communities. Montesquieu's treatise may be said to be antiquated only in its materials; the method is sound. If there is anything to be gained by experience, or anything to be learned by example, it would seem that legislators were, above other men, in a position to obtain these advantages. Theoretically, they pass their time in deliberating concerning the interests of the people, inquiring into the measures which will best promote those interests, and enacting those measures in the best possible form. In such labors it is obvious that most valuable assistance will be afforded by studying the laws of similar communities; and this must be especially true when there are many coördinate States as similar as those which form our Union.

From the Library of the State of New York regularly issues a summary of the legislation of the past year. The plan adopted is to classify laws according to their subjects, and to obtain from various college professors and public officers reviews of the different classes of laws. A very few examples from the volume for 1901 will show what may be expected from such treatment. Residents of New York have reason to know that city government is a large and complicated subject. The charter of the city makes a good-sized volume, and even those who framed it cannot always tell what it contains. To comment on laws of this size requires space; and to comment successfully on all the laws affecting city government passed in a year in all the States would require a great deal of space. But in this review we find the topic dismissed, rather than discussed, in three pages. It might be possible to enumerate the statutes bearing on city government within such limits, but it is not possible to include a serviceable commentary.

The taxation of mortgages is a matter which has occupied much of the time of Legislatures, but here we find it treated in a sketch of four pages, confined to the situation in Missouri, with illustrations from California. The taxation of corporations is an excessively intricate subject, to comprehend which a vast quantity of matter must be examined. It is allowed eight pages here; half of the space being given to business corporations, and half to public-service corporations. In fact, when we consider that there are but 240 pages in the review, and over forty rubrics, we see that very little could be done in the way of exposition. In several cases what is done is surprisingly well done. In general, however, the criticism amounts to little more than the expression of the opinion of the writer, and the ordinary legislator, we venture to say, will care little for that.

The truth is that "comparative legislation" is one of the most difficult of all sciences, if it can be called a science. It is as intricate as biology, and requires abilities in those who pursue it as great as those of Huxley or Pasteur. We sometimes hear it said that our confederate form of government is very favorable for experiments in legislation. A law may be tried in one State, and the other States can look on, see how it works, and try it also if it seems to work well. But the inference is often very misleading. To see this we need only consider the drink and Sunday laws of the State of New York. The laws which suit certain parts of the State are altogether unsuited to the city, and the attempt to apply them produces the most injurious results. We can see the fallacy of the argument that because a sumptuary law "works well" in a small village in St. Lawrence County, therefore it must work well in the great city of New York. The same fallacy exists in the argument that an experiment in Colorado or California will be conclusive for Alabama or Massachusetts. There are reasons why a law that would answer its purpose in Vermont would not succeed in New Hampshire; and few would contend that a law reported to be effective in Mississippi or Louisiana would be adapted to New Jersey or Connecticut.

Yet in a compilation like this there is a certain amount of miscellaneous information from which we may get some notion of the drift of law-making. Evidently it is strongly paternalistic. There is a continuous multiplication of offices and raising of salaries. New commissions are created, new licenses are required, new taxes are imposed. The only checks to this tendency were in Massachusetts and New York, where a number of commissions were abolished or consolidated. In North Carolina a legacy may reach the legatee shorn of nearly 30

per cent. of its value; in Washington the rate is nearly as high; in Utah the tax may be practically even heavier.

The disposition to enable the politicians to monopolize the offices is marked. The "non-partisan," which means the bipartisan, commission, is in much favor. In Kansas and South Dakota independent voting, as well as fusion, is suppressed by laws which allow no person to be voted for except as the candidate of a single party. The labor unions show their political power in the Wisconsin law which allows no private person to conduct an employment agency without paying an annual fee of $500, and the bureaus of the State are prohibited from furnishing lists of unemployed workmen to proprietors of establishments where the workmen have struck. The statute-books are full of needless laws passed under the influence of gusts of feeling. Twenty-four States have passed laws against abduction, some of them of the greatest severity. But, surely, kidnapping was punishable as felonious assault! The student of social conditions may find food for reflection in the reduction of the term of imprisonment for horse-stealing in Arkansas from five years to one. Indeed, there is abundant food for reflection in this review of a year's laws; but it affords an insufficient basis for scientific legislation.

## *STRIKE INSURANCE IN AUSTRIA.*

Two plans for mutual strike insurance are discussed in the *Économiste Français* of August 2. The project of the German company incorporated at Leipzig yields in importance to the more comprehensive scheme under which the Vienna Manufacturers' Strike Insurance Company *(Verein zur Entschädigung von Industriellen in Streikfällen)* is being organized. Accordingly, we shall consider only the Austrian company. It will begin its active existence when it attains a membership of 250 separate establishments, representing an annual pay list of not less than 25,000,000 crowns (roughly $5,000,000), as certified by the Government Bureau of Compulsory Accident Insurance.

At a time when we are adding to actuarial estimates of marine, fire, and death-risks reliable percentages for accident and sickness insurance, it will not seem strange that the strike-risk should also be very closely computed. Official statistics from 1891 to 1897 give for Austria an annual average of 30,000 laborers on strike, and of 400,000 days of idleness on this account. On this basis the annual premiums of the members are fixed at 4-10 of one per cent. of the declared pay list for the year. So far, no minute discrimination of risks is provided for, and a rebate of 25 per cent. of the premium for long contracts or for enterprises in which the strike risk is notoriously slight, is the single concession from the established rate. Only experience will prove or disprove the solidity of these financial provisions.

Meanwhile the plan has many conservative features which inspire confidence in its framers. Neither the Vienna nor the Leipzig company will attempt to indemnify their respective members for the total loss caused by a strike. They propose instead partially to repay the actual disbursements of members during the shut-downs incident to a strike. The Austrian company, for example, pays half the registered wages of the striking workmen to the employer. But it continues the payment for not more than three months for a single strike, or six months in any one year. This, it will be seen, is a recognition of the principle that, whatever the circumstances, nothing should be done to prolong a deadlock between employer and employed—a principle which might find a most salutary application in the case of our present coal strike.

That the Austrian plan may have far-reaching social effects will be felt when it is explained that the indemnity is paid only in case the company judges the strike to be unjustifiable. Its statement of what it considers to be wrong grounds for a strike is of decided interest. First of all, a demand on the part of the laborers for the dismissal or engagement of any workman or employee is regarded as unjust. This is a concrete and unequivocal test, and it is based upon the impregnable argument of the right of labor to seek work freely and of capital to manage its own affairs. But in many cases the moral aspect of a strike is far more difficult to determine. Who shall decide whether the workmen have made "demands which the state of the business does not justify"? or whether their complaint has been made "in a form which threatens the authority of the management"? It is just these questions which arise in nearly every case, and it is the failure to meet these questions squarely and answer them promptly that brings about practically all the trouble. The originality of the Austrian scheme lies largely in the fact that it provides for an authoritative tribunal before which these questions are brought for settlement.

An executive committee of from nine to fifteen members has the duty of reporting promptly upon every strike, and declaring that the insured member is, or is not, entitled to receive the indemnity. At the earliest opportunity a member in whose mill a strike is impendng is bound to give this committee full information on the situation in general, on the demands of the strikers, on the offers of the employers, and, in short, upon all negotiations between the opposed parties. The central committee will ordinarily send a sub-committee to study the situation on the ground, with the intention not only of passing upon the strike, but also of bringing about an agreement between managers and men. When they have finally ordered the strike indemnity to be paid to a member, it means, first, that after careful examination they have found the men to be in the wrong; second, that they have exhausted all measures for conciliation. The moral value of such a verdict, we need not say, will be tremendous in any case; nor need we again indicate how it would have straightened out the tangle into which the coal-strike negotiations immediately fell.

For it should be noted that this committee, though composed of employers, has every motive for impartiality. It can no more afford to deplete the company chest to support a stupid or stubborn member, than it can safely desert a member in his need. If the sympathies of the committee are sure to be with a fellow-manufacturer, its interests are very largely with the strikers, and its tendency will be to push employers to the limits of possible concession. Indeed, a member who has the reputation of a stirrer-up of strife is as undesirable a policy-holder in a strike-insurance company as the amateur of arson is in a fire-insurance company. It would seem that organized labor in Austria could have no just grievance against an organization through which it will gain a permanent arbitration board maintained at the employers' expense, and it is easy to see that a prompt and competent report on all strikes will constitute a palpable check upon the malign activities of demagogues, and those grave injuries which it lies in the sullen power of offended capital to inflict. It is seldom that an economic innovation promises such immediate social benefits. This simple business project seems to offer nearly every advantage claimed for the vaunted conciliation and arbitration boards of the Australasian republics.

## *A COROLLARY TO NATURE STUDY.*

That minute observation of natural facts which Thoreau, W. Hamilton Gibson, John Burroughs, and others have exalted to the position of a cult is every day winning converts, and one may imagine a time when the "How to know" books will be unread, simply because everybody has made the acquaintance of the trees and birds and flowers. Nature-study in the schools is hastening this consummation. Following the admirable German precedent of teaching geography from the direct observation of the child's immediate vicinity, the schools of England and America—particularly the vacation and settlement schools—are pursuing this useful work. A fad in certain of its applications, no one can doubt the salutary effect of any training which makes against the tendency towards homelessness, and seeks as its end intimacy with all that is beau-

tiful, interesting, and instructive in one's natural surroundings. It is these numberless small associations which, after all, create the sense of home.

But we wish to point out less these obvious advantages of nature study in the schools than to inquire if such study has not possible bearings upon art education. At first blush, one would say, the very slightest, for the minute observation which is taught is, in some ways, foreign to art. The mere assembling of facts—the distinguishing of the kinds of insects, the discrimination of the calls of birds, the understanding of the growth of plants and the structure of flowers—is the smallest part of the artist's equipment. Correspondingly, save as it corrects slothful habits of vision, this various knowledge helps in no way towards the appreciation of a great picture or statue. For nature-study deals with natural facts, and art with natural appearances. The difference will be perceived in a moment if one will compare a book like Mr. John Van Dyke's 'The Desert: a Study in Natural Appearance' with any manual, however skilful, of the plants, birds, animals, or minerals of the marvellous region about the Colorado.

But the incompatibility between nature study and artistic seeing is not complete. Both have the same enemy—lazy and abbreviated habits of vision; both fight the same battle—to intensify the powers of observation. How languid the power of vision is in the average person was implied by Théophile Gautier when he made his proudest boast—"I am a man for whom the visible world exists." He meant that whatever knowledge of the world most people have comes through their fingers, their ears, and their noses, rather than through their eyes; and his paradox was wholly in accord with the most advanced psychology. It would not be too much to say that most people lack completely the power of active vision. They see just enough to identify objects—at most, some single characteristic which serves as brand or label—and they give over the task of seeing any object attentively and as a whole. There is probably a profound philosophy in this grudging use of the sense of sight. That sense is so painfully acquired by each individual—all recognition of dimensions, forms, textures, and distances being the gradual contribution of the other senses to a blurred retinal impression—that it is economized, as the chemist husbands some precious reagent. Then, for every-day purposes, mere identification of the passing object suffices. Only the artist and he who craves the larger enjoyment of the visible world need actually to see.

The Japanese show a sense of what the concentration of artistic vision must be when they refuse to draw from the model, looking fixedly at it instead, and, after it has been removed, drawing from the image in the memory. The contrary of this—a lax, short-hand vision—is the greatest obstacle to artistic appreciation. Nowhere is this more apparent than in the realm of color. It would hardly be an exaggeration to say that the great majority see no color in nature, or rather, that they see only what they think they ought to see, substituting dull formulas in the mind for the lovely tones that lie unperceived before their eyes. Only upon some such theory can we account for the universal acceptance of a dirty pink as "flesh color." Flesh actually, according to the natural complexion and the light and surroundings, will exhibit all the paler tones of the spectrum. So a "grass-green" is all that many of us ever see, whereas grass in sunshine may be brilliant yellow; in shadow or under evening skies, purple—and always is intershot with its complementary hue of red or violet. The mutability of color has been strikingly exemplified in a famous series of haystacks painted, hour by hour, through the day, and in the equally well-known series of Rouen Cathedral from dawn to dark. Whether one wholly agrees with Monet's interpretations or not, no one can dispute his fundamental principle that a haystack or a cathedral is a different object to the trained eye with every caprice of the sun and atmosphere, and that the range of variation is astonishingly great.

The practical question is, Can people generally, and especially children, be taught to eschew formulas and practise this truthfulness of vision? Undoubtedly, in a considerable degree; and the outdoor classes in nature study afford an admirable opportunity for this kind of teaching. It would chiefly be necessary to arouse the child's curiosity by challenging his conventional vision. Ask him the color of pine boles in the forest, and when he answers "Brown," show him that it is one of the lilacs; try him on a beech or a smooth maple, and when he answers "Gray," bid him look and see that the real color is one of the blue purples or violets. In many ways, without sacrificing the regular work in nature-study, children could be taught the art of seeing things as they actually appear. Of course, this presupposes artistic training in the teacher, and only to such as have this capacity is the experiment commended. We may add that Professor Shaler's essay, "Landscape as a Means of Culture," though it deals more with form than with color, would be suggestive to any teacher who wishes to broaden her course in nature-study, while that generally impracticable but wholly charming book, Ruskin's 'The Elements of Drawing,' gives some specific directions for ascertaining the natural appearances more eloquently described in 'Modern Painters.'

*WANTED: A STYLE FOR THE TIMES*

Mr. Walter H. Page, who has been successively editor of the *Forum* and of the *Atlantic Monthly*, and now edits the *World's Work*, writes in some bitterness of spirit in reply to the question, Why are the magazines not better? "I should be the last man in the world to call even the best magazines good. I have had my hand in making—I should not undertake to say how many—but I have never made one and I have never seen one made that was more than a pile of débris. The reason that you have rubbish in the magazines is because the editors cannot get anything better." This, or something like this, has always been the editorial cry. Mediocrity in the contributor has always been the rule, talent the exception. And if the editor of the *World's Work* merely wished to show that no magazine is quite worth the pain of its parturition, we might immediately relegate his words to the category of indiscreet confessions. It is not because Mr. Page is convinced that something ails the modern magazine—that is a very general belief—but because he tells definitely what, in his opinion, ails it, that his article will command the attention of the thoughtful.

He regrets that "the intellectual class" to which magazine contributors belong, does not write in an interesting way. The contributors who have some superficial grace of style lack ideas; those who have ideas lack style. There is an almost universal inability to write for the reading public of the beginning of the twentieth century, which is apparently a far more difficult public than any of older times. The voice and the style that can arrest it have not yet been discovered. Says Mr. Page:

> "The truth is, our style must become better. We do most things better than we write. Effective style is changing. The somewhat leisurely style of a generation or two ago pleased the small circle of readers within its reach—a mere little company which by comparison might have been got into one room, a company who had leisure and who liked to read that kind of writing. Now the great world is forging forward in all its departments of thought as in all its industrial development, and style suited to our time is different. The man who would write convincingly or entertainingly of things of our day and our time must write with more directness, with more clearness, with greater nervous force; and the teaching of composition and the practice of style have not kept pace with the development of our intellectual life in the United States."

Here, then, is the case squarely put. We must achieve a style nervous, emphatic, and insistent enough to catch and hold the man of to-day. But before we commit ourselves to this theory that the magazine style must be violently popularized, it may be well to recall a few masters of that "leisurely style" which Mr. Page feels we have so completely outgrown.

At the opening of the last century and thereabouts the best of the "leisurely" journalists were Hazlitt and De Quincey; a little later Macaulay and Leigh Hunt

continued the tradition; then Thomas Carlyle and Thackeray made their way through the magazines; Walter Bagehot and Matthew Arnold and J. R. Green did their turn in journalism; and to-day John Morley and Leslie Stephen, though unpossessed of the new style, manage to get a hearing. Now the implication that there was or is anything esoteric about these men, that writing to-day their too leisurely style would be found lagging behind our recent intellectual development—requires no very serious discussion. The writer who wished to reach our public would do much better, we believe, to study the "leisurely style" than to strive for that "nervous" quality which the modern magazine reader is supposed to require.

As a matter of fact, the desiderated style for the times has had a pretty thorough trial. The late G. W. Steevens certainly wrote it; Mr. Kipling writes it and produces six distinct electrical discharges in the space in which the leisurely writer would grudge himself one; Mr. Maurice Hewlett, although he is still caviare to the general, has all the nervousness and picturesqueness that any editor could desire; and Mr. J. P. Mowbray fairly flings his bawble into the face of the expectant public. But these examples of the modern style hardly encourage us to believe that progress lies that way. It seems to us, in short, that Mr. Page's conception of a deliberate attack upon the larger reading public, of a general attempt to measure up, or down, to the standards of those who, at bottom, have learned to read only between pictures, is fundamentally erroneous. We do not believe that the style which the great untrained public wants is a good style. The fact is that, while the "intellectual contributor" is often a dull person, the writers of to-day are less at fault than the public. It is the public that needs to be converted to intellectual leisureliness; not the writer who needs to catch the fever of modern life.

It is a very natural and in an editor a very amiable illusion—that of imagining the scramble for money and place and distraction to be more intellectual than it is. It is easy to mistake a certain progress in accustomed ruts for that untrammelled flight of the mind which is the condition of literary production and appreciation. Mr. Page is too modest in feeling that the failure to interest people who have little capacity for the pleasures of the mind is criminal. The newspapers and magazines that cater to listless intelligences, languid tastes, and roving attentions—it is these that have already discovered the style for the times which Mr. Page ingenuously desires. Should they be praised for the discovery?

We have fallen upon dull times for editors. The "intellectual class" probably writes less interestingly than it did, say, from 1800 to 1870. If any one wishes to appreciate the full seriousness of the case against the "intellectual contributor," let him read thoughtfully 'Literary Boston of To-day'—a book which, by a sheer coincidence, but a felicitous one, appears within a week of Mr. Page's protest against the dull and the literary. Before, however, he despairs utterly of the intellectual class, and undertakes the desperate attempt to contrive a style for the times, we advise Mr. Page, and the more philosophical editors generally, to take counsel of this wise saying, which may be found in the current *World's Work:* "It is a delusion to conclude that, because an idle man reads a silly book, he would read a good book if he didn't have the silly one. That kind of man will never read a good book." With the single change of "article" for "book," this covers the case. One should not go too far with this kind of reader. We are bound to write for him who runs, but we are not bound to make his haste our own.

## *AUTHORITY IN LANGUAGE.*

In April last the French Academy admitted to its Dictionary the word *chic*, without hesitation for the meaning 'improvisation of the artist who works without a model,' but only after much discussion for the sense 'taste of the day,' 'caprice of fashion.' If some critics would have barred out the word altogether, others complained that recognition came tardily. *Chic* (to which Littré was hospitable long ago, and which Sanders embraced in his 'Verdeutschungswörterbuch' in 1884) was, said M. Émile Faguet, slang of the clerks of the Parlement of Paris in the seventeenth century, with a relation to *chicane*, but when it reappeared in the second third of the nineteenth century, it had in the ateliers a quite different signification, and gained general acceptance as 'stylish' still later, between 1850 and 1860. Now, it is almost quite superseded by stranger forms—*pschutt, v'lan, urf, bath, chouette, dans le train* (in the swim), *dernier bateau*, and our English *smart*. All admit, however, that the Academy is exercising its proper function in fixing the limits of the allowable in correct French.

This function was invaded, in a way, in 1890, by M. Georges Leygues, Minister of Public Instruction, who was not uninfluenced by the agitation carried on during the previous three years by the Society for Spelling Reform. In a decree issued on the proposal of the Superior Council of Public Instruction, and dated July 31, 1900, he prescribed a number of licenses, both in spelling and in syntax, which examiners should tolerate in rating for certificates—for example, in the pluralizing of certain adjectives and compound nouns, in hyphenation, in the regimen of the past participle, in the use of unsupported *ne* after certain comparative expressions, etc., in the placing of adjectives before or after the noun—matters in which there is considerable doubt and inconsistency in the prevailing usage. The storm of protest which this decree evoked led M. Leygues (who, the wits declared, should begin by simplifying his own name to Lègue) to take advice of the Academy, which reported, through M. Hanotaux, against all the substantial changes proposed. M. Leygues, in a new decree, dated February 26, 1901, repudiated any intention of attacking the purity of the language or the work of grammarians, and drew a line (surely futile in practice) between strictness of teaching and strictness of examination.

The subject has just been reviewed, in a *Beilage* to the *Programm* of the Mülhausen Gymnasium, by Joseph Lebierre, who is engaged upon an extensive work showing the transformation and deformation of the French language during the past century. He marshals, rather obscurely because of poor typography, the arguments of the reformers and of the purists, who are not unevenly matched in learning and reputation. When Arsène Darmesteter pronounces French orthography the most incoherent and complicated of modern spellings, except the English, Brunetière points to the unrivalled expansion of English throughout the globe notwithstanding, while Bréal, far from wishing to write *farmacie* for *pharmacie, fisique* for *physique*, or to translate (as the new Germans have done under imperial guidance) such terms as *telephone* ("far-speaker"), advocates the greatest possible similarity in scientific and technical terms, for the sake of European solidarity. Other writers answer the solicitude of the reformers in behalf of foreigners as well as of school-children, by denying that there would be any real increase in facility of acquisition, whereas foreigners already in possession of the tongue would be compelled to unlearn and study anew. Would an Englishman be helped to recognize *juger* as meaning "judge" if it were spelt *jujer*, as is proposed, or *pijon* for *pigeon?* It may be set down for certain that any general disfigurement of the present orthography would separate French from English, which has taken over so much from the French; and that such typical changes as *atension* for *attention* or *aprendre* for *apprendre*, would serve to make English more a Latin tongue in appearance than French itself.

The battle has raged hottest, perhaps, over the proposed uniformity in the past participle of active verbs, instead of the actual concordance with the preceding object. Because the regimen of *coûté* is quite without rule, and because the past participle generally is conventionally constant or changeable in form, there is a desire to cut the knot at once by making this participle invariable. When, however, it is used adjectivally, a difficulty immediately arises, for it is justly contended that gender neglected in the participle would tend to become neglected in the adjective, and the language would approach English in the absence of inflection. English influence, it may be, is already making the post-position of the adjective less rigorous than formerly, but the other revolution would be far more sweeping.

At this point the poets take a hand in the controversy, and make an anxious plea for the integrity of the mute *e* of the feminine termination. Without this letter, reported M. Hanotaux, harmony and rhythm would perish from French verse; and Larroumet declares that it is "a rare and precious resource of classical prosody, from which the sixteenth-century poets de-

rived incomparable effects of tenderness, elegance, and dreamy melancholy"—citing a famous couplet from "Phèdre," with a *blessée-laissée* rhyme. Lacking the prolongation of the *e* mute, the verse becomes, he says, "hard and dry"; and he is sustained in this by Legouvé. A writer in the *Temps* claims the mute *e* as a peculiar musical property of the French language, and adds (but this is extremely doubtful) that "foreign poets envy us on account of it." Nevertheless, the strength of the position lies in the fact that the abolition of the mute *e* along with other silent letters would be the annihilation of a *shading;* of which poetry must ever be jealous. The *Journal des Débats* rightly remarked that if the new decree were carried to the logical conclusion of the reformers, "every mode of speaking and writing responsive to a shade of thought—perhaps a very subtle shade—would be construed as indicating a reactionary state of mind." It is in this light that must be interpreted a comment of the *Temps*, apropos of the "historic" argument for spelling *frapper* "fraper," or *femme* "fame": "To put the history of the language against the rules of grammarians founded in reason is to put barbarism against culture."

The dispute is not without interest for the English-speaking world. Pure phonetic reform in spelling finds no adherents of any consequence in France. The *visuels*, who regard the physiognomy of words, greatly outnumber the *auditifs*, who rely upon the sound. All the leading reformers want is a gradual change, bit by bit; and in the land of centralization they naturally turn to the Academy or to the Government for the necessary authority—as in Germany reformers turn to the Government alone—as in the United States they turn to the Government after having failed to make any serious impression on authors or master printers. It is only a little while ago that it was sought in Congress to pass a bill imposing the American Philological Association's list of changes on the Government Printing-Office; and there is no telling when the measure may be brought up again. Only the other day we ourselves were offered a communication recommending that, having the opportunity to fashion the unfortunate Filipinos in our own image, we should teach their helpless children an English orthography which does not exist except in the above association's pious wish and the actual practice (more or less timid and partial) of its followers, largely librarians who shuffle off two letters from *catalogue*. All this is of paltry worth beside the freedom which is the real genius of the English language, which enriches it from all tongues, naturalizes at once what it borrows, asks no other authority for what is correct spelling or syntax than the best usage, makes the historical Dictionary like the Oxford the mirror and monument of a splendid linguistic development—the record of countless experiments, successes, failures,

> "Revivals, too, of unexpected change";

and has no fear that the purity of the English tongue or the peculiar quality of English verse can sustain any lasting injury from the spirit of innovation like that surveyed by M. Lebierre in France for the past thirty-five years, and ever at work among ourselves.

# Correspondence.

## REPRESENTATIVES OF THE SOUTH IN CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Such a criticism of the fisticuffs of Southern politicians as appeared in the current *Nation* is not only merited, but sadly true. Perhaps it is explainable by the fact that the leading men of the South take not the interest in politics that they formerly did. Such a corner-grocery element has entered Southern politics that not very many gentlemen enter it; hence the absence of Calhouns, Clays, Madisons, Stephenses, Benjamins, Hamptons, Ben Hills, and the like in Congress. Jeff. Davis of Arkansas surely is not a type of the gentleman of the South of to-day. He is merely a specimen of the low grade to which Southern politics has now fallen. There are very few of us down South who admire either "Red Shirt" Tillman or Imperialist McLaurin. Senator Bailey, also, has lost many friends by his pugilistic encounter with Beveridge.

Northerners may be assured that all Southerners hate to see such encounters as have taken place recently. Also, let them know that the South is trying to reform, and hopes, in the near future, to send more men like Congressman John S. Williams of Mississippi to represent her at Washington.—Sincerely,

William Kernan Dart.

Bay St. Louis, Miss., August 20, 1902.

## THE ART OF UNLOADING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article entitled as above, in the *Nation* of August 21, seems to me worth to any thinking man the cost of a year's subscription, and, perhaps, of a whole lifetime of such subscription to some. The article has an economic as well as intellectual value, because at no former time have such gigantic efforts been made to inject vast amounts of worthless "water" into the country's securities, in the hope of thereby transferring the public savings into the pockets of a few tricky schemers.

Of course, it is chiefly the credulous and inexperienced, who still believe that their own especial genius can get something for nothing, that fall into these traps. But the public press professes to lead and teach the people, and, though the nets are shamelessly spread in sight of the game, scarcely a journal in the country has hitherto dared to expose the frauds with which their advertising columns are more or less filled. And yet the safety and happiness of countless families are endangered by every considerable amount of incorporated "water" which the promoters succeed in unloading upon unsuspecting industry.

Your theme is so timely, so well treated, and likely to benefit so many that I hope you will give us more of it, even "line upon line, and precept upon precept."

Yours respectfully, W.

Philadelphia, August 27, 1902.

## THE ARRANGEMENT OF PHOTOGRAPHS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have recently been making an effort to arrange a collection of some thousands of photographs of historical works of art, so as to be able to refer to them easily. My experience may be of interest to some of your readers. The first decision I had to make was as to division into sizes. One buys photographs of all sizes, but cannot arrange all together. The bulk of the collection must be small. After many experiments I fixed on the maximum size for the mounts of small photographs as a shade under 14½ inches by 10¾ inches—a little larger than music. I then had a number of "pamphlet cases" made by an American firm in London, the Library Bureau. The internal measurements of these cases are 14½ by 10¾ by 3 inches. The cases externally are mere rectangular parallelopipeds, with no roundings or additions of any kind except the labels I stick on. They are made of strong mill-board and covered in cloth. They are quite cheap. All photographs too large for these boxes are of a size that should lie flat in some kind of portfolio. Most working photographs will enter the boxes, though sometimes with very little margin. Personally I don't trouble to mount my photographs as a rule, they pack so much closer unmounted. I keep them strictly for use, and I write on their backs all the notes I want; but if I had time, I should mount them all on very *thin* cards, and write on the margins and backs of those. I have a number of thin covers of stout paper cut to fit the boxes, and I group the photographs in these covers—one to an artist, or to a school, or to one period of a single artist, according to the number of photographs to be dealt with. I write on the outside of the cover any notes I want about the artist or school in question. The boxes stand on shelves on their longer edges, the shelves being 15½ inches deep and 11½ inches apart. Thousands of photographs can thus be stacked in a small space. I am sorry now that I ever bought any large photographs, and am half inclined to cut most of them in half and hinge the halves together. The arrangement of the groups of photographs within the boxes is, of course, strictly chronological; architecture, sculpture, and all the arts of one period being boxed together. Martin Conway.

London, August, 1902.

# Notes.

John Morley's Life of Gladstone easily leads in interest the autumn announcements of Macmillan Co., in which Lives of Miss Yonge, by Christabel R. Coleridge, and of Sir George Grove, by C. L. Graves, are also to be found, side by side with Edward Everett Hale's 'Memories of a Hundred Years.' Further items are 'Essays, Historical and Literary,' by the late John Fiske; 'The Loyalists in the American Revolution,' by Claude Halstead Van Tyne; the fourth and concluding volume of Edward McCrady's 'History of South Carolina,' with Marion and Greene for the chief figures; 'Historical Lectures,' by the late Lord Acton; 'History: Suggestions as to its Study and Teaching,' by Prof. Lucy Maynard Salmon; 'Cecilia, the Last of the Vestals,' by F. Marion Crawford; 'Kottō: Some Japanese Curios, with Sundry Cobwebs,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'The Splendid Idle Forties: Stories

of Old California,' by Gertrude Atherton; 'A Joyous Journey round Rügen,' by the author of 'Elizabeth and her German Garden'; 'How to Sing,' by Lilli Lehman-Kalisch; 'Sun-Dials and Roses of Yesterday,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'English Pleasure Gardens,' by Rose Standish Nichols; 'Quebec: The Place and the People,' by Sir Gilbert Parker; 'New England and its Neighbors,' photographically illustrated by Clifton Johnson; 'Ancient Athens,' by Prof. Ernest A. Gardner; 'The Holy Land,' by John Kelman, with illustrations by John Fulleylove; 'Egypt,' painted and described by R. Talbot Kelly; 'Italy,' by Prof. W. Deecke; 'Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum,' by Mrs. Isabel Dorsey; 'Greater Russia,' by Wirt Gerrare; 'China and the Chinese,' by Prof. Herbert A. Giles; 'Around the World through Japan,' by William Del Mar; 'The Island of Formosa,' by James W. Davidson, U. S. Consul; 'London in the 18th Century,' by the late Walter Besant; 'London Highways and Byways,' by Mrs. E. T. Cook; 'The Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey,' by Mrs. E. T. Murray-Smith; 'The Scott Country,' by Wm. S. Crockett; 'The Boys' Iliad,' by Walter C. Perry; 'Furniture of Olden Times,' by Frances C. Morse; 'The Art of Walter Crane,' by P. G. Konody; 'Sir Joshua Reynolds,' by Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower; 'Nineteenth-Century Art and Scottish Historical Antiquities,' in two volumes; 'Frans Hals,' by the Rev. G. S. Davies; 'French Engravers and Draughtsmen in the 13th Century,' by Lady Dilke; a new play by Stephen Phillips, 'David and Bathsheba'; a prose work by Alfred Austin, 'Haunts of Ancient Peace'; 'An Illustrated History of English Literature,' by Dr. Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse; 'A Lexicon to the Poetical Works of John Milton,' by Laura A. Lockwood; 'Shakspere's Moral System,' by Prof. Richard G. Moulton; 'A Guide to Fiction,' by E. A. Baker; 'Plain Facts about the Trusts and the Tariff,' by George L. Bolen; 'Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties,' from the French of M. Ostrogorski; 'The Strength of the People: A Study in Social Economics,' by Mrs. Bernard Bosanquet; 'The New Empire,' by Brooks Adams; 'The Government of Ohio,' by Prof. W. H. Siebert—of New York, by Prof. Wm. C. Morey—of Maine, by Prof. Wm. MacDonald—of Michigan, by Webster Cook; 'Theory and Practice in Boys' Self-Governing Clubs,' by Winifred Buck; 'Essays in Heredity,' by Prof. Karl Pearson; 'Dante and the Animal Kingdom,' by Richard Thayer Holbrook; 'Development and Evolution,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin; and the 'Diamond Mines of South Africa,' by Gardner F. Williams.

From McClure, Phillips & Co. will proceed 'Dante and his Time,' by Karl Federn; 'The Letters of Daniel Webster,' edited by C. H. Van Tyne; 'Hogarth,' by Austin Dobson; 'Jeanne d'Arc,' by T. Douglas Murray; 'Maxim Gorky: His Life and Writings,' by Dr. E. J. Dillon; Tolstoy's 'Anna Karenin' and 'Ivan Ilyitch,' translated by Mrs. Garnett; 'Mutual Aid, a Factor in Evolution,' by Prince Kropotkin; and 'Astronomy for Everybody,' by Prof. Simon Newcomb.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'The Incarnation of the Lord,' by Dr. Charles A. Briggs; 'All the Russias,' by Henry Norman; 'King Mombo,' a book for young people, by Paul Du Chaillu; and a new edition of the late Clarence King's 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada.'

Bishop Potter's 'The East of To-day and To-morrow' will be brought out by the Century Co., as will likewise a volume on 'Title-Pages,' by Theodore L. De Vinne, and 'Luncheons: A Cook's Picture-Book,' by Mary Ronald.

An English version of Bémont and Monod's 'Middle Ages in Europe, 395 to 1270,' under the editorship of Prof. George B. Adams, is in the press of Henry Holt & Co.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will issue 'Nature and the Camera,' by A. Radclyffe Dugmore, and Kipling's 'Just So Stories,' illustrated by himself.

From the list of Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. we take a 'Guide-Book to Hygienic Diet,' from the vegetarian point of view, by Sidney H. Beard; 'Economics of Forestry,' by Bernhard E. Fernow; 'Irrigation in the United States,' by Frederick Haynes Newell; 'Parables from Nature,' by Mrs. Alfred Gatty; 'Thoreau: His Home, Friends, and Books,' by Annie Russell Marble; 'Robert Browning,' by Stopford A. Brooke; and 'Rustic Life in France,' from the French of André Theuriet, by Helen B. Dole.

Lives of Mozart and of Brahms will be added by E. P. Dutton & Co. to their "Master Musicians" series.

Elder & Shepard, San Francisco, are to publish 'The Romance of the Commonplace,' by Gelett Burgess.

Newnes's thin-paper editions of English classics, shaped for the pocket and the not too muscular hand, and bound tastefully in limp covers (Scribners), are extended by a volume of Shelley's Poems and another of Bacon's Essays and 'Advancement of Learning,' etc., while Irving's 'Sketch-Book' is allotted two in the analogous "Caxton Series" from the same house; but here the paper is of ordinary thickness and can be much more rudely handled. All have portrait or other frontispieces of excellent quality.

Messrs. Scribner are also the American agents for the thirteenth revised edition of Baedeker's 'London and its Environs.' The mapping and planning is most abundant and convenient, and the volume, which opens with a railway map of England and Wales, closes with a select index of streets and plans of the metropolis.

There is one career open to talents in England which has no parallel in this country. We have produced more statutes than all other nations put together, but we have produced no professional draftsmen. Every legislator may draw his own bill, or present a draft furnished him by the attorney of some constituent. No doubt much labor is expended in committee by good lawyers, but it is generally unsystematic. Hence, a new edition of Lord Thring's 'Practical Legislation' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) will probably not have so many readers here as we could wish. It was originally written to instruct the assistant draftsmen in the office of the Parliamentary counsel in "the composition and language of acts of Parliament and business documents," and appears to have received no alteration in this edition. The subject is certainly the driest conceivable, but the author relieves it with some illustrations of what statutes may be when not properly constructed. Thus, a certain act provided that its penalties were to be given half to the informer and half to the poor of the parish; but the only penalty imposed was transportation for fourteen years. Another statute contained the definition, "The term *new building* means any building pulled or burnt down to or within ten feet of the surface of the adjoining ground." An amendment proposed by a Queen's counsel ran as follows: "Every dog found trespassing on inclosed land unaccompanied by the registered owner of such dog or other person who shall on being asked, give his true name and address, may be then and there destroyed by such occupier or by his orders." But the book consists, in the main, of graver matter than this. It is systematic and logical in the highest degree.

The appearance of a second edition of M. Auguste Arnauné's 'La Monnaie, le Crédit et le Change' (Paris: Félix Alcan) tempts one to dwell on the complete collapse of bimetallism within the last few years. The first edition of this book appeared in 1894, and it then seemed as if bimetallism would carry everything before it. We all know how it was in this country, and in England the situation was almost as bad. Nearly all the professors of economics taught the necessity of restoring silver; Mr. Balfour joined the Bimetallic League; the Manchester Chamber of Commerce was converted. Never did an agitation more quickly subside; never was a theory more completely exploded. All the predictions of the bimetallists have been falsified. Gold has become almost universally the standard, and prices have almost universally risen. This book suggests these reflections because of its clear statement of the arguments concerning the standards, and of the monetary situation throughout the world. Controversy has now stiffened into history, but M. Arnauné's work has lost none of its value. It contains as good a description of money, its varieties, and its uses, as is to be found. The processes of exchange, of circulation, of credit, are all admirably explained. Especially satisfactory are the detailed accounts of the monetary systems of France, of England, of Germany, of the United States, and of Indo-China. The "Latin Union," of course, receives due attention. Were it not for the great number of books on the subjects here treated, we should be inclined to ask that this one might be translated; but it is written so clearly as to be easily read in the original.

Some idea of the rapid advance of socialism in France may be obtained from M. A. Lavy's 'L'Oeuvre de Millerand, un Ministre Socialiste' (Paris: Georges Bellais). The chief aim of the book is to glorify M. Millerand's achievements, and his speeches are certainly very able; but to American readers the extent to which the French Government has undertaken to regulate industry is the feature of interest. Much of what is called "amelioration of the conditions of life" consists in raising the salaries and shortening the hours of Government employees—of course, at the expense of the subjects. But the policy of compulsory insurance, of invalid and old-age pensions, of fixing hours of labor for men as well as for women and children, and of fostering the trades-unions, is very fully illustrated. No new arguments for this policy are advanced, but it is impossible not to be impressed with the autocratic powers of a French Minister of Commerce. The prefects are his agents, and he can assert his

will effectively at the same instant in every Department in France.

'Uhde,' by Fritz von Ostini, is the latest addition to the convenient "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This painter has been so much abused and praised for his practice of rendering Biblical scenes in the form of lowly German life of to-day that his more genuinely artistic qualities have been generally ignored or misunderstood. Typical of Ostini's criticism is the passage in which, commenting upon Von Uhde's neglect of portraiture, he discusses the present condition of that art in Germany: "Germany is not yet ready for portraiture conceived in any painter-like fashion, and if to-day a Franz Hals should appear among us, he would probably be without commissions. Our Philistines wish to be taken impressively, nay, monumentally; they do not wish their living likeness, but a partial and idealized representation of their personality. For this reason the best portraits among us are generally those which our painters do of each other casually and as a free act of friendship."

The appropriate costume for contemporary portrait statues can hardly be said to be of theoretical interest only. If comparatively few are in a position to give directions to the sculptor for work to be executed, the number of those feeling the need of a correct standard of judgment in the matter is certainly great. We, therefore, call attention to Professor Hugo Blümner's article on "Tracht und Nacktheit in der Portraitbildnerei," in the current number of *Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft*, as a helpful, clarifying discussion of this rather puzzling question. Bringing the experience derived from the history of classical, Renaissance, and modern art to bear on such important recent productions as Lederer's "Roland-Bismarck," Klinger's "Zeus-Beethoven," and Tuaillon's "Unser Fritz" in Roman armor, the writer arrives at the conclusion that truth to life and direct response to the popular conception of the character represented are the desiderata for a public monument.

Under the caption of "Architectural Refinements in Italian Churches," Mr. William H. Goodyear sums up, in the *American Journal of Archæology* (No. 2 of the sixth volume), the investigations pursued in the summer of 1901 on behalf of the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. These investigations were in confirmation of a previous set made in 1895, and these, in turn, grew out of Mr. Goodyear's pioneer work in 1870. They have, as is well known to readers of our architectural reviews and to many lecture audiences, revealed an unsuspected extension of intentioned curves, obliquities, and asymmetrical dispositions first remarked in the classic temples of Greece, but which Mr. Goodyear has demonstrated all the way from Egypt to the Maison Carrée at Nismes, via the Italian peninsula in particular. He is able, in the present paper, to append the certificates of the engineering architects in charge of St. Mark's at Venice and the Cathedral at Pisa in justification of his measurements and deductions. Pen tracings from photographs show clearly the horizontal curves in plan in the twelfth-century cloister of the Celestines at Bologna and in the cloister of S. Zeno at Verona; the vertical curves in the pilasters of chapel walls of the Cathedral of Vicenza; the buttressed *outward*-leaning walls of S. Agostino at Orvieto, and aisle-walls of S. Ambrogio and S. Eustorgio at Milan, and façades of the Cathedral of Pisa, of S. Michele at Pavia, and of S. Ambrogio at Genoa. But we must refer our readers to the article for these and other interesting details.

Though the serial publication called *American Art in Bronze and Iron* (New York, 556 West 27th Street) is frankly an advertisement of the work of a particular foundry, still, as the patronage notably proceeds from architects, decorators, and sculptors, the comparative exhibit is of real interest and value. The first number is given up to Tablets, including seals. Gen. McClellan, Professor Sylvester, Grace A. Oliver, Abby Hopper Gibbons, William Hamilton Gibson are among the better known persons commemorated in this manner.

The *Geographical Journal* for August opens with a paper on snow-waves and snow-drifts in Canada, by Dr. Vaughan Cornish. The most curious formations described are the snow-mushrooms on the tree-stumps in the Selkirks. A photograph is given of one which was nine feet in diameter. Of greater popular interest is Mr. Ellsworth Huntington's account of his descent of the great cañon of the Euphrates in the Taurus Mountains, he being the first after the famous Von Moltke to accomplish the feat. The voyage was made on a kellek, a light frame of saplings fastened together with ropes, under which were tied some thirty sheepskins with the legs up—a frail craft, apparently, but the party, five in number, floated on it safely 190 miles over numerous rapids, the total descent being 1,250 feet. In the great cañon the river flows between walls of limestone rock 450 feet high, many of the characteristic features corresponding closely to those of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, "showing that the two rivers are of nearly the same age." Mr. Huntington calls attention to the possibility of reclaiming Mesopotamia, formerly one of the most fertile tracts in the world, but now largely a desert, by means of irrigation reservoirs in the great depression of the upper Euphrates valley.

The Korea *Review* for June, besides papers on burial customs and Japanese banking (the latter article showing the risks of trade in a country that still holds to the silver standard), contains an account of the wreck of the *Kumagawa Maru* by collision with another Japanese steamer off the western coast of Korea, in which Dr. H. G. Appenzeller lost his life. For seventeen years in the once hermit kingdom, this American scholar and man of affairs was foremost in travel, literary, and educational enterprises. He had made pioneer journeys throughout most of the provinces of the little peninsular empire, edited the Korean *Repository*, built the first brick edifice in Seoul, was the first educator of Korean young men in English, secured the widening of the narrow streets of the capital city and the building of good roads, and took part in the ceremonies on the completion of Independence Arch, near the old Chinese Gate under which, as vassal of the Emperor of China, the King of Korea paid homage. At the time of his death this typical American teacher was librarian of the Korea Asiatic Society.

A valuable feature of the work of the Asiatic Society of Japan appears in part ii. of volume xxix. of the Transactions, just received. It is a catalogue of the Japanese books published in the year 1902, from January to June. The librarian, the Rev. A. Lloyd, 56 Tsukiji, Tokio, will be glad to assist in procuring these books, or to make arrangements to have translations made at moderate charges. The titles, with transliteration into the Roman form and Chinese ideographs, name of the author and publisher, price, place of publication, and explanation of the general purpose and contents of the books, are given. Under the categories of art, education, ethics, and religion, fiction, law, poetry and literature, and "miscellaneous questions of the day," about six-score are listed and described. Most of these are low-priced, many costing less than half a dollar, while showing a wonderful range of intellectual activity.

Miss Gould bought an almost unique collection of works on Mormonism, made by Mr. Berrien, as a present to the New York Public Library. With this purchase she gave other documents she had gathered on the specialty, and added a fund for supplementing it further. Accordingly our critic of Mr. Linn's 'Story of the Mormons' spoke of this special library as "accumulated" by her. The bulletin of the Public Library for December, 1899, with Miss Gould's letter of presentation, titles of the rarest specimens, and other details, is worth consultation, and will quicken interest in the volume by which Mr. Linn has been said to have done for Mormonism what Mrs. Stowe did for slavery.

—The September *Atlantic* assigns its leading position to a negro to discuss the problem of the "Training of Black Men." The ability of Dr. DuBois to write intelligently on matters concerning his race has often been demonstrated, and the article before us ought to prove to any thinking person that the aspirations of the colored people of America cannot be suppressed on the flimsy ground of race inferiority. It is merely a question of the right to full opportunity for race and individual improvement, and this cannot exist apart from absolute equality before the law, practical as well as theoretical. It demands, also, a willingness on the part of the masses to judge the negro simply on his merits as a man. The prejudices that prevent this, Dr. DuBois holds, are not to be encouraged by being let alone. "They must be recognized as facts, but unpleasant facts; things that stand in the way of civilization and religion and common decency." He will have none of the doctrine that the training of the colored youth should be simply for industrial pursuits. The counting of human beings merely as a part of the material resources of a country, to be regarded with a view to future dividends, was "born of slavery," he thinks, "and quickened into renewed life by the crazy imperialism of the day." It is a hopeful sign to find in an intelligent leader of the colored race so clear a knowledge of the real meaning of imperialism to the progress of that race. We are glad to see the *Atlantic* keeping up the discussion, in spite of the fate which overtook Professor Sledd. A solution of

the problem is a necessity to the continued moral and political progress of both races; and in order to a solution, prejudices must soften and discussion must be free. Eben Greenough Scott contributes a very helpful article on "Going into the Woods," but one feels that it would have been a little more timely in the spring, when plans for the summer were in preparation. As it is, it will only aid many readers to regret their mistakes. Herbert W. Horwill contends for a new University, in the form of an examining body empowered to confer degrees, for the purpose of establishing a national standard of education.

—It will be a surprise to many to learn from Walter A. Wyckoff, in the September *Scribner's*, that the poor of East London are not in the lowest depths of vice, squalor, and misery. Mr. Wyckoff spent many days in tramping East London streets, looking for what one would naturally expect to find there, and found it not. On the contrary, his final impression was that of a district comfortably clad, well fed, and unusually well behaved, considering its enormous population of the laboring poor. This he attributes in part to the present era of prosperity, though one hardly knows just what title London has to any share in the present era of American-made, tariff-protected, home-market prosperity. A trip through Abyssinia, the country of Menelik, "King of Kings and Conquering Lion of Judah," is described by William F. Whitehouse, and Mary H. Peixotto contributes a sketch of Mostar, the Herzegovinian capital. "A Fisherman of Costla," by James B. Connolly, is an unusually good short story. Mr. Russell Sturgis has secured for "The Field of Art" a brief sketch of the growth of the Louvre Museum, by Alexandre Sandier, with the special object of showing the recent changes by which, from the unorganized condition of former years, it has been made, in the words of Mr. Sturgis, "the most splendid and attractive museum in Europe."

—'Historical Essays by Members of the Owens College, Manchester' (Longmans) is a jubilee publication which helps to commemorate the founding of the institution in 1851. The editors, Prof. T. F. Tout and Mr. James Tait, recall the fact that "the studies which bulk largest in the newer universities and colleges of England are naturally those which are of a scientific, technical, or professional character. The Owens College is no exception to this rule, nor would it wish to be." Yet, none the less, "history has occupied a prominent place in the studies of the Owens College almost from its inception." This last statement is strongly supported by the twenty essays which have been collected for the present occasion, and are now published in a stout, well-printed volume as examples of independent research. If we examine its origin, the historical impulse of the Owens College seems to flow in a direct channel from Mark Pattison, of whom the first professor of history, the late R. C. Christie, was a disciple. Since then the activity of the department has been well maintained under Dr. A. W. Ward and Prof. Tout. It may suit the modesty of the editors to say, "The historical department of the Owens College is still only in the making," but most readers will infer from the quality of these essays that historical studies, save perhaps of the most technical kind, may well be carried on at Manchester. Regarding the articles which are here put forward to illustrate the vitality of a single department in a great college, one is at once impressed by the extent of their range. They open with "The Beginnings of Cæsar-Worship," by Mr. Edward Fiddes, and close with "Historical Teaching under the English System of Elementary Education," by Mr. Thomas Bateson. To be sure, the topics have been taken mainly from British history or from the border land of British and Continental history, but there is nothing to suggest narrowness of teaching or paucity of resources. Of the contributions, a few that will be most likely to interest professional workers in history may be named. Professor Tout writes on "Wales and the March during the Barons' War"; Dr. Ward, on "Elisabeth, Princess Palatine"; Mr. Spenser Wilkinson, on "Napoleon, the First Phase"; and Mr. J. H. Rose, on "The Detention of Napoleon at St. Helena." The presence of women at the Owens College is also revealed by interesting papers on "The Legend of St. Ursula," by Mrs. T. F. Tout; "The Rule of St. Augustine," by Miss Elizabeth Speakman; "The Sumptuary Laws of Venice," by Miss Mary Newett; and "Historical Teaching in Secondary Schools," by Mrs. Alfred Haworth. The editors are extremely moderate in stating the book's pretensions: "The essays are all based upon a study of first-hand authorities, and in several cases unpublished materials have been utilized. Some may claim to throw new light upon old problems; others restate succinctly, and with reference to the latest results of research, matters which must be studied in a wide variety of sources not always very accessible." All this is true, but for our own part we have been quite as much impressed by the excellence of the form as by the value of the investigation.

—'A Primer of Greek Constitutional History,' by A. H. Walker, M.A. (Oxford: B. H. Blackwell; London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.), is based on Greenidge's 'Handbook of Greek Constitutional History,' and is largely indebted to that excellent manual, though the author has rearranged his material, and treated it in an independent manner, with direct references to original sources. The result is a small volume of about half the compass of Greenidge's, of sound and creditable scholarship, which sketches neatly the development of Athenian democracy and its political machinery from its beginning in monarchy and aristocracy; and which discusses clearly the processes of transition from the Homeric king to aristocracy, oligarchy, and tyranny. Two chapters on the "Mixed Constitutions" of Sparta and Crete complete the survey of those miniature experiments in government which are so interesting to the student of constitutional history. A brief chapter on federal governments would certainly have interested the American student. This primer was originally planned with the purpose of aiding "to prepare boys for classical scholarships," and this statement reveals its scope and limitations. It is not barred to the general reader who seeks accuracy, and it may be useful in some of our best preparatory schools and as a short cut for the college student. But our college student will be more apt to use Greenidge's manual, and to supplement his reading from Gilbert, Meier and Schoemann, and similar authorities. Some misplaced accents in the index and in the body of this work make a discord with its general tone of scholarship, and in the third paragraph of page 75, "Roman invasion" must be a slip for *Dorian*.

—Nature study, a comparatively new departure in school education in this country and in England, is nearly a century old in Germany, instruction of the children of rural districts in the culture of fruit and vegetables having been obligatory in some parts of the empire since 1814. The school garden has been from the first an essential part of the scheme, and the English Board of Education, on adopting the German idea, sent an inspector, Mr. T. G. Rooper, to visit some schools where gardening forms part of the ordinary work of the scholars. His report, just issued, is an admirable summary of the methods of instruction, both of children and of teachers, with many practical details. A most attractive picture is drawn of an elementary school, corresponding to our primary and grammar schools, where there was a four years' course, of which Mr. Rooper gives a syllabus. Here was apparent one of the great advantages of the scheme. Instruction in fruit culture has been for twelve years the principal aim of the master, with the result that "the villagers have now taken to fruit-growing as an important subsidiary industry. They spend much of their leisure time in their gardens, and they save much money." Another advantage is the wholesome moral effect which this making of the garden a "living primer to the great Book of Nature" has upon the town children especially, in counteracting false excitement and craving after unwholesome amusements. One of the best town schools visited is in a suburb of Frankfort-on-the-Main, and a proof of its influence is shown in a tract of some 200 acres, only a mile from the centre of the city, divided into small garden plots of about 200 square yards, each with a little summer-house. These plots are let for $4.50 a year, and the fruit and vegetables raised upon them more than pay the rent, while "the summer-house is the scene of an almost nightly tea picnic" for the man and his family. A playground is provided for the young children, and the very poor are supplied with land gratis, by means of an old charity devoted to the purpose. Several photographs accompany Mr. Rooper's report.

—The gradual accumulation, step by step and year by year, of materials for filling in the scanty outlines of early Egyptian history goes on apace, and it is satisfactory to reflect that a goodly share of these new and important materials is annually distributed among the rising museums on our side of the Atlantic. The exhibition of all that was found this year, chiefly at Abydos, by Professor Petrie and the Egypt Exploration Fund, closed with the month of July, after attracting general attention. The fruit of this year's work must in part be shown by what is to be gathered in next year, since about half the outlay for excavation has been made with a view to reaching deposits that have not yet been actually touched, although they have in some sort been seen to exist. Extensive tombs of the first Egyptian Dynasty formed part of Professor Petrie's find of this year,

and have been connected—thanks to his indefatigable scientific ingenuity—with remarkably classified remains of prehistoric times found below the historic levels. Relics from Twelfth Dynasty tombs were also very conspicuous in his exhibition of this year, as were various inscribed bits of friezes, a number of sculptured bas-reliefs, and two very fine heads modelled in the early Egyptian and realistic fashion. Dr. Grenfell's Greco-Roman exhibition likewise formed an important part of this year's exhibition in Gower Street. The miscellaneous articles abounding in the Egyptian tombs of Roman date, the striking portrait-heads found on the mummy-cases of that period, specimens of variously shaped glass bottles, more or less fragmentary bits of harnesses, baskets used for toilet articles—these are some of the curiously modern appurtenances of latter-day life in Hellenized Egypt which have rewarded the laborers of the Greco-Roman branch of the Egypt Exploration Fund under Dr. Grenfell's superintendence.

—While Professor Petrie's and Dr. Grenfell's exhibition was open in London, a smaller exhibit was also made in the lecture-room of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, likewise of Egyptian antiquities unearthed this last season. Here were objects found by Mr. John Garstang a little west of Girgeh, whose investigations were made under the auspices of Mr. Hilton-Price, Mr. Arthur Evans, and a few other gentlemen who had been particularly struck by the discoveries made recently at a necropolis close to the site chosen by Mr. Garstang. Tombs of the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Dynasties were unearthed and a new series of monuments, of a kind not hitherto connected with Third and Fifth Dynasty tombs, has come to light. Among dated objects may be mentioned a glazed seal of Khafra and a bowl with the name of Sneferu inscribed on it. Both of these are thus indisputably assigned to the Fourth Dynasty. The character and relative position of several other objects found makes it possible to date them also. Most interesting, again, was a mace-head in alabaster on which was carefully wrought a "rope pattern" in sectional lines. It was surmounted with a curious inlaid cap of ivory with a removable stopper—just such an one as might have served in the Herodotean tale for the secreting of poison. This mace and a number of very graceful vases of remarkable size, in alabaster and in marble, came from one and the same tomb, presumably a royal one. Mr. Garstang further found a very curious shell carved in diorite and in many ways suggesting the workmanship of a curious shell unearthed by Mr. Evans at Knossos. Besides all these treasures and several others belonging to the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Dynasties—not hitherto abundantly represented in any museums—Mr. Garstang discovered some very good jewelry of the Nineteenth Dynasty. Altogether he is to be congratulated on the results of his first independent campaign.

## PROGRESS OF LAW IN ENGLAND.

*A Century of Law Reform:* Twelve Lectures on the Changes in the Law of England during the Nineteenth Century. Delivered at the Request of the Council of Legal Education. The Macmillan Co. 1901.

*Legislative Methods and Forms.* By Sir Courtenay Ilbert. New York: Henry Frowde. 1901.

These two volumes deserve hearty praise. They do honor to their authors and to the profession which they represent. Considered as literature, they are far superior to much that passes for historical writing, and may be found, to a great extent, not unreadable by the laity. The admiration of the American lawyer will be tempered, it is true, with envy. No such progress in legal reform as is here recorded has taken place in this country. No doubt it can be said that such progress was impossible because there was no such need for reform. When our forefathers crossed the ocean, they left behind them most of the legal abuses the suppression of which is so exultantly described in one of these books. As Webster showed in his great oration at Plymouth, in 1820, there was no place under our governments for the principles of the feudal system. There were no lands yielding rent, no tenants rendering service; and property was held and transferred by rules as simple as the lives of its owners.

Nevertheless, we cannot be blind to tendencies in our laws which are not encouraging. Statutes are multiplied incredibly, but not many of them embody reforms. We might almost say that abuses in England kindled a zeal for reform that has steadily grown more enlightened, while in our own country the absence of evil conditions has fostered an easy optimism under which abuses are becoming established. We are not saying that we have done nothing in the way of reform. In correcting the unjust laws relating to women we have gone as far as our English brethren, and in many other departments of law we have made changes as sweeping. But with fifty different jurisdictions, and a Federal system independent of them all, nothing could have been accomplished comparable in symmetry with the results attained in England. There a single system of law, highly centralized, could be and has been scientifically modified. Here the multitude of our councils has made systematic and scientific progress impracticable.

We cannot attempt to describe or even to enumerate the changes in the law in England which these lectures explain. They amount to a revolution, but they have been effected so gradually and so carefully as to have caused no appreciable disturbance. Women have been emancipated, children have been protected and educated, laborers have been granted equal rights with masters, the suffrage has been made almost universal. Dissenters, Catholics, Jews, and Atheists have been relieved of their disabilities, local governments and local courts have been established, and the whole system of representation altered. In the field of municipal government the extent of progress may be measured by the fact that, at the beginning of the last century, there were no sewers and no police.

In the law itself nothing but the main principles is the same. The courts are different, the practice is different, the education of the bar is different; even the substantive law is largely new. In the law of real property, the most difficult of all to change, extensive alterations have been made. Strict settlements have been rendered futile and transfers made easy. The difference between the criminal law of 1800 and that of the present day is the difference between barbarism and civilization. The lecturers agree that the descriptions of the treatment of debtors which we owe to Thackeray and Dickens, were correct. Jarndyce v. Jarndyce contains no exaggeration. So Mr. Augustin Birrell assures us, and proves his case by showing what the Court of Chancery was and how it has practically ceased to exist. The things that have disappeared from its jurisprudence would, he says, "if listed, as motions used to be towards the end of a term, easily engirdle all the Four Inns of Court."

Probably most of the changes have been statutory, but many of them have been due to the common sense of the judges. In former times the bailiff in charge of a jury was sworn to keep them "without meat, drink, or fire." On one occasion a juror asked for a glass of water, and the bailiff came into court and inquired of Mr. Justice Maule if he might comply with the request. "Well," said the Judge, "it is not meat, and *I* should not call it drink; yes, you may." We cannot believe that Lord Ellenborough was unconscious of his humor when he denied a motion to reduce the salary of his son, whom he had made chief clerk in his own court at £10,000 a year. "Reduction of salary must proceed on the ground of diminution in duty. Now, as nothing has ever been done in the clerkship of the Court of King's Bench, it is impossible that less could be done in it in future." And as the law has been improved through the efforts of intelligent and conscientious lawyers, so have the methods of its administration. We quote from Mr. Odgers, one of the readers to the Inns of Court:

"Of all the mighty changes that have taken place in the nineteenth century, the greatest change has been in the tone of the administration of both the civil and criminal law. The manners of our law courts have marvellously improved. Formerly judges browbeat the prisoners, jeered at their efforts to defend themselves, and censured juries who honestly did their duty. Formerly, too, counsel bullied the witnesses and perverted what they said. Now the attitude and temper of her Majesty's judges towards parties, witnesses, and prisoners alike have wholly changed, and the bar too behave like gentlemen. . . . The moral tone of the bar is wholly different from what it was when Bentham wrote; they no longer seek to obtain a temporary victory by unfair means; they remember that it is their duty to assist the Court in eliciting the truth."

Both in style and in substance Sir Courtenay Ilbert's book deserves to rank with Maine's writings. In a few luminous paragraphs he explains how and why English law has had a different development from that of France or Germany. He traces the stages of the improvement of the statute law, and epitomizes its history. It is altogether impossible within any reasonable space to do justice to the marvellously complete and succinct manner in which the analysis of the great body of statutory law is accomplished. The working of the legislative machine is explained so clearly that not only American lawyers but even American laymen can comprehend it. Indeed, we have here a manual for legislators, showing them

how statutes should be drawn and how they may be enacted.

When we consider the appalling mass of statutes of which our legislators are annually guilty—crude, blundering, ignorant, mischievous, and even dishonest, as many of them are—and contrast the spectacle with that presented by Sir Courtenay, we feel an emotion of despair. Such a book as his, one would think, would be the vade-mecum of every legislator and of every one who aspired to be a legislator. It is a scientific manual and the manual of a science. Yet among our thousands and tens of thousands of legislators we doubt if fifty readers of the book will be found. Most of our lawmakers appear to be quite incapable of conceiving lawmaking as a science; few of those who are capable of this conception would care to master so profound a treatise as this. But to legal scholars, and to such legislators as are of statesmanlike cast, this book will be a delight. It will show them not only how the incomparable progress of English law has taken place and is now going on, but also how that progress has been regulated and directed by living statesmen trained to understand what can be done by a legislature for the welfare of a nation, and how it is to be done best. So long as England can produce the material for such books, and men who can write them, so long will she keep her place as the country in which civilization has attained its highest development.

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*Naval Efficiency:* The War Readiness of the Fleet. By Archibald S. Hurd. London: Chapman & Hall. 1902.

It is impossible, within the limits at our disposal, to do full justice to this interesting work, in itself a veritable mine of useful information as to the British fleet, for it runs over the whole gamut of naval thought from an empire's necessities in men-of-war to the speed of battle-ships and the future of the submarine boat. It deals thoroughly, or reasonably so, with only one topic, and that is, oddly enough, not naval efficiency, but naval supremacy. It is written with intense earnestness, with which is mingled despair that others should be wilfully blind to the dangers so patent to the author. Its real purpose is to preach the true doctrine of Great Britain's national defence—a predominant navy—a doctrine which is theoretically admitted on all sides, although the army stands higher in public and social estimation, and gets, generally, the lion's share in the appropriations for military objects. There is little that is novel in Mr. Hurd's argument, but his presentation of the case is forceful, and so tactfully backed by figures as to command attention without wearying the reader. Mr. Hurd begins with the relations existing between the navy and the nation, and passes to the "Functions of a Navy," which he illustrates by a reference to two recent episodes.

"It was not by adding to the coastguard ships, or patrolling our shores, that the Government of the day replied to the German Emperor's hasty telegram to President Kruger at the time of the Jameson raid, but by the commissioning of a special-service squadron, which immediately took to the seas, ready, as Viscount Goschen explained, 'to go anywhere or do anything.' When the Fashoda crisis occurred, were the far-flung squadrons recalled from their patrols and spread out around our shores in case the French Government decided to attempt a landing at Dover or a raid in the Thames? At the first whisper of serious trouble in the autumn of 1898, our shores were defended by the fleet taking the offensive. The reserve squadron rendezvoused at Portland, it is true, but the right arm of the empire was bared at Gibraltar and Malta. At the Rock the Channel Squadron assembled in all its might. . . . Simultaneously the Mediterranean Squadron hurriedly returned to Malta."

It was, we think, Sir George Clarke who first pointed out the fact that England's army is her arm of offence, her navy her arm of defence; and this view, although not so clearly stated by Mr. Hurd, seems to underlie, unconsciously, much of his criticism of governmental policy. "Usually the army has absorbed the far larger share of the money set aside for securing our national safety." This practice, our author believes, has resulted in denying the funds necessary to keep the navy superior to the navies of any two Powers that may combine against England, as recommended by a board of three distinguished Admirals in 1889, for he finds (p. 257) that she has three less modern battle-ships built, building, and to be laid down this year, than Russia and Germany, and only three more than France and Russia. This leads him into the dream of an imperial navy supported jointly by the home Government and the colonies, although he is obliged to admit that it is but a dream, after all, like Mr. Chamberlain's Zollverein.

Either dread is contagious, or there is a conspiracy to create a bogy, for Mr. Hurd soberly analyzes "The German Menace," and finds it real. "By 1908 they [the Germans] will have in the North Sea . . . seventeen battle-ships, a similar number of cruisers, and forty torpedo craft, with another great squadron of equal strength in reserve. Germany will dominate those waters in which the British are practically unrepresented," etc. It's a sturdy spook which can scare both Anglo-Saxon nations at the same time. Can it be that exorcising is in order? If so, where is the priest to come from? One of the ablest living writers on military matters once said to the reviewer, "Why not establish an international police for the maintenance of order? You Americans, with your vast and growing population, could undertake the shore part, and we English the sea part, the expenses to be shared by the great Powers. If an ambitious politician wished to gain notoriety by inconsiderately entering upon a war he would have to fight, not one country, but the whole of Christendom." Until this or a similar counsel of perfection prevails, the dreary rivalry in ship construction seems bound to continue, with its heavy burdens which no nation is able, or willing, to cast aside. What a distressing commentary on the world's progress towards the millennium that so large a proportion of the revenue of every Christian country is devoted to ways and means of killing men.

So far as naval expert opinion is concerned, this rivalry is not without its peril, for it is easy to fall into the same error as Mr. Hurd and to confound naval supremacy with naval efficiency. Maritime wars will not be decided by statistics; the sea habit and good gunnery will not cease to be the dominating factors in success. "There are no ships in the world which are so much at sea as those of the British fleet," says our author, yet he fails to derive from this momentous fact the comfort it should yield. As to the ability to hit the target, the sole purpose for which ships are built, he quotes the record of seven vessels, armed each with twelve six-inch guns, which in 1900 made percentages from the *Mars's* 28.4 to the *Terrible's* 76.8, and he hopes that the general average for the whole British navy may be doubled. "Thus, without adding a ship to the effective list, the power to sink the enemy may be increased two-fold." This is the real naval efficiency, or at least a part of naval efficiency, a subject to which practically but one chapter out of ten is devoted, although occasional references to it are made elsewhere. While all the rest is readable, it is this tithe which deserves especial study for the light it throws upon how to convert money into a fleet ready to go anywhere with dispatch, and give and take the frightful blows which modern science has devised for the adjusting of international differences.

The starting-point is a well considered organization at the Admiralty. With this the author expresses himself as satisfied. We fear our own Navy Department might be improved in this respect, and, indeed, we understand that a general staff, or something nearly akin to it, is to be instituted by the Secretary of the Navy, a measure which will be admirable in exact proportion to its turning the tide of an excessive centralization which takes from commandants of navy-yards and commanding officers of vessels pretty much all of their initiative, self-reliance, and self-respect. These words of Mr. Hurd's are pregnant with suggestion which might properly be heeded at Washington: "At last it has been decided to decentralize some of the authority which has been vested with the Admiralty, and give the port admirals wider discretion." On page 190 he has a valuable table of the division of duties among the British Lords of the Admiralty as introductory to his chapter on the "War Readiness of the Fleet." This table shows the way in which the affairs of some 120,000 officers and men are managed, and some $160,000,000 are disbursed. How to make good the wastage of so large a body and how to supply an adequate reserve, are questions to which no very satisfactory answers have yet been found. With a personnel but one-fifth as numerous, we are experiencing a similar difficulty on this side of the water—smaller but more acute, because we have so few deep-water ships and sailors. It should be gratifying to Americans to learn that our example has been followed "by establishing a school of naval strategy" modelled on the lines laid down in 1884 for our own Naval War College by Rear-Admiral Luce, Commander Sampson, and Lieutenant-Commander Goodrich.

Scattered throughout Mr. Hurd's volume are many excellent reflections on the unwisdom of excessive fortification; the need of more cruisers, especially for commerce protection; the folly of building single "specimen ships" rather than groups; on speed in warfare; naval manœuvres; the torpedo destroyer, and other new types of craft, etc., etc. The demagogues who de-

creed that battle-ships should be built in our own navy-yards might with profit read what our author has to say in this connection: "Portsmouth dockyard, in particular, has fallen from its high estate; work drags on from month to month, and the delays seem to increase. . . . It is almost a year since the armored cruiser *Kent* was sent afloat, and little progress has been made with her. Her armor plates are in the yard, but they are not being fixed."

The publishers deserve thanks for an agreeable piece of bookmaking, that inclines the reader at the outset to a sympathy with the author which is not lessened by the points wherein the two may differ, and which is heightened by the simple, direct style and the almost passionate fervor with which the author's pleadings are clothed. It is as if the fears and longings of the whole British navy were poured forth in the book, so completely does the advocate sink himself in his cause.

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*Literature of American History:* A Bibliographical Guide. (American Library Association's Annotated Lists.) J. N. Larned, General Editor. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

We have already editorially passed judgment upon the general scheme of appraisal here first exemplified. The work itself seems to merit somewhat critical examination, if only for the sake of its successors. What we first remark is, that the great libraries of the country are unrepresented on the staff of contributors, though it is of prime importance to have criticisms from men acquainted with large collections of books. This will partly, at least, explain the fact that many first-rate works are omitted, many minor works are included. Compare Barry's 'History of Massachusetts,' for which no place can be found, with Elbridge Brooks's 'Stories of the Old Bay State.' Again, a popular and illustrated account of the voyage of the *Mayflower* appears among a series of works on the colonial period, with a note much fuller than that given to Lechford's 'Plain Dealing,' and the first half of this comment is taken verbatim from the preface of the work. And why insert, under the French Régime in Canada, Sheldon's 'Early History of Michigan,' while omitting Smith's 'History of Wisconsin,' which has documentary material? Under Westward Expansion, we find Ford's monograph of sixty pages, which is very restricted in its scope, but a work like Onis's 'Official Correspondence,' which covers the entire negotiations with Spain to 1819, is not noticed. In this section Henry Adams's exposition of the Louisiana purchase given in his 'History of the First Administration of Jefferson' might well have been substituted for some valueless monographs which have been included.

There is a failure to select best editions and to notice the distinctive characteristics of various editions. The Parkman Club publication on De Tonty is preferred to the original edition of his narration, of which there are several issues of the English text. "The Journal of Christopher Gist," in the Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, is referred to, but the more accessible text presented by Darlington under the title 'Journals, with Historical, Geographical, and Ethnological Notes,' published at Pittsburgh in 1893, is neglected. The old edition of Yoakum's 'Texas' is referred to, but without mention of the fact that the new edition published in 1898, under the editorship of D. G. Wooten, gives the original text of Yoakum with new notes, and the history brought down to 1897. The new edition of the 'Westover Papers,' edited by John Spencer Bassett, which has illustrative material not contained in the earlier work, is equally passed over. Under the Colonial Period of New England we find Strachey's account of Popham colony contained in the Massachusetts Historical Society Collections, but no notice of the complete work published by the Hakluyt Society, or of the material gathered by Alexander Brown in his 'Genesis of the United States.' The Hakluyt publication is, to be sure, noticed further on in another subdivision, where the note states that the "work is highly authoritative, though the treatment is occasionally pedantic."

In the division on Constitutional History —Teutonic and English origins—great space is devoted to the late Herbert B. Adams's monographs, but no hint is given of Chamberlain's dignified and illuminating criticism. There seems to be quite as much reason to insert here Froude's 'History of England' as Gardiner's. Maitland's 'Domesday Book' is rightly included, but the works of Ashley, Round, and Vinogradoff, whose claims are equally good, are omitted. Waiving the point that Gross's 'Bibliography of British Municipal History' does not concern American history, his 'Sources and Literature of English History' has a better title to recognition.

The note under Mather's 'Magnalia,' stating that "the best and most usable edition of this extraordinary book is that published in 1853; but it has no index," reads curiously, in view of the fact that an edition was published in 1855, supplied with an index by S. G. Drake. Furthermore, this edition contains errata from Mather's MS. not found in other editions. The index, with a memoir of Prince, is sometimes found in a separate pamphlet. It is astonishing to find the Clayton-Bulwer treaty represented only by Curtis's 'Life of Buchanan' and a chapter in Tucker's volume on the Monroe Doctrine. The former title is found under the division, Period of the Slavery Question, and the latter under Comprehensive History. A book like Travis's 'Clayton-Bulwer Treaty,' which, although an academic thesis, has substantial value, is lost to view. It is a strange classification which includes separate treatises on the Monroe Doctrine under the heading "Comprehensive History." There is little uniformity in the entry of titles. For instance, the "Coleccion de Documentos Inéditos" is entered in one division under "Coleccion" and in another under "Pacheco." Margry's great collection of documents has two different forms of entry, one of which is distinctly inexact. In the classification of titles there are some curious juxtapositions: Knox's 'Historical Journal of the Campaign of North America' is followed by Leroy-Beaulieu's 'De la Colonisation chez les Peuples Modernes.'

In regard to the annotations, most of the writers seem to have had a poor conception of what constitutes a bibliographical note. Winsor has been drawn upon, and where he is quoted textually the notes are most effective. The proofreader or the editor shows lack of acquaintance with historical authors. The index recognizes only one person as the author of the works of the elder and younger Charles Francis Adams.

We are bound to add that some of these defects were to be looked for in the beginning of such an enterprise; yet the great difficulty must ever be to control the services of men having the requisite bibliographical knowledge, the proper critical capacity, and the faculty for condensed and pertinent annotation.

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*The Sermon on the Mount:* Its Literary Structure and Didactic Purpose. By Benjamin W. Bacon, D.D. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Professor Bacon's book has had a history. In its first form it was a series of six lectures delivered to the Bible class of a New Haven church. In its second form it was a single lecture delivered before the students of Wellesley College. That lecture is now printed, with considerable additions and with foot-notes in great abundance. Professor Bacon calls the form of the lecture "semi-popular," but the designation is too flattering to the intelligence of popular apprehension. Some of the sillier sheep at Wellesley must have looked up and not been fed, for Professor Bacon's talent for exposition is not equal to his scholarship, which is clearly of the best. The lecture is, however, clarity itself compared with the three appendices, which are intended "to exhibit by analytical and synthetic criticism the nature and inter-connection of the greater discourses of Jesus." But these appendices are not intended for the general reader. They are Professor Bacon's justification, to other scholars and to studious clergymen, of the results set forth in the lecture and of the methods by which they are obtained. They admit one to the processes of the higher criticism in a very interesting manner. These processes are conjectural to a considerable degree, and they will not be equally convincing to all who examine them. The more conservative will find them rash, if not irreverent, and some of them will prefer the New Testament as it is written to Professor Bacon's disintegration and reconstruction, which leave hardly one text of the original version standing securely on another. Even the lecture in its more popular form is not reassuring for those who are hoping that the results of the higher criticism can be made accessible to simple folk. Its processes, as here revealed, are extremely tentative, and Professor Bacon so frankly discloses his disagreement with other scholars of great reputation that he sensibly diminishes the appearance of certainty attaching to his own results.

In the fore part of the lecture, careful attention is given to the objections that have been urged against the existence of any Sermon on the Mount as a long, articulated discourse. These objections are: that the discourse as given abounds in neo-legalism, which was an afterthought of early Christianity; that the teaching of Jesus was made up of short, detached sayings; that, according to Luke, about one-fourth of the Sermon on the Mount, as given by Matthew, was given on other occasions. These objections are all met with partial concessions, the first by the very nice dis-

tinction that the neo-legalism in Matthew is that of the compiler, not that of Jesus himself, but that the Sermon as given by Jesus was quasi-legalistic, having the spirit of Paul's anti-legalism, but the form to some extent of a new law. This is considering very curiously, but the opinion is carefully worked out. The second objection is met with the contention, not perfectly made good, that Jesus was more prophet than scribe, and that much of his teaching had the character of continuity. The third objection is less confuted than confessed. But granted that the Sermon in Matthew is largely a mistaken synthesis, it need not be so in its entirety, and Professor Bacon insists that it is not.

Before passing to his own synthesis, Professor Bacon halts for a few pages to rebuke those who speak lightly or scornfully of the higher criticism. He is unduly sensitive to the blame that has been visited upon his guild. When he gets fairly to work, first to eliminate the elements that are incongruous with the main body of the Sermon, and then to construct this in a new and better synthesis, he is always interesting, and generally quite convincing, if not entirely so. The new synthesis as given is a coherent and effective discourse on "the higher righteousness." Both in its general amount and in the brevity of particular parts, it keeps much closer to Luke's than to Matthew's form. The Lord's Prayer is one of the eliminated parts. The third appendix, which endeavors to free the incongruous parts from their false agglutination and set them in their appropriate relations, is hardly more ingenious than persuasive. But that a professor of New Testament criticism in Yale University should handle his material in this free-and-easy way, setting the evangelists right in so many particulars, is a remarkable sign of the times, and of the length the doctrine of the Bible's verbal inspiration has been left behind.

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*Life and Letters of Thomas Cromwell.* By Roger Bigelow Merriman. With a portrait and facsimile. 2 vols. New York: Henry Frowde. 1902.

The thesis on Thomas Cromwell which Dr. Merriman presented at Oxford for the Bachelor of Letters degree, has now been given permanent form in a book, and published by the Clarendon Press. The two handsome volumes before us are a production which any historical scholar might be glad to put forth as his "first heir." Both in point of learning and of expression this work is more than usually creditable, and should prove an incentive to sustained effort.

Dr. Merriman performs a double function. Besides writing an adequate account of Cromwell's life, he publishes a large body of his correspondence.

"To transcribe *in extenso* the letters he received would be almost the task of a lifetime, for they form the bulk of the enormous mass of material with which the editors of the Calendars of State Papers for the years 1533-40 have had to deal. But the number of extant letters he wrote is, comparatively speaking, extremely small; it has, therefore, been possible to make full copies of them in every case, and I trust that the many advantages—linguistic as well as historical—that can only be secured by complete and, as far as possible, accurate transcriptions of the originals, will be accepted as sufficient reason for editing this collection of documents, twenty-one of which have neither been printed nor calendared before."

We quote this passage because it refers to one of the most important features of the work. Not only "has it been justly said that Cromwell's correspondence is our chief source of information for the period immediately following the breach with Rome," his letters are, if we go by bulk, the chief factor in this study, and, thanks to Dr. Merriman's painstaking transcription, they now become accessible as they have never been before.

The early part of Cromwell's life is a subject notoriously obscure and difficult. Mr. James Gairdner has tried his hand at it, briefly, in the Dictionary of National Biography, and Mr. John Phillips has given portions of it minute attention in local researches regarding the manor of Wimbledon. Though Dr. Merriman supplies a clear examination of the evidence already known, he has nothing of material interest to add. On the whole, his attitude towards the meagre data which exist is a conservative one.

"It has been the fashion to decry Bandello and Foxe, and to disbelieve all their stories, because of the undoubted confusion of dates which vitiates their testimony. But if no reliance can be placed on them, or on Pole, Chapuys, and the chronicles of the period, must we not confess that our knowledge of the early years of our subject's life must reduce itself to an interrogation point?"

It must have been a remarkable chapter of experiences in Italy and the Low Countries which helped to shape Cromwell's character, and give him such practical rules of conduct in his dealings with men. The famous novel of Bandello regarding the courtesy of the Florentine Francesco Frescobaldi to a stranger who afterwards became the great and powerful Cromwell, may be overdrawn in particular details, but it does not exaggerate the vicissitudes of a phenomenal career. Dr. Merriman considers that Cromwell was at the battle of the Garigliano, in 1503, and not, as Galton would have it, at Marignano, twelve years later. There can hardly be a doubt concerning the incorrectness of the latter opinion.

More important than the question of Cromwell's adventures abroad is that of his personal character. Dr. Merriman rejects without hesitation the idea of Cavendish, Shakspere, and Froude, that he was loyal to Wolsey in any true sense of the word. The most that can be said in his favor is, that he was the chief means of securing the Cardinal's temporary pardon in February, 1530. The real crisis, however, came in the autumn of the same year, when Wolsey's enemies were drawn up in battle array. Then Cromwell did nothing for his master, and it seems most doubtful whether at any time he did more on behalf of the fallen statesman than was necessary to protect his own reputation from a charge of base ingratitude. He at once sought out Wolsey's great foe, Norfolk, as his patron, made his peace, and almost certainly entered the Parliament of 1529 through Norfolk's means.

Dr. Merriman has made no new discovery in demonstrating the selfishness of Cromwell's personal aims (where money and power were concerned) and the Machiavellianism of his political principles. None the less, the emphasis which he lays upon Cromwell's sinister practices is important because it is the fruit of thorough and impartial research. The preface claims exemption from religious bias, and, so far as we have observed, the claim is just. Directly and indirectly Cromwell helped forward the Protestant cause, but he is the last man, among somewhat unedifying associates, whose acts can be made a theme for edification.

Dr. Merriman has an admirable chapter on "The Work of Thomas Cromwell," in which, among other things, it is pointed out that some of his radical measures had unlooked-for results. For example, the transfer of monastic lands to families like the Russells, Seymours, the Cavendishes worked out badly for the crown. He thus enriched a new aristocracy that, in the days of the Stuarts, proved hostile to that absolutism which Cromwell sincerely upheld.

Looking upon Cromwell as a politician first and foremost, *mutatis mutandis* as an English Maurice of Saxony, as a minister who entered into religious matters merely because they were fixed conditions, Dr. Merriman rather inclines to set aside the deeper religious problems of the period. We would not call this a defect of his work, for the aims proposed exclude the consideration of such things; but when we close this admirable monograph we do so with the feeling that the best in the English Reformation is not represented by the sentiments and policy of Thomas Cromwell.

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*A. W. Kinglake:* A Biographical and Literary Study. By the Rev. W. Tuckwell. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Mr. Tuckwell is the first to publish a separate volume on Kinglake's life and works. In size the book is a slight one, but it tells us far more than could be learned from the article in the Dictionary of National Biography, and much of it has been drawn from fresh sources. Madame Novikoff, whose friendship with Kinglake was a very important feature of his later years, permitted Mr. Tuckwell to use such portions of her correspondence as were essential to his purpose; and though he has not pressed this privilege too far, it has proved particularly valuable. After making his other acknowledgments, it is in the following terms that he confesses his chief indebtedness:

"Kinglake's external life, his literary and political career, his speeches, and the more fugitive productions of his pen were recoverable from public sources; but his personal and private side, as it showed itself to the few close intimates who still survive, must have remained to myself and others meagre, superficial, disappointing, without Madame Novikoff's unreserved and sympathetic confidence."

Kinglake was born in that *annus mirabilis* of birth-years, 1809, and gained wide reputation at the age of thirty-five by the publication of 'Eothen.' The important part of his life covered about twenty years, between 1844 and 1864. Then, for above a quarter of a century, he remained a figure at the Athenæum Club and in select society, with the standing of a man who had achieved his place, but with a fame that was historic rather than contemporary. During the period when he was at work on his 'Invasion of the Crimea,' he entered Parliament for Bridgewater, and held his seat

until 1868, when he was unseated for the corrupt practices of his agents. There is not much more to be told about his career save for his early travels in the East and his friendships. On the literary side he is known as the author of two striking books. As a personal force, he is memorable for his independence of view and a downrightness of utterance which sprang from conviction more than from bad manners. He was, Lord Houghton has said, "as bold a man-at-arms in literature as ever confronted public opinion."

Though a civilian, Kinglake had all the instincts of a professional warrior. His most prominent trait was fondness for the army and respect for those who showed themselves worthy to be its leaders. An amusing instance of this feeling is furnished by his comment upon the Salvation Army in the early days of its organization. "His deferential regard," says Mr. Tuckwell, "for army rank was like that of Johnson for bishops. Great was his indignation when the 'grotesque Salvation Army,' as he called it, adopted military nomenclature. 'I would let those ragamuffins call themselves saints, angels, prophets, cherubim, Olympian gods and goddesses if they like; but their pretension in taking the rank of officers in the army is to me beyond measure repulsive.'" Thus his hero-worship for Lord Raglan was neither surprising nor accidental. As the late J. C. Ropes was prevented by physical disability from being a soldier, and became a lawyer only by constraint, so it was with Kinglake. In his case, shortsightedness was the impediment, but he had courage and the venturesome spirit to the full. He was close behind Lord Raglan at the crossing of the Alma, and in the Crimea saw almost as much of action as the modern war correspondent does. From the same source sprang his reverence for the "strong man," wherever the latter might be discovered. He outlived, it is true, a large part of his admiration for Lord Stratford, but it was the Lord Stratford of later years whom he ceased to applaud. Of similar origin, too, was his friendship with Carlyle and with Froude. "Froude himself he often likened to Carlyle; the thoughts of both ran in the same direction, but, of the two, Froude was by far the more intellectual man."

Mr. Tuckwell's own criticism of 'Eothen' and the 'Invasion of the Crimea' is very fresh and entertaining. Kinglake, of course, looked upon the Crimean book as his masterpiece, and spent all his leisure to the moment of his death upon successive revisions of it. Unfortunately for the work, the subject tends to decline in importance, and our present standards of literary taste are averse to such hard hitting. 'Eothen,' however, remains and is still a delight. Those were fine days for travel books at the middle of the century, when 'The Monasteries of the Levant,' 'The Bible in Spain,' 'Eothen,' and 'The Crescent and the Cross' were appearing. Here Kinglake holds his own; and he more than holds his own in respect to character, for, with all his pugnacity, new evidence shows that he had sincerity of disposition.

Mr. Tuckwell is a lively writer, and his memoir is none too long. It should be especially praised for its copious supply of good stories.

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*Oriental Series:* Japan and China. In Twelve Volumes. Vols. V.-VI. Japan: Its History, Arts, and Literature. By Capt. F. Brinkley. Boston: J. B. Millet Co.

These two volumes complete the first half of the proposed dozen on China and Japan. Besides a large colored folding map, there is an index to the six volumes. The historic point of view in Volume V. is that of one who surveys the Japan known to Europeans, its financial and economic conditions, foreign politics, steps of progress, creed and caste, religion and rites and superstitions. The ceremonial side of life and a history of commerce are presented in the concluding volume. The same mastery of his abundant materials, equal power of insight and interpretation, delight in his task, and clearness of expression characterize this portion of Capt. Brinkley's work, and the illustrations and mechanical outfit in quality and quantity are the same.

In discussing financial conditions, the author shows how finely the Japanese have been able to make much out of little—a trait, indeed, which seems to have distinguished the canny islanders throughout their whole history. Japan's great difficulty is still want of capital, and recourse to cheap money from outside seems to be the natural exit from difficulties that are pleasant rather than fearsome. While the currency was on a silver basis, Japan hesitated to contract gold debts, and European capitalists would not lend in terms of silver. Now her situation is much more favorable, but the conservatism of Western money-lenders is still great. Either they lack confidence in Japan's integrity, or they regard this as a still unknown land. Nevertheless, recent returns from sixty-eight joint-stock companies showed that these paid an average annual dividend of sixteen and one-half per cent. There are so many outlets to new industries, with so little home capital available, that temporary embarrassment is most natural.

The chapters on Japan's foreign politics are as strong as might be expected from one who discusses intricate questions of state with the native statesmen in their own tongue. They include a brief but luminous analysis of the Japanese campaigns on land and water in 1894-5. In showing "steps of progress," the viciousness of the quality of journalistic writing in Japan, which is marred by extreme and pedantic classicism, is shown. Even the imperial court is held in the grip of this Chinese old man of the sea, for when the Mikado (though Capt. Brinkley taboos this ancient and honorable word, which, besides having both significance and individuality, is entrenched in English literature) speaks, either by rescript or by edict, he never addresses the bulk of his subjects. His words are taken from sources so classical as to be intelligible only to the highly educated minority. Some of the newspapers ape this style also, sacrificing their audience to their erudition. Preferring classicism to circulation, their columns are a sealed book to the whole of the lower middle classes and to the entire female population. It seems strange that, while the Japanese should discard their picturesque costume, they still cling to a written language much more difficult to understand than their speech. Some of the journalists persist in making the national misfortune as great as possible. The greatest handicap upon Japan's progress, next to the bad mercantile morals, is her adherence to Chinese script and to the classic diction whose acquirement, even by a native, means the learning of a new language. Indeed, it seems almost like a paradox that the Japanese, so original in many respects, should so long have neglected the cultivation of their own tongue, and have given their intellectual strength to writing what is nothing but mispronounced Chinese. In "Creed and Caste" the author shows how powerfully, in times past, religion has made politics and shaped social organism; so much so that even at present the native scholar is instantly in peril who seeks to examine too critically the foundations on which the authority of the Emperor rests.

The chapter on superstitions is rich in delightful lore, showing how little removed from the intellectual habits of the North American Indian the average Japanese rustic is. Buddhism, with its doctrine of metempsychosis, is doubtless responsible for many phases of the belief, that makes the whole animal creation, from the elephant to the microbe, near relatives to the human family. Even yet in very respectable households a sword is placed near the corpse, to keep away cats, which, along with the fox and the badger, possess the power of transformation. The upper classes are comparatively free from such phantasies, but among the great multitude the traditional mysticism handed down from generation to generation in the secluded family circle of the Japanese nation has always been very considerable. Nevertheless, since Japan has never been troubled by the fiercer beasts of prey, lions and tigers, or by venomous reptiles, there are not many painful superstitions attaching to the lower orders of creation. Most of the notions are harmless and sunny. As tutelary spirits, or messengers of the gods, certain creatures are regarded with awe or amusement. Probably the colossal catfish whose writhings cause earthquakes is the largest of these imaginary beasts. The menagerie of mythical zoölogy is sufficiently stocked to enable blunderers and stupid folk generally to explain to scrutinizing wives or parents marks of personal damage. When escapades have happened through waywardness, illicit night adventures, or an overplus of alcoholic spirit, such imaginary creatures, that infest earth, air, and water, serve well as scapegoats.

What is here written on festivals, observances, and pastimes furnishes a key to much that would otherwise be inexplicable to the alien when he is studying the joyous side (a very large side) of Japanese life. Volume VI. might serve as a hand-book to spectators of the great processions which at certain seasons make the streets in Tokio so brilliant. Some of these *matsuri*, which last three days, show *dashi*, or profusely decorated cars with lofty platforms and images far up in the air, that have required months of preparation. These with the merrymakers rehearse, in brilliant color, famous episodes. Here one beholds how men get turned into gods, and how picturesque mediæval burglars masquerade as benefactors. Here sways aloft in air the bedizened traitor and villanous malefactor, to whom divine hon-

ors are paid in order to quiet his troubled spirit, or to win from him the approving smiles that bring prosperity. The great white elephant, with a man inside each leg, moves majestically on. The musicians who desolate the air with Korean and prehistoric music, the dancers, jesters, and posturers, delight thousands of spectators, and it is very evident that as long as these thieves, assassins, and ruffians are popularly glorified, Japan will reap fresh crops of home-grown assassins.

It is true that, as Capt. Brinkley explains, the real significance of these demonstrations is not mistaken in Japan, and that the worshippers at the tombs of murderers, and the bringers of offerings at the shrines of robbers, "abhor the sin without hating the sinner," and that the Government could stop these things in a moment if it would. Nevertheless, we believe that so long as the graves of the Forty-seven Ronins enjoy a perpetual decoration day, so long will the intending assassin find consecrated ground on which to nourish his murderous spirit and justify his purpose when, for the posthumous glory sure to be awarded him, he drives the knife home, considering himself the appointed "instrument of Heaven's vengeance." The late Fukuzawa by his pen drove hara-kari out of custom—yes, almost out of literature—and we believe that, in the future enlightened Japan, the burial-ground of the Forty-Seven Ronins will be closed as a public nuisance. In the history of commerce in Japan, our author presents, with liberal scholarship and critical acumen, almost every phase of this interesting subject, showing incidentally how the Japanese in their own way anticipated by their documentary expedients most of the methods of commerce in the West. As for the future, it is clear that the development in Japan's trade will be in the direction of manufactures. She may send abroad silk and tea, marine products, and some minor staples, but, unless Formosa develops unsuspected riches, her producing capacity has already shown its limits. Her extent of arable land is disproportionately small, there being less than twelve millions acres under crops, with little prospect of extension or of enlarged yield by new processes, while all the time population increases at the rate of half a million annually, and finer articles of food—for example, rice instead of barley and millet—are craved not as luxuries but as necessities. Japan must soon be obliged to import large supplies of rice, timber, of cotton and even of wool, for her pastures, rich in bamboo scrub but not in grass, are not for sheep. Nevertheless, with her cheap labor and her people, intelligent, docile, dexterous, and gifted with artistic taste, Japan has a great future in manufactures. The efficiency of the army and navy shows that it is not capacity but practice which the Japanese lack. What they have been able to do with soldiers on sea and land, they are likely to do in commerce and manufactures when they are less jealous of aliens and more coöperative in mind.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Burt, S. W. My Memoirs of the Military History of the State of New York. Albany: Published by the State.
Crimmins, J. D. St. Patrick's Day: Its Celebration in New York and Other American Places, 1737-1845. Published by the Author.
Desmond, H. W. The Heart of Woman. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Douglass, J. M. The Riding Master, and Other Stories. F. Tennyson Neely. $1.
Fyffe, H. C. Submarine Warfare. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.00.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Freeman, and Other Poems. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Gudeman, Alfred. P. Cornelii Taciti de Vita et Moribus Cn. Jul. Agricolae Liber. Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung. 1 mark 40 pfg.
Henley, W. E. Views and Reviews: Essays in Appreciation..—Art. Scribners. $1.00.
James, Henry. The Wings of a Dove. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.50.
Lindsay, C. M. Cavalier Poets. Abbey Press. 75 cents.
Miller, Esther. A Prophet of the Real. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Norris, Zoe A. The Quest of Polly Locke. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co. $1.
Payne, G. H. A Great Part. Continental Pub. Co.
Rizal, José. Friars and Filipinos. Lewis, Scribner & Co.
Seen by the Spectator. (Reprinted from the Outlook.) The Outlook Co. $1.
Sibley, E. D. Stillman Gott. Boston: John S. Brooks & Co.
Smith, F. H. The Fortunes of Oliver Horn. Scribners. $1.50.
Taft, W. H. The Philippines. The Outlook Co. $1.00.
Waterloo, Stanley. The Story of a Strange Career. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
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"Now, are these ills to be laid to the school or to conditions outside? And if due to the school, does the fault lie mainly in excessive study? Doctors often seem to blame study. They say: 'Take Tom or Mary out of school, away from books, and give the child a good rest.' Yet such advice need not mean that hours of study have been excessive. The limit of work may have been too easily reached, and many causes besides study may impair vitality and sap endurance. It is easier to say 'Take the child out of school,' than to suggest investigating the school system of ventilation; and it is probably easier to get the average American parent to shorten a girl's school hours than to keep her from parties. Human nature, even in doctors, inclines to the line of least resistance. But there is need of looking deeper.

"Parent and teacher ought constantly to bear in mind the great truth that the child's life is a unit. You cannot break it up into bits, and hand over one part to the school and one to the home, bidding each keep within its own province. It is the same child which goes to school or playground, and then comes home again. A lack or disturbance anywhere affects the whole life.

"The school should provide proper space, ventilation, heating, lighting, sanitary precautions, and proper seating arrangements. These subjects have been thoroughly investigated, and there is to-day a fair agreement of opinion as to what 'proper' involves. The standards on such matters can be found in any good book on school hygiene, such, for example, as that by Shaw, published by Macmillan in the 'Teachers' Professional Library.' Professor Shaw gives certain minimum requirements as follows:

"'Floor space, per child, 15 square feet; air space, 200 cubic feet. Light should be admitted from the left; if necessary, from the rear; but never from the right. The glass surface admitting light should be from one-fourth to one-sixth of the floor space. The system of ventilation should be such as to admit 30 cubic feet per pupil of fresh air per minute. Children should never be kept in a room where the temperature is below 60 degrees or above 70 degrees. Each child should have a seat to itself, adjusted to its height.'

"These facts have been so well established and so fully discussed that obedience to their requirements is usually taken as a matter of course. Yet it is by no means a matter of course, even in schools of high standing. The parent owes it both to the school and to his child to visit the school and see things for himself. If things are in good shape, teachers will be grateful for appreciation. If all is not right, the parent can perhaps help to make improvements.

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER* 11, 1902.

## The Week.

On September 3 the President of this nation was exposed to mortal peril in the kind of accident which every day cuts off from the living one or more American citizens. The profound sense of thankfulness and relief universally felt at his escape is in striking contrast with the public apathy amid which obscurer victims of automobile and electric car meet mutilation and death. We make no complaint of this state of things: the President's life is justly held more precious than that of the average citizen. But we do quarrel with the indifference which turns the common roads over to every kind of swift and ponderous vehicle, and with the cynicism which gives to those who are bound to exercise the greatest care a virtual license for recklessness. It is well to inquire how it is possible for an American citizen, simply because he is also a motorman, consciously to put the President's life at hazard, for the sake of saving a few seconds of time. No doubt it will turn out to be the case that Motorman Madden acted with democratic impartiality. He is said to have told the expostulating and bleeding President that he (Madden) "had the right of way." The phrase is instructive. There are many reasons to believe that "Devil take the hindmost" is in some danger of being accepted as the rule of the road among us. It is only when a President's life is in danger that we so much as question the new theory of "right of way." Our high roads have greatly changed since De Quincey saw in the mail-coach an awful symbol of sudden peril by the way. Swift and dangerous means of locomotion have outgrown the older laws, the habits of the courts, and have dazed public opinion. If the President's peril brings this condition home to us, and suggests a remedy, it will be a striking instance of good as the "latter end of ill."

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Whether a President of the United States should "swing around the circle," as Mr. Roosevelt has been doing in New England and the South, is a question that has suggested itself to many people and newspapers. The Boston *Herald*, for instance, is not at all sure that such extended and hasty tours as the President is now making are consistent with the dignity of the great office he holds, and believes that "the President was never intended to be anything like a stump orator." Those who see in the accident at Pittsfield a warning of what may happen to a President who leads too strenuous a life, would also prefer to have the President journey less, and only under conditions which insure his safety as far as possible. We do not, however, agree with what seems to be the Boston *Herald's* contention, that the President should hold communication with the people only by his messages to Congress. In the nature of things, occasions must arise when, by means of a public address in some great centre, the President will be able to arouse the public as in no other way. The question of our relations with Cuba is one in point. Congress having deliberately declined to come to the rescue of that ill-treated island, and having wantonly disgraced the American name at the behest of the beet-sugar interests, the President is eminently justified in going to and among the people in order that justice may be done.

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As to the manner of doing this, we are not of the opinion that it calls for journeys to small hamlets throughout a particular section of the country. If the President favors New England, there will be calls for him from the Pacific slope, the Middle West, or the South, which the party managers will insist upon his acceding to. This is manifestly impossible. So vast is the country that the President cannot afford to take the time to travel to any great extent even once in two years. More important than this is the fact that there is probably no man living who can make more than half-a-dozen addresses without the necessity of repeating himself again and again, just as the President has done in his speeches on the Trusts. There is a distinct limit, too, to the number of persons and things that can be praised. Mr. Roosevelt has, for instance, expressed his unbounded admiration for Secretaries Hay, Moody, and Root, ex-Secretary Long, Gov. Crane, Gen. Wood, Gov. Taft, Attorney-General Knox, J. G. Blaine, the army, the navy, the Department of Agriculture, the veterans of 1861-1865 and of 1898, the locomotive engineers and firemen, the workingman, the helpful capitalist, and the non-hurtful Trust—and we forget how many more. Gradually, we fear, Mr. Roosevelt will have exhausted the all too short list of good men and women, and be in still greater danger of rendering himself cheap in the public eye. And the President of the United States cannot afford to do that, however much he may sincerely desire to be democratic and go about among the people.

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Democratic stupidity has seldom been more flagrantly illustrated than in the recent Vermont election. For fifty years that party has advocated the principles of high license and local option. This year the regular Republican candidate was opposed by a bolter who represented those principles, and there seemed to be a chance of his election if the Democrats would give him their support. By themselves the Democrats were utterly helpless, while if they would vote for the candidate who represented Democratic doctrine on this question, they might secure the triumph of their cause. But the little group of managers who run the organization would not consider this idea, and insisted upon putting up a candidate of their own. Considerably more than half of the Democratic voters refused to abide by the decree of the convention, and supported Mr. Clement, the Republican bolter; but the Bourbon managers held over 7,000, and thereby prevented Mr. Clement's securing a majority. The full vote of the State was 28,117 for Mr. Clement, and 7,280 for the Democratic nominee—or a total of 35,397 if all had been cast for the bolter; whereas the regular Republican candidate had only 31,788, and the Prohibition candidate 2,525, making 34,313 together—a clear majority of over 1,000 for Mr. Clement if all of the Democrats had supported him. As it is, the Legislature will elect, and there will be a majority of members for the regular Republican candidate.

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In nominating Dr. George C. Pardee for Governor the Republicans of California appear to have risen far above the level usually attained in the political affairs of that State. Dr. Pardee is distinctly a reform candidate, his nomination having been brought about as one of the results of exposures involving the Gage Administration in connection with the illegal manufacture of furniture, etc., at the San Quentin Prison. He is a physician of excellent education, which he acquired with high honors, both in this country and in Germany. He first attracted public attention as a member of the Board of Health in Oakland, and later as a Councilman. Here he became known as the persistent foe of neglect or corruption in any of its forms. He found the Oakland Council controlled by a ring of freebooters, and without delay he began a contest against them. There were times when he stood opposed by all but one of the other members of the Board, but he did not give up the fight. Publicity was his weapon, and exposure after exposure brought about by him finally caused the ring to abandon some of the worst of their plans. He then led a reform movement against the machine in control of the city, and was elected Mayor by a large majority, with the result of correcting many abuses, reducing taxation, and beginning several permanent municipal reforms.

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This excellent nomination has been

matched by the Democrats. They have put up Franklin K. Lane, who has gained an excellent reputation in the city government of San Francisco, as Dr. Pardee has done in the small municipality across the bay. Mr. Lane is still a young man. After studying law he engaged in newspaper work for some years, first in New York city and then in the State of Washington, so that it was not until 1895 that he began practice in San Francisco. He immediately joined a group of young men who were bent upon overthrowing the corrupt Democratic machine, and he gained the public confidence so completely that he has been elected City Attorney three times, running at the head of his ticket. As an official he has shown independence and courage, enforcing the laws against strikers who had committed crimes, although he was warned that he would thereby lose the "labor vote." It is refreshing to see a man of this type winning merited recognition.

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Quay and Penrose threatening the railroad presidents with the power of the Republican party in Pennsylvania if the coal strike continues, are a pair of ridiculous mice at the foot of a mountain in labor. The calmness of the aforesaid presidents in the face of such danger is easily accounted for. Quay and Penrose belong to them and to the capitalists affiliated with them. They can put both of them out of office as easily as they put them in—more easily, in fact, than they put Quay in the last time. Quay would never think of passing a law at Harrisburg without their consent. If anybody should attempt to pass such a law, Quay and Penrose would compass its defeat in some way. The Republican party in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, and in the State at large, is the subservient tool and instrument of a corrupt ring, of which Quay and Penrose are the figureheads, but not the motive power. The real parties in interest are the corporations that furnish the money by which the springs of government are polluted, and the State made a hissing and a by-word to mankind. No wonder the railroad presidents snap their fingers when their two Senators talk about the Republican party and the power of the State in connection with the coal strike. Senator Platt, when interviewed about the strike, has not hinted at the use of political power as a means of ending it, but has merely predicted the end within two weeks. He is therefore less of a humbug in this instance than his fellow-Senators from the adjoining State.

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The question of "sending money West to move the crops" is discussed every autumn, and has been re-discussed this season, but with such a confusion of facts and causes that the bewilderment of the average reader is inevitable. The simple facts of the matter are, that, in the few weeks of harvest-time, employment of labor in the grain districts increases by several hundred thousand hands. These laborers are paid in cash—usually every week. To make the payments, the farmers draw the currency from their banks, and the banks must be prepared to meet such customers' demands. A dozen years ago, when the banks of the harvest States were relatively poor, they would borrow the requisite money from Eastern institutions. Now they have plenty of money of their own; but, since its use in the country districts, at other periods than harvest, is limited, the country banks are accustomed to lend their own money, during the remainder of the year, in the larger city markets. It will be observed, however, that in either case large sums of actual money, now in the bank vaults of the East, would be needed by the West, and could be obtained by it. With an abundant harvest —for, of course, the larger the crop, the larger the weekly labor bill—thirty to forty million dollars is drawn from New York alone in the course of a dozen weeks. This is exactly what is occurring now. Taken altogether, the cereal crops are perhaps as large as have ever been gathered in this country. Moreover, the sum of money now in the New York market, but owned by Western banks, is probably quite as great as in any previous year. Last week's shipment of $2,500,000 currency from New York to the West and South was the opening of a perfectly normal movement.

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Such a movement, thus occasioned, is a plain enough sign of real prosperity. The only reason why any one talks of it with misgiving is that the Eastern banks are not sure they can comfortably spare the money. This, too, is easy to understand. Demand for credits, in connection with the financial enterprises of the time, has been so great that Eastern bank resources are fairly strained. Saturday's statement showed that, in thirty-two out of the fifty-nine banks of the New York Clearing-house, the ratio of cash reserves to deposit liabilities is below the 25 per cent. minimum of the national banking law. In Boston the combined excess of reserves over such a minimum, in the thirty-one Clearing-house institutions, was last week only $185,000. These huge deposit liabilities were built up, very largely, on the basis of cash sent East, for the reasons already noticed, by interior institutions. Now that the West has need of the money, it must be sent back; but the Eastern banks must do something to make good the loss. There are three expedients possible—to reduce liabilities by shifting loans to other local institutions, increase reserves by importing gold from Europe, or simply call in and cancel the loans which are outstanding. Although the first expedient is now being used, and although relief through the second is hoped for, the fear that the absolute loan contraction may be resorted to frightens the speculative markets. The outcome, as usual, will be interesting. We make no mention of the Treasury as a factor of relief, because the Government is just now taking more money from the banks than it pays to them, and because we are skeptical over the possibilities of the new bank-circulation plan.

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Mr. Yerkes and Mr. J. P. Morgan are not precisely the advocates of any kind of tariff reduction to whom Congress will lend a willing ear, but the reminder from these gentlemen that the tariff on works of art keeps abroad treasures which should be at home in this country is timely and necessary. The only excuse for this tax is that the wealthy can stand it. That it has any "protective" value to American art, or that American art desires any such protection were it possible, has been many times denied by our art societies. The fact that American collectors keep their pictures abroad shows that, if they *can* stand the duty, they will not. One may praise the public spirit of the late Mr. H. G. Marquand, who paid tens of thousands of dollars on the pictures which he intended for the Metropolitan Museum, but one cannot blame the collector who declines to pay an additional great sum on what is in any case an unproductive purchase. That the entrance of noble works into a country which is just forming an art of its own is desirable, needs no argument. It should be made easy to bring them in, and the present schedule, which was slipped into the Dingley Bill almost inadvertently, after the Wilson Bill had shown the practicability of the free list for works of art, is a disgrace to those who would tax civilization itself.

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The Children's Court is, we are glad to say, at last at work, after months of aggravating delay. New York can now see for itself the value of such an institution, and judge as to the correctness of the views of those who, like Mr. Jerome, have believed that the old order of things should be adhered to. Of course, the success of the court will depend to a large degree upon the wisdom of the judge—to a far greater degree, indeed, than in most courts. The mind of the child is a study in itself. The limit of corrigibility is so far beyond that of the age of manhood or womanhood that seldom can a youthful offender be dismissed with a jail sentence as hopelessly beyond reform. The extent of the influence exerted upon a child by some mature mind, and the responsibility of the child abandoned by its natural guardians, are samples of some of the difficult questions which must be settled by the court in almost every case. The

boy who last week assured Justice Olmsted that he had no mother, because "if yer mother don't care for yer, ye ain't got a mother," is but a type—but a most pathetic and significant type. It would seem as if nothing but good could come out of this separation of immature wrong-doers from older and habitual criminal offenders, and from the close co-operation of the judge and our children's societies and institutions which is already assured.

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One of the most significant happenings at the important dinner given to Governor Taft by the Manila Chamber of Commerce on Saturday week was the notice served upon him by the one hundred business men present that some other kind of labor besides that of the Filipinos is necessary for the development of the islands. The kind of workers these American merchants want is Chinese, since the climate discourages if it does not prevent Americans from attempting any kind of manual labor. Plainly, they do not share the opinion of Congress, as expressed at its last session, that the Chinese exclusion laws shall apply to our over-sea territory, but agree with Professor Jenks of Cornell in insisting that the whole future of the archipelago lies in the hands of coolie laborers. This is a cold-water douche, indeed, for our confident Expansionists, and particularly for the Pacific Coast brand. If it comes to a choice between the Philippines and the admission of Chinese into the United States by way of Manila, it is easy to prophesy how the Western Congressmen and Senators will vote. Of course, it will be urged that Chinese can be used in the Philippines, and yet be prevented from entering the United States. They would then constitute still another variety in our political mélange, to be used in enriching ourselves, while they are refused either citizenship or free circulation within our own domains. As it is, no one can believe that the Manila Chamber of Commerce has a high opinion of the wisdom of Congress, which not only made a complete failure in dealing with the Philippine money question, but also a fatal mistake about the labor needs of the archipelago. Yet have we not been assured a thousand times that the future of the islanders was absolutely secure in our hands, and certain to be determined by the all-seeing wisdom of our law-givers in Washington, ten thousand miles from the country for which they legislate?

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The absence of intemperate comment on the sinking of a Haytian revolutionary gunboat by a German cruiser is significant. Not so long ago everybody would have been for humbling the pride of Germany and for immediate dispatch of a flying squadron to Hayti. Upon the basis of the present incomplete news, the rights of the matter appear to be as follows: The Firminist gunboat *Crête-à-Pierrot*, having been warned by our Commander McCrea, as representative of most of the civilized Powers, that no interference with commerce would be permitted, seized from the German merchantman *Markomannia* a cargo of arms. We believe that the Haytian "Admiral," since he had himself admitted the insufficiency of his blockade, and since the belligerent status of his faction had never been recognized by any great Power, undertook to confiscate contraband of war at his proper peril of being treated as a pirate. His case was not unlike that of the Peruvian revolutionary ironclad *Huascar*, which stopped British colliers on the high seas, and was worsted by a British cruiser in 1877. This action has always been regarded as justifiable, and except that arms are more definitely contraband than coal, it parallels at every point the present case. Still, the peremptoriness of Germany's action was no doubt proportioned to the feebleness of the Haytian navy, revolutionary or recognized, and to that scorn of the blacks which Napoleon manifested so brutally towards the same people.

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Although the war with the Boers has ended, the discussion of its lessons goes on among military men without cessation. One of the most interesting contributions to the subject is from the pen of Lieut.-Col. F. N. Maude, long recognized as one of the ablest British writers on the art of war. He finds that there was a "stupendous advance" in English military preparedness between 1879 and 1900, and resents the imputation that this could have been accomplished by an army whose officers were conspicuously deficient in "professional keenness." Lieut.-Col. Maude's most original contention, which he bears out well with statistics of several wars, is that the modern breechloading rifle does not kill more readily than the old short-range muzzleloading weapon. Whereas charges made by Mamelukes, Turks, Ghazis, and Sikhs were easily stopped with the old weapon, such rushes, he finds, have frequently been successful in modern times, when the European troops had five times the distance and five times the rate of fire to meet their enemies with. His final conclusion is quite favorable to the attacking side, whereas most writers have seen in the Boer successes a substantial gain for the defensive. Lieut.-Col. Maude also believes that "the leaders' influence on the issue of a battle is greater, not less, than it ever was before." To those who have been hoping to see wars ended by the increased destructiveness of weapons, Lieut.-Col. Maude's conclusions about the modern rifle will bring distinct disappointment.

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Criticisms of Russian finance by English and German publicists are commonly unfavorable, and are apt to end with the prediction of a great economic catastrophe. Such is the climax of a long review of the plans and doings of M. Witte in the columns of the Prussian *Jahrbuch*, which finds its way into the American press. But if the conditions now prevailing in Russia are as bad as those pictured by the *Jahrbuch*, a great economic catastrophe could not make them worse. When large sections of the country are reduced to starvation, a financial panic can hardly be expected, and if it comes, will not find much to destroy. In ten provinces, according to this authority, the death-rate is above 40 per 1,000, in consequence of insufficient food for the peasantry, while it is 34.8 per 1,000 for the whole country. This is very discouraging, certainly, yet it does not follow, as the *Jahrbuch's* article implies, that the Government ought to prohibit the exportation of cereals. It might buy the cereals, if it were able to do so, and distribute corn to the poor; but merely to prohibit the exportation would be to compel the owners to sell to their neighbors at lower prices than foreigners offer; that is, to put the burden of poor relief on the holders of grain exclusively or disproportionately. It is true that this method of poor relief is not unknown in Russia, but it is not to be commended as a mode of bettering the finances of a country. Nor is it sound doctrine to say that Russia ought not to have introduced the gold standard. The gold standard existed *de facto* in all commercial transactions of any magnitude long before it was adopted *de jure*, and the act of the Government merely put common practice into the form of law. The poor man was not harmed by the change.

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No one more than the late Ernest Renan would enjoy the opposition to the project for setting up his statue at Tréguier. The great skeptic had studied in all its phases the phenomenon of the prophet without honor in his own country, and would have been delighted to see its signal illustration in his own case. The protest of the clergy of Tréguier is wholly logical. The village is profoundly Catholic, breathing a spirit of religion which Renan definitively renounced. The statue of the finished dilettante and smiling unbeliever which Renan became, would be strangely incongruous among the simple serious folk from whom he sprang. This lack of *rapport* between one of the greatest French scholars of our time and his natal village suggests the general query, "Are great men as a rule well fitted with birthplaces?" One must believe that they are; otherwise they would not have achieved greatness. The complementary form of the question, "Are birthplaces happily fitted with great men?" admits less readily of an answer.

*MORE LIGHT ON THE COAL STRIKE.*

The report of Col. Carroll D. Wright on the labor troubles in the anthracite coal mines is the first official statement that has been made of the causes of the cessation of industry in that region. Simultaneously with its publication we have a long statement of the operators' point of view from Mr. Baer, President of the Reading Railroad, in reply to a suggestion from Senators Quay and Penrose that it is time for the Republican party, as the custodian of the State's interests, to do something to bring about a cessation of the strike. The Senators clearly imply that, unless some steps are taken by the operators to end the strike, the political power will seek to accomplish that result. Mr. Baer, in reply, makes a statement which, if made at any time since the beginning of the strike, would have been helpful in enlightening public opinion and in bringing the force of it to bear on all the parties concerned. Mr. Baer does not, however, give any sign of being alarmed by the prospect of political interference which the words of Quay and Penrose presage, although he recognizes their right and duty to do whatever can be "legitimately" done to end the strike.

Mr. Baer, speaking for the coal operators, says that the miners make demands which render it impossible to mine coal profitably; that the State has enacted laws prohibiting the employment of men in the mines unless they have worked two years in anthracite mines; and, therefore, the operators cannot, for the time being, mine coal. "How then," he continues, "can there be any violation of public duty? If we yield to the extravagant demands of the miners, we shall lose money. If we attempt to increase the price of coal, we shall destroy the industries depending upon anthracite fuel. If we increase the price on the domestic sizes, we shall be called robber barons, oppressors of the poor, monopolists, and enemies of mankind." For these reasons he and his colleagues have decided to stand firmly on four propositions: (1) that the wages paid for anthracite mining are sufficient; (2) that wages cannot be increased without increasing the price of anthracite to such an extent as to drive the public to the use of bituminous coal, a cheaper and more abundant fuel; (3) that while the operators do not object to labor organizations, they will not allow such organizations to dictate who shall be employed or not employed in the mines; (4) that, considering the varying physical conditions of the mines, it is impracticable to adopt a uniform scale of wages for the whole region, but that each complaint and grievance should be investigated and treated separately and justly.

These propositions have the outward semblance of fairness, and would have carried more weight if they had been given to the public in an authoritative way at the beginning. They are open to criticism, more or less, and there would have been replies and rejoinders, rebutters and sur-rebutters, so that, long before the present time, the public would have been able to arrive at pretty sound conclusions as to the merits of the case. The question whether the present wages are fair and just cannot be determined by persons not engaged in the business. It cannot be determined dogmatically even by those who are so engaged, for when we come to examine Mr. Baer's reasons for his opinion, we are asked to take his affirmation that an increase of wages would drive the public to the use of bituminous coal, and so restrict the market for anthracite, and thus deprive the miners of anthracite of regular employment. It may be that the public ought to pay more for anthracite than it has been paying of late, or it may be that the rate of wages should be readjusted.

The latter conclusion is evidently favored by Commissioner Wright, who suggests that the operators should concede at once a nine-hour day to the men who are paid by the day, as an experiment for six months, in order to test its influence on production and its consequences generally. Mr. Wright's suggestions are six in number. The substance of them is that the mining of anthracite is subject to conditions so different from those of bituminous coal that it is impossible to govern the one by rules or terms applicable to the other; hence, that the attempt to control both by a single labor union is injudicious. There should be two separate unions, but they may properly be affiliated together, or may be affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. He holds that there should be a joint committee of conciliation of employers and employees, with powers to bind both parties in certain cases; that mining should be paid for by the ton wherever practicable, and that a fixed average should be established at each mine for deduction for impurities; and that there should be no interference with non-union men.

*Collier's Weekly* for September 6 has a communication from Mr. John Mitchell, President of the United Mine Workers of America, submitting the case of the miners in the present strike in the anthracite region. He says, first, that the proposition which he laid before the four railroad presidents on the 8th of May last, embodying the demands of the miners, was never given to the public by them, or by himself, until now. Since the whole controversy rests upon that proposition, we reprint it verbatim:

"Inasmuch as the anthracite mine operators have proposed to continue the present wage scale for one year, and inasmuch as the anthracite mine workers have unanimously resolved to ask that an increase of 20 per cent. should be paid on present prices to all men performing contract work, that eight hours should constitute a day's labor for all persons employed by the hour, day, or week, without any reduction in their present wage rate, and that coal should be weighed and paid for by weight wherever practicable; and inasmuch as in our recent conferences the anthracite mine workers and mine operators have failed to reach an agreement upon any of the questions at issue, we propose that the Industrial Branch of the National Civic Federation select a committee of five persons to arbitrate and decide all or any of the questions in dispute—the award of such board of arbitration to be binding upon both parties and effective for a period of one year."

In case this offer should be unacceptable, Mr. Mitchell proposed that a committee, consisting of Archbishop Ireland, Bishop Potter, and one other person to be selected by them, should be authorized to make an investigation into the wages and conditions of employment existing in the anthracite field, in order to decide whether the mine workers were able to make a decent living for their families, and to bring up their children properly, upon the compensation now paid to them; both sides to conform to any recommendations that such committee might make. To these alternative propositions, he says, no answer was received, except an informal intimation that there was nothing to arbitrate.

Mr. Mitchell denies point-blank that any "formal demand" has been made by the miners for a recognition of the union, leaving it to be inferred that an informal demand had been made. However that may be, Mr. Mitchell goes on to say in italic letters that "the real purpose of the coal operators, in refusing to coöperate with us with a view to ending this strike, is to destroy organization among their workmen"—an averment which Mr. Baer denies as emphatically as Mr. Mitchell denies the insinuation that the miners demand the exclusion of non-union men.

Mr. Mitchell's demand for higher pay for mining is divided into two parts—first, that men who are paid by the ton shall have an increase of 20 per cent., and that, for all persons who are paid by the day, eight hours (instead of ten) shall constitute a day's work, without any reduction in the present wage rate. The latter class would get no more money than they get now, but they would have more leisure. This needs explanation. It may be the aim of the miners' organization here to make room for a greater number of laborers, but it is certain that the economic condition of the present occupants of the places would not be improved, while the operator would get 20 per cent. less work for a given outlay. Mr. Mitchell says that anthracite miners ought to have as good pay as bituminous miners. His contention is not logical, unless he has some means to force the public to pay the difference when they go into the market to buy fuel.

And so stands the present situation, with General Jack Frost looming up on the horizon, and foreign coal pouring in,

*TOM JOHNSON TO THE FRONT.*

The Ohio Democratic State Convention at Sandusky on September 3 must challenge the attention of politicians throughout the country. It revealed Tom L. Johnson as the absolute dictator of the Democratic organization this year, and apparently assured his nomination for Governor by the party next year. Moreover, it has given him a position of such importance that his views regarding the proper policy for the Democratic party to pursue with reference to the campaign of 1904 will carry great weight.

Mr. Johnson's victory marked the application to the whole State of the power which he has wielded over the Democrats of Cleveland during the past eighteen months. A year ago last April he ran for Mayor of the city, and was elected by a great majority. In the following November he secured the election to the Legislature from Cleveland of several members who accepted all that he stood for. During the past few months he has been steadily extending his influence throughout the State, until at last he was strong enough to invade Hamilton County (Cincinnati), so long controlled by John R. McLean, and to beat that boss in his home. After that, all was plain sailing. Mr. Johnson controlled the whole organization of the Convention, became its presiding officer, and saw the platform which he had written accepted without the change of a word.

The man who has thus come to the front in Ohio Democracy is one of the most interesting and picturesque figures developed in our politics for a number of years. A poor boy, he made himself very rich by availing himself of all the advantages allowed by our laws, and then denounced the very laws by which he had so greatly profited. Thus, he enjoyed the undue protection granted the manufacturers of steel, and declared his conviction that free trade is the best policy for this nation. He dealt in street railroads charging five-cent fares, making vast sums by some of these operations, as in Brooklyn a few years ago, and then came out as a champion of three-cent fares. He improved every opportunity offered to such a man by our present system of taxation, and at the same time was the earnest supporter of Henry George and a vigorous advocate of the single tax. In short, he comes about as near as possible to standing on the platform that the methods which enabled him to acquire great wealth are wrong and ought to be abolished. He appears to have a wonderful hold upon laboring men, especially those who come within the range of his personal influence. The ordinary Democratic politicians who have aspired to the nomination for Governor next year, and who went to Toledo to push their "claims," found themselves utterly neglected.

Mr. Johnson stands for radical principles regarding corporations. He would have all taxable property appraised by assessing boards at not less than its selling value. He would have the proceedings and deliberations of those boards open to the public, and a representative employed to present the interests of the public in all hearings. He would specifically provide that the property of steam railroads and other "public-service" corporations be assessed "at not less than their salable value as going concerns." He would require all "public-service" corporations to make sworn public reports, and would give the power of visitation and examination over such corporations to the proper auditing officers, "to the end that the true value of the privileges had by such corporations may be made plain to the people." There are minor provisions, but here are quite enough to startle and alarm the average corporation man.

While Mr. Johnson urged that State issues should be pressed in the pending State campaign, he took pains to declare his position in regard to national politics. His platform expressly endorsed the Kansas City platform of 1900, and personally commended the candidate who stood upon that platform. Nor did he stop here. In his speech he served notice that nobody can be a good Democrat in 1902, 1903, or the first half of 1904 who is not ready to accept the platform of 1900 until that of the next Presidential campaign shall be framed. The Democrats of Ohio, he declared, can identify themselves unmistakably with the Democratic party of the republic "only by acknowledging the authority of the latest national expression of party doctrine on national questions"; and, of course, the rule must apply everywhere. This means that the new leader of Ohio Democracy will oppose the "reorganizers" in the party who would put a stigma upon Bryan, and who would have Democratic State conventions ignore the Kansas City platform, as was done deliberately in Indiana a few weeks ago, in Michigan somewhat later, and in Wisconsin on Wednesday week. He stands with those Democrats in Missouri, Arkansas, North Carolina, and other States in the South and West who have "reaffirmed" the Kansas City platform, and with that element in the Iowa Democracy which on September 3 fought for Bryanism on the convention floor, and cast 344 votes, as against 384 for omitting all mention of the Kansas City platform. This element is particularly strong in regions where the feeling against "the Money Power" is most pronounced; and many Democrats of this type openly say that they would rather have the Republicans carry the Presidency again than support a so-called "conservative" Democrat who represents the "reorganizing" element in the party.

*THE JOINT MANŒUVRES.*

Undoubtedly, the most striking fact about the joint army and navy manœuvres just concluded at the eastern end of Long Island Sound was their failure to hold the public's attention. For this there were several reasons—among others, the impossibility of getting clear accounts of what was happening, or of knowing which side had really won a glorious and bloodless victory. The descent upon the fleet of the Duchess of Marlborough on the "eve of hostilities" made the very beginning ridiculous. But, even before that, the lame conclusion of the navy game played in Massachusetts Bay, when Commander Pillsbury's fleet gave up an impossible task, regulated by impossible conditions, in broad daylight, and under circumstances which distinctly suggested opéra bouffe, had made the public turn to more important and more civilized things.

As to the value of this particular war-game, there is necessarily considerable difference of opinion. To one of our morning contemporaries it was so serious and so vital an event as to call for violent denunciation of any one who commits the offence of *lèse-majesté* by poking fun at the Gilbertian combination of a war fleet and a gallant admiral held up by a Duchess and a cup of tea. But it may be asked in all seriousness whether the problem presented to the navy was not from the beginning an insoluble one, and whether the outcome was not a foregone conclusion, provided conditions on both sides could be made to approximate those of war time.

If there has been anything clearly taught by our recent warring in different quarters of the globe, it is the weakness of floating guns when directed against shore fortifications. Even in the civil war this was demonstrated time and time again. The monitors were defeated in every attempt to take Charleston, and wasted endless powder and shell in fruitless bombardments of forts all along the coast. Every one can remember the "terrific damage" done by the *New York* off Matanzas in 1898, and with what denunciations of Spanish mendacity we received the news that one hapless mule was the sole victim of her Yankee gunners. Yet the mule was the only living thing killed during this engagement. Admiral Sampson believed that he could have reduced the batteries at Havana, but fear of the inevitable loss attendant upon the undertaking prevented his getting permission to make the attempt. Afterwards the very slight damage done to the land batteries by the fleet off Santiago and San Juan proved to many the wisdom of the Department's decision in regard to Havana. It also demonstrated the fact that Cervera's fleet and the Spanish troops might have held Santiago indefinitely had there not been an investing army to assail them from the rear.

In the taking of the Taku forts from the Chinese in June, 1900, they were assailed by a combined foreign fleet of British, Russian, Japanese, French, and German ships. Here, as at Forts Donelson and Henry in our civil war, it was the land force which captured the fortifications, and Lieut. W. C. Davidson reported to the United States Naval Institute that, save for the exploding of an exposed magazine, the forts were practically undamaged, and that "but for the assault of the landing party they could not have been taken." Another American naval officer to give interesting testimony to the ineffectiveness of naval guns when used upon land fortifications is Lieutenant-Commander Bradley A. Fiske, who served on the *Petrel*, *Monadnock*, and *Yorktown* during the war with Spain and the Philippine insurrection. In some "Personal Recollections" contributed to the *United Service Magazine*, he says of the results of a punitive expedition of four ships to drive several hundred Filipinos out of intrenchments at San Fernando:

> "This little engagement emphasized to me the small damage done by ship-fire to towns. Undoubtedly we silenced the fire of the insurgents, but I have no reason to think that we did very much military harm. All the insurgents had to do was to lie down on their stomachs behind their simple entrenchments, and let us shoot away our ammunition and set fire to a few houses. It would have been foolish for us to try to land, and so we steamed away."

His experience with the *Monadnock's* and *Petrel's* guns in other bombardments led him to similar conclusions.

It may therefore be accepted as an approved lesson of military history that land fortifications cannot be reduced by any fleet, unless it is accompanied by an army capable of landing at once to take possession or to assault fortifications. It is impossible, of course, to say that the late manœuvres will teach the same lesson, for it would be foolish to forecast the outcome of the battle of umpires, whose individual judgments in each movement must necessarily be affected by local circumstances, by weather conditions, and at night by the darkness. From the strictly military point of view it would have been well if no attempt had been made to get a decision as to victors and vanquished. Whatever benefits will result will be gained solely from the added experience in gun drill and searchlight practice of the crews ashore and afloat.

Such announcements as that "unexpected weaknesses have been developed in the Fisher's Sound forts" must be viewed in the light of the obvious efforts to use the manœuvres as a lever to get larger appropriations from Congress. They cannot affect the historic and indisputable fact that there is no navy powerful enough to conquer an American seaport without the help of an enormous army, against the oversea transportation of which the Atlantic is itself a perfect, and the cheapest, defence. Of the spectacle of a mighty republic which has risen to true greatness by its devotion to commerce and the arts of peace, engaged in playing at killing human beings 1902 years after the birth of the Prince of Peace, we shall not speak at this time.

## *THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.*

The full text of the London *Times's* editorial article on the financial situation in America contains much food for thought. We do not suppose that the *Times* has any better means of judging our position, so far as concerns the facts that govern it, than are available to critics in this country. But a thoughtful foreign critic nevertheless enjoys two advantages over home observers. He can judge current developments from a distance, not under the influences which, with observers on the spot, are apt to distort facts from their true relation to one another. And, being a foreigner, he is free from that very dangerous tendency which makes prediction of a continued "boom" a kind of patriotism.

The *Times* frankly confesses that expectation of immediate disaster—widely entertained last spring by critics of American finance—is proving to be erroneous. It shows the reason why such beliefs were held and why they have been abandoned. "The dice have fallen kind"; one of the largest harvests in our history is about to be gathered in, with consequent substantial increase both in domestic wealth and in our power of discharging foreign liabilities. Had the harvest failed, the reckoning for our capital inflation and the expanded floating debt of our bankers on the European markets would have come as the critics had predicted. As it is, the *Times* declares that "the day when financial trouble will be experienced by the United States has been postponed for another eight or nine months, and possibly, if no further commitments are entered upon, for an even longer period."

We should be reluctant, even conceding all the *Times's* premises, to fix with assurance on any date. Economic phenomena do not arrive on schedule time; in fact, they are very apt to come when the community has ceased to look for them. England itself has lately provided a noteworthy illustration of this principle. Trade prostration, and, in particular, depression on London's Stock Exchange, was to end with the peace treaty in South Africa. There were, to be sure, some cautious prophets with their warnings that the "boom" might not come in such proportions as optimists alleged. But the "turn" was fixed by all for the opening of June. Every one knows what sort of fulfilment these predictions had. Consols to-day are down nearly five points from their price on the day when peace was formally announced; English markets generally have fallen into renewed depression. Nor do we lack experience of our own. No one will have forgotten the repeated predictions that a reckoning for our silver debauchery in 1890 was about to be demanded. The reckoning came, but it came when prophets who named dates were weary, and when the rest of the community had about concluded that it would not come at all. So with the recovery which was to follow the repeal of the Sherman Act in 1893.

In the light of these various experiences, we should say that the *Times* is somewhat premature in declaring that trouble is to come at such-and-such a date. Nothing has been made more plain, in the course of the last three years, than the fact that this country's financial resources had been underestimated. Its capacity for development, its power of legitimate expansion in genuine wealth, were greater than the most hopeful had imagined. We are not speaking now of the stock market, which, after all, is only the mirror or barometer of underlying conditions. The country's tangible achievements, which are now matters of every-day commonplace, have been such as the most buoyant imagination, half a dozen years ago, would not have ventured to suggest. Nor should it be forgotten that the forward impetus, created by such remarkable achievements, is not an easy thing to measure. If it is true, as it often has been in the past, that reaction, when it comes, is proportioned to the scale of the previous expansion, it is also true that the power to carry along industrial prosperity even beyond the lines of safe conservatism must also bear some ratio to the original propelling forces.

It may be said, therefore, that American prosperity is continuing, and that the signs are on the whole more favorable than they were twelve months ago. We have no short crops to complicate the situation. Even cotton, which has cheated the high hopes based on the first month of the crop, will apparently yield pretty much the average of the last three years. There is no complaint from mercantile or industrial circles. Our export trade, cut down $112,000,000, wholly because of the decreased agricultural supplies, ought fairly to rehabilitate itself when the new and abundant cereal crops begin to move.

Our readers will observe that we have not yet touched that part of the subject on which the warnings of last season were chiefly based. It is the overcapitalization in our money market which must give us pause, even when conceding the most encouraging results in actual trade and commerce. That huge sums of capital are tied up in enterprises whose more or less inflated securities the investing public still fights very shy of, is a perfectly well-known fact. There is no reason to suppose that in

this regard the situation has improved, with this one exception—and the exception is significant—that the ability of the promoters of these schemes to borrow for their purposes is increased. "There will," the London *Times* admits, after speaking of our abundant coming harvests, "be plenty of means of borrowing fresh money in London, Paris, and perhaps Berlin." But the *Times* says further, what was pretty well known before to financiers, that already "the amount of money lent by Europe on short loan to the United States is larger than it ever was before." Short loans may be recalled—as they were by Europe, under extremely disquieting circumstances, exactly a year ago. Recall to-day of the several hundred millions thus advanced by the foreign institutions would be more awkward than last autumn; for the sufficiently well-known reason that our banks are less able now than they were then to assume the burden. Instead of paying off these liabilities, it is the present immediate purpose of the bank community to borrow more from Europe, in order to restore our deficient cash reserves.

Had plans for inflating capital and promoting huge corporate amalgamations been completed, so that the problem of the future might be only the distribution of securities created but not yet absorbed, it would be easier to foretell the outcome. The absorption process might be troublesome, as it was after 1882; it might be prolonged, and it might cause occasional convulsion in the money market. Probably all this would happen. But, at any rate, the community would be assured that the process of restoring true equilibrium was at work. Misgivings based on the knowledge that these huge undertakings, with their masses of unsold stocks and bonds carried on bank loans, were at the mercy of any money-market accident, have been perfectly warranted; but they would be lighter if the end of the process were in sight. But is it? That is the question which the financial critic of the day must face. The *Times* suggests a potent factor in the case when it quotes the view of the London market that "the great American financiers have no choice but to go on in the path they marked out for themselves when they had once entered on it." Can the efforts for control through amalgamation cease, so long as a powerful opposition stands outside to threaten all that has been already done? If not, what is to be the consequence? "Unless," the *Times* very properly concludes, "we are to accept the new-fangled doctrine that, in some mysterious way, the laws of economics need not be taken into account where America is concerned, the present state of things and the present fashion of finance cannot go on for ever." Thus regarded, the developments of the coming season ought to possess extraordinary interest.

## *THE LAW OF FOREST AND MOUNTAIN.*

It is often said that there is no law without a penalty. This maxim will not bear close scrutiny; and it may not be unprofitable to examine a case in which a code depends absolutely upon the unforced assent of those to whom it applies. We speak of the code which regulates the use of private property by woodsmen and mountaineers. The mountain hut and the forest camp, although absolutely unpoliced and practically beyond the jurisdiction of statute law, are protected by a sentiment which amounts to law and yet has no recourse against breaches of the custom of the region. You may leave your valuables on a trail in the Northwest secure of finding them again, and you may, under well-understood restrictions, use any camp in the woods of Maine or Canada. Similarly the mountain shelters of the Appalachian or Alpine Clubs, or those erected at private expense, are free to all who traverse the mountains. And the rules for their use by the casual occupant are so explicit as to have the value of law, and as binding as if a thousand penalties and precedents enforced each article. We are dealing with a very different code from Mr. Kipling's "law of the jungle"—the rule "of hoof and of claw"; we are examining the case of men free to be lawless, who, under a code of some complexity, are scrupulously a law unto themselves.

The limits of mountain law have been recently illustrated among the ice valleys of Mont Blanc. M. Joseph Vallot has for twelve years maintained a mountain observatory near the summit of this great mountain. The building was supplied with the usual instruments, and was fully provisioned. Near at hand he had erected a mountain hut for the use of all climbers, which has frequently harbored bewildered wanderers on the upper reaches, and has undoubtedly been the means of saving many lives. This hut proved too narrow for two German tourists who decided to make a stay of several days beside the Dôme du Goûter. So, acting under mountain law as they supposed, they broke into the observatory, helped themselves to the provisions, and made themselves free of all its accommodations, offering on their return to repay the owner for the food actually consumed. M. Vallot, learning meanwhile that his instruments had been disturbed, brought suit against the trespassers.

How jealously mountain law is guarded is shown by the protests which everywhere arose in Switzerland. M. Vallot had no difficulty in proving himself in the right, but the case brought out very clearly certain principles in mountaineering ethics. It was shown that the invaders were not storm-bound, but could at any time have descended to the valley. It was held that they entered the observatory, not in their need, but for their greater convenience. Every one declared that they had no right merely to prolong a holiday in this fashion, and that mountain custom granted them only the occupancy of the hut, not the right to enter the larger building or to use the provisions. It might be added that the offer to reimburse M. Vallot for the provisions was highly improper. They should have promptly replaced them after due notification. Thus, quite apart from the graver charge of vandalism, these two climbers were found in contempt of mountain law. Henceforth their mountaineering reputation, except in Coventry, will be of the worst.

The principle involved is clearly that of reasonable use. Illustrations might be cited indefinitely. One may not plan for a week in the woods, and then keep on from shelter to shelter for a month; yet if one, through an unforeseen mishap, needs food and shelter, they are his to take where he finds them, and upon the sole condition that he respect the property he uses and make good as soon as possible any impairment of its stores. Any Appalachian Club shelter in the White Mountains, with all its utensils, is free to every pedestrian until the tiny building is full. Beyond that point, members of the club justly require outsiders to give way; but the case almost never arises. In all these matters a fine sense of delicacy is shown by those who do not always receive credit for that quality. No logging camp in the country would refuse its best to a belated woodsman, and none would receive pay for any trouble and expense which his succor required; but these same lumbermen would decline to be used as a convenience by a party of improvident campers not actually in distress.

Into the minuter articles of mountain and wood law it is superfluous to go. One does something for the neglected or ill-defined trail over which he passes, not out of surplus benevolence, but because the unwritten law prescribes the lopping of the bush, the freshening of the blaze, or the rebuilding of the cairn. One takes a stray hound only to the next clearing, because such is forest law. Under this code most of the meannesses and crimes that are incident to civilization vanish. It is as if the vast solitariness of the forest and the mountain reproduced itself in a kind of largeness of soul in the woodsman and mountaineer. He feels more vividly than the man in the multitude the solemnity of any act that concerns another individual. In town you cannot safely leave an overcoat on the rack with the door ajar; in the North Woods you may leave in an open

shack the best gun that the forges of England, Belgium, or American can produce, and passers-by, who perfectly know its value, will hardly give it a second look. Human nature resents anarchy as Nature abhors a vacuum. And woodlife and mountain life would be very anarchy without stricter laws and finer morals than suffice for the abodes of men. The loss of a camp axe would put the owner to the gravest inconveniences, the depletion of a store of provisions might bring a party to the verge of starvation, the theft of a gun might mean a crueller but no less certain death than a bullet through its owner's heart.

It is salutary that, from time to time, men should thus be brought face to face with the whole consequences of their deeds; and it is creditable to human nature that it responds so trustily to the test. It is refreshing, too, to find a realm of law in which stern penalties are unnecessary, and it is strange that the advocates of philosophical anarchy have neglected the striking analogy which lies to their hand in the law of forest and mountain.

## BISHOP TALLEYRAND.—I.

PARIS, August 27, 1902.

A complete biography of the famous Talleyrand, founded on original documents, has yet to be written, though there is already an extensive Talleyrand "literature," and though we possess his own Memoirs, which were published by the late Duke de Broglie. We know that Talleyrand left these Memoirs to M. de Bacourt, after having suppressed or sophisticated many parts of it, and that further changes or suppressions were made by M. de Bacourt himself. Talleyrand's figuring as Minister of Napoleon, and afterwards as one of the great actors in the dramas of 1814 and 1815, has almost completely overshadowed the other parts of his life; his early career as Bishop of Autun is quite forgotten, and we must be grateful to M. Bernard de Lacombe for having given us, quite recently, a most interesting sketch of Talleyrand as Bishop.

Charles-Maurice de Talleyrand-Périgord was commonly called the Abbé de Périgord. As one of his legs was a little shorter than the other, his parents decided, though he was the eldest son, to make him a priest. It could be said of him, what Cardinal Retz said of himself in his Memoirs, that "he had the least ecclesiastical soul in the world." In 1838, Talleyrand, in making his retractation, wrote to the Pope: "The respect which I owe to those from whom I received life, does not forbid me to say that my whole youth was directed to a profession for which I had no natural aptitude." Talleyrand gives in his Memoirs a vivid picture of his life as a seminarist. He once met, near Saint-Sulpice, a young actress, who had taken refuge in a doorway while it rained. He had an umbrella and offered it to her. Like himself, she had been contraried in her tastes: "Her parents," he said, "had forced her to go on the stage; I had entered the seminary unwillingly."

After having left Saint-Sulpice, he received from the King the valuable sinecure of the Abbey of Saint-Denis, in the diocese of Reims, which gave him a revenue of 18,000 francs. He led a frivolous and worldly life, though he continued uninterruptedly his theological studies. The Abbé de Périgord was a marvellous "causeur." He became a rival of Boufflers, of the Prince de Ligne, of Ségur, the kings of conversation at the time. He counted among his acquaintances the Duke de Lauzun, Chamfort, Marmontel, Mirabeau; he saw nearly every day Madame de Genlis. Greuze has left us a portrait of the Abbé, in a blue coat, a white waistcoat, chamois-color breeches, a cravat of fine linen, very high in the neck. Talleyrand saw Voltaire twice, and was one of the witnesses of his funeral.

In 1780 the Province of Tours, which had that year the nomination of one of the two general agents of the clergy, named the Abbé de Périgord. The function of these agents was to represent the clergy before the King and his ministers; they participated in the council of ecclesiastical affairs, the management of the church property. Talleyrand astonished everybody by the qualities which he developed in these delicate functions. He had the reputation of a wit. He acquired the reputation of a man of great ability. In the Assembly of the Church, in 1780, he was appointed "promoter," and had to make several important reports; among others, one on the free gift of fifteen millions made by the Church for the expenses of the American war.

In 1785 Talleyrand was appointed secretary of the Assembly of the Church, and made at the end of the session a report which was very much admired. It was at that time that he was thick with Turgot, Malesherbes, Maurepas, and Calonne. His ambition was to be made a bishop; it was almost a rule that the general agents of the Church should obtain bishoprics at the expiration of their mission. But the levity of Talleyrand's life was for a time an obstacle; he had to wait two years. He owed the bishopric at last to the friendship of Louis XVI. for his father, Charles-Daniel de Talleyrand, who had been a companion of the King in his youth, a soldier in the Seven Years' War, and who sent word from his deathbed to the King that he asked him as a last favor to take his son into his good graces.

Charles-Maurice, the Abbé, was thirty-four years old when Louis XVI., triumphing over his scruples, appointed him, on the 2d of November, 1788, Bishop of Autun. This was but a small bishopric, yielding an income of only about 22,000 livres; but it was one of the most illustrious. Beside the old remains of Roman splendor—theatres, aqueducts, monumental gates—were many Christian monuments—churches, convents, chapels. The Cathedral of Saint-Lazare was renowned for its fine Roman and Gothic architecture. At the same time that Talleyrand was appointed Bishop, he received from the Count d'Artois the Abbey of Celles, which had an income of 7,500 livres. Talleyrand made the usual preparatory retreat at Issy, and his consecration took place on the 18th of January, 1789. He received the day afterwards from the Archbishop of Paris the pallium, an ornament of white wool sprinkled with black crosses, which generally belongs only to the metropolitan; but the Bishops of Autun had had the privilege of wearing it since the year 600, when Pope Gregory the Great gave it to Bishop Syagrius and his successors.

Talleyrand considered his bishopric merely as a stepping-stone to the government of the country; he had entered the Church by compulsion—his ambition had other aims. He for a time hoped to be made a cardinal direct, like Mazarin, a foreigner, an Italian, who found himself Prime Minister without ever having been a bishop. Once a bishop, he remembered Richelieu and Fleury, who had each been a bishop before becoming Prime Minister. France was agitated by the convocation of the States-General. Talleyrand felt that new times were coming; he was prepared for them by his superior knowledge, his familiarity with the leading men of the time, the independence of his mind, and a certain sort of skepticism—we might say of cynicism—which nothing could astonish or trouble.

The episcopal consecration in no wise changed his habits, but he performed with much decorum the duties imposed on him. He at once, on January 26, sent a mandamus to the clergy of his diocese, recalling the words of Saint Paul: "Testis est mihi Deus quod sine intermissione memoriam vestri feci." The mandamus is in parts very eloquent and almost touching. Talleyrand did not, however, show much haste to go to his diocese. He left Paris only when he thought it necessary to go to Autun in order to promote his election to the States-General. The electors were convoked in all the provinces. The Prince de Condé, Governor of Burgundy, summoned specially by assignation "the Lord Bishop of Autun" to appear in person at the General Assembly of his order. Talleyrand arrived at Autun on the 12th of March, and on the 15th took formal possession of the episcopal palace. He received the chapter, and, after the bulls of the Holy See had been read, he took in Latin, in a loud voice, the oath which had been taken for centuries by the Bishops of Autun:

"I swear by the Holy Gospels, and promise to observe inviolably and to defend all the privileges, liberties, franchises, immunities, statutes, exemptions, rights, and customs of the Church of Autun. . . . I will undertake nothing, in any way, directly or indirectly, against the said privileges, exemptions, and rights, whether my church owes them to the generous will of the Roman pontiffs, the emperors, the kings, dukes, and princes, or whether they have been liberally granted by the Bishops of Autun, my predecessors; so help me God!"

A great ceremony in the Cathedral followed the reception of the chapter, and at the end of it Talleyrand gave a solemn benediction to the people.

Talleyrand did not lose a day for his election. He entered seriously upon all his duties, in order to conciliate his clergy; he made many pastoral visits; he showed a most affectionate interest in the affairs of the Sulpicians and of the Oratorians; he defended the regular clergy against the secular clergy, without offending anybody. At the time of the election, two hundred and nine ecclesiastical electors arrived at Autun. They assembled at the Seminary, where they prepared their "cahier," or bill of grievances. Talleyrand presided at their meetings; he showed deference to the advice of all, even the most humble priests;

he charmed the assembly by his courtesy, his spirit of conciliation, the clearness of his views, which were all practical and sensible. His election was assured, and he made a sort of programme of the deliberations of the assembly at Autun. This programme is a quite remarkable document, and deserves to be read even now. In the preamble, Talleyrand set forth the necessity of a Constitution:

"It is indispensable that the National Assembly should occupy itself, before all, with a Constitution of the State, comprising several fundamental points: to renew the solemn adhesion of all Frenchmen to the monarchical Constitution; to prepare a charter stipulating the invariable rights of all; to declare that henceforth no public act shall become a general law of the kingdom if the nation has not solemnly approved it; to preserve the undeniable and exclusive right of the nation to establish subsidies, to modify them, to limit them, and to regulate their employment; to establish the basis of a proper national representation, beginning with the parishes; . . . to create provincial assemblies."

The rights of liberty and property were to be considered as the fundamental points of the Constitution. Talleyrand's *cahier* asked for the remodelling of criminal jurisprudence, the institution of the jury, the inviolability of private correspondence. We can recognize already in this notable document the ideas which inspired the Minister of Louis XVIII., and which determined Talleyrand to give his support to Louis-Philippe after the Revolution of 1830.

Talleyrand was elected deputy of the clergy by a large majority. He had remained only a week at Autun. He left it, not to see it again till thirteen years had elapsed. His relations with his diocese took the form of a correspondence, agreeable at first, and afterwards very bitter—so bitter that it had to be interrupted. The stormy times of the Revolution were approaching, and Talleyrand was to play a very important part in the Constituent Assembly.

# Correspondence.

## SCIENTIFIC HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his supplementary note of August 21, Prof. W. E. Dodd, by claiming that his letter in the *Nation* of August 7 was meant to be based on the conception of "scientific history," has touched upon one of the most pregnant questions in historical study in this country to-day, one worthy of discussion, as it seems to me. Professor Dodd gives no definition of the phrase, seeming to proceed on the assumption that there is substantial agreement as to the meaning; but this is to be doubted. It is easy to name books which nearly every historical student of standing would pronounce unscientific; but what about as large a list which the same number would consider scientific? What would be the vote on Macaulay's England? on Froude's England? on Green's England? All these have mistakes, as have also the most careful studies, but what proportion of errors can a man make before being excluded from the circle of scientific students? Again, how much of the author's individuality can come in before he is condemned as being below the standard? How far shall previous bias, sympathy, prejudice, be allowed to enter, without vitiating the author's title to scientific? Besides, what distinction is there between scientific history and other history?

Although I attended the leading graduate historical department in this country at that time, I am afraid I have not a clear notion of the matter. I cannot recall that Prof. H. B. Adams ever gave any formal deliverance on it; in fact, I am rather certain that he did not use the term very often. But in my own work I have felt that the words are not mere sounds, and that they have a reality at bottom that demands differentiation. As a feeble contribution towards a solution of the problem, I have a figure of speech drawn from legal conditions to indicate my notions in the rough. It seems to me that, aside from the sources, history writing may be divided into two great classes—that of the advocate who, with preconceived purpose, sets out to win the jury to his side; and that of the judge who, in passionless manner, without ulterior motive, sums up the points, emphasizes the important ones, with the aim of aiding the jury to reach a true verdict. Both deal with the evidence, but the lawyer puts his personality into it, at times twists, misstates, falsifies; while the arbiter on the bench is to handle it with the cold spirit that a chemist has in handling acid, crucible, and formula.

From this conception, if we leave out some exceptional cases, we may deduce four indispensable marks of scientific history: (1) the judicial temperament that dispassionately views all sides so as to get the correct gauge for truth; (2) an exhaustive knowledge of the subject based on (a) what is absolutely necessary, original sources (evidence), and (b) on secondary data, other treatment of same topic (precedents); (3) fitting style, comprising accuracy of statement, clearness of expression, plain distinction between knowledge and inference, so that the careful reader rapidly and truly gets the idea of the author; (4) reference, exact when possible, to the authority for essential points. It is easy to see that (3) may dwindle to a remnant, in an edition of writings for instance; and that (4) may disappear entirely on account of limitations of space. But the author must be fully equipped with both, and ready to bring them into play when required. Many subjects do not allow this method.

This crude effort at stating my position may be further elucidated by mentioning three concrete examples, Ropes, Livermore, and Jameson, who, on the most difficult subjects in our history, well exemplify, so far as I know, the above conception, though I admit great differences in the quantity of the output of the three. I do not undervalue other works or men, as I recognize that there are examples of both, of wider appeal and of greater direct influence, that may at the same time be just as scientific; but these three occur to me now as types of this advanced idea of historiography.

Yours truly, C. Meriwether.
Washington, D. C., September 1, 1902.

## TIBERIUS THE TYRANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The learned reviewer of Mr. J. C. Tarver's 'Tiberius the Tyrant' (*Nation*, 1902, II., p. 136) has overlooked the fact that the first historian who pleaded the case of Tiberius against Tacitus with a serious knowledge of Roman imperial institutions, was my lamented friend Victor Duruy, the best Minister of Public Instruction that France ever had, and the founder of that excellent institution, the École des Hautes Études. Duruy's work appeared in 1853; it was a Latin thesis for the doctorate, entitled 'De Tiberio Imperatore' (98 pp., 8vo). A summary of it can be found in that useful and little known work, Mourier and Deltour's 'Notice sur le Doctorat ès lettres; suivie du catalogue et de l'analyse des thèses' (Paris: Delalain, p. 136-137). Duruy often told me that the *soutenance*—that is, the public discussion—of his thesis at the Sorbonne created quite a sensation; he was accused of defending a tyrant, of upholding a paradox, etc. There is a curious chapter on the subject in Désiré Nisard's posthumous 'Souvenirs' (1888, I., p. 87), with a graphic description of that discussion, in which Nisard, who was one of the judges, spoke in favor of Duruy's opinion against the *doyen*, Victor Le Clerc.

Truly yours, Salomon Reinach.
Paris, August 28, 1902.

## AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS OF THE CLASSICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems to me there are just grounds for adverse criticism of many of our text-books of the ancient classics. It is hard to see for whom they are intended. I have before me an annotated edition of one of Plato's Dialogues that contains references to nearly all the other dialogues, to the three tragic poets, to Demosthenes, to some half-a-dozen large German works, not to mention books more easily accessible. A good deal of space is also given to bibliography and to critical discussions of the text. Very little of this *apparatus criticus* is of any value to the student. He cannot understand it unless it is explained to him by the teacher; he never has the books referred to, and rarely has access to them if he would use them, while not one in a thousand can make anything out of a citation to a German work. Yet we are offered "notes for the use of students." This show of erudition can be of service to the scholar only, and he does not need it.

Comparing this little volume with Cron's edition of the "Apology," we find a remarkable difference. When a passage in a Greek or Latin author is referred to, it is almost always given in full. The learner has thus no difficulty in getting out of it what there is in it of value to him. This is the general plan according to which German text-books are edited. So far as I have used or looked through British text-books, they, like the German, are characterized by paucity of references even to grammars. Moreover, textual criticism, except of passages of unusual importance or of unusual difficulty, is generally avoided. The editor adopts the reading which he believes to be best authenticated, and is silent about the rest. It may be argued that we are wiser than our transatlantic confrères, but I fear the facts are against us. It is probable that both German and English students are generally more firmly grounded in the grammar than ours; but for that very reason they are better qualified to profit by more extensive references, if they were supposed to be of service.

I believe that, generally speaking, our notes to difficult authors, like Herodotus, Plato, Thucydides, and the poets, are too meagre. It would often be a real pedagogical gain to the learner if a hard passage were paraphrased for him. Knowing thus in a general way what the author meant, he should be required to give his exact meaning in the best English he could command. He would not then have to struggle with both the Greek and the English at the same time. There are signs that we are carrying the so-called scientific method to extremes in the study of literature. It is well to select a few passages from representative authors for minute dissection; but to take up all the student's time in this way is not likely to bring him much profit. Suppose he has a fixed number of hours to spend on the 'Aeneid.' Would it be most conducive to the cultivation of his taste—that is, to his education—to employ them all on the first book, counting the number of instances of alliteration, of initial sibilants, of verbs belonging to each of the four conjugations, and more of the same sort, or in reading the entire poem intelligently, but without special attention to all sorts of minutiæ?

To study literature as we study the natural sciences may be compared to the study of animal life from the specimens in our museums of natural history. Yet it is by just such a method that many of our annotators would lead us; and they are laying their blighting hand, not only upon works in foreign languages, but on those in English. We cannot expect to instruct more than a very small proportion of our students in Greek and Latin so well that they will continue to read these languages through life. But we ought, at least, to be able, by means of classic writers, to give them a life interest in and an enjoyment of good literature.

There are doubtless many men now living who know more about Greek and Latin than Plato or Virgil; for *they* probably concerned themselves as little about language, either grammatically or philologically, as Ruskin or Tennyson. But when we compare the ancients with the moderns in the power to use these languages with vigor and effect, there is hardly enough left of the latter to base a comparison on. The analytical or scientific study of a language or languages is a department of knowledge just like Egyptology or botany or chemistry. It can be pursued about as well with Bantu or Anglo-Saxon as with Greek and Latin; it is not necessary to a liberal education. On the other hand, no man can be called educated who is not, at least in some degree, familiar with one of the world's great literatures. C. W. Super.

Athens, Ohio, September 1, 1902.

## PROPERTY IN LETTERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The question raised by your correspondent of August 28, in regard to property in letters, is one that deserves wide publicity.

I recently wrote a personal and confidential letter to the President of the Board of Regents of a State university in regard to a person who was a candidate for a position in the faculty. After the appointment was made, this letter was given to the candidate. A few years since, I wrote the President of one of the great Eastern universities concerning an applicant for a fellowship. This letter was also returned to the candidate. Another letter, written by a friend, protesting against the prospective appointment of an unfit candidate, was also sent—presumably by mistake—to the applicant.

The point at issue would seem to be so plain as to need no elucidation or explanation, yet in some way it needs to be made clear to those having the appointing power that they will continue to receive the Delphic communications of which they so justly complain if they, on their part, adopt the plan of returning to applicants for positions all letters written *about* them as well as *to* them. Many persons, like myself, have made it a rule never, under any circumstances whatsoever, to write a letter of recommendation to be presented personally by an applicant. The rule is made for the sake of writing with absolute frankness, of writing in the interests of education and not of those of a particular candidate. If college authorities, however, are to return either to successful or to unsuccessful candidates personal and confidential letters written them concerning these candidates, many persons will be tempted to extend the application of the rule, and in future to write no letters either to a candidate or for a candidate.—Yours truly, L. M. S.

Poughkeepsie, N. Y., September 2, 1902.

## A PLEA FOR COMPOSERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A custom, brought over from England and rapidly gaining ground in this country, challenges a word of opposition before it gets beyond bounds and makes impossible the setting of modern words to modern music.

Perhaps, by stating a few facts, the case may be most easily made plain. For instance, a composer happens upon a volume of poems in which he finds some verses suggesting a musical thought, which develops into a song. The composer, remembering that the poem is by an English poet, published in New York and copyrighted in England, writes to the publisher asking permission to print the song; the publisher replies, granting permission, provided the composer see that the name of the poet, the name of the volume from which the verses are taken, and the name of the publisher all be printed on each copy of the song, and, in addition, that the composer send the sum of $35 to the publisher for the use (not exclusive) of the verses, $25 to go to the poet and $10 to the publisher. A similar application to another publisher for permission to print a song brought the same answer, with the difference that the sum demanded was $15, and in this case the poem was by an American, published in America.

Now the practical side of the matter is this: The first song in question would sell perhaps for forty cents a copy, catalogue price. As the composer's royalty is 10 per cent. on this price, it would be necessary to sell 900 copies of the song to cover the fee of $35 to the poet and publisher before the composer could receive a penny. Now, everybody knows that few songs sell more than 900 copies and that many sell less; so it is all a lottery, in which the composer should have a winning chance, instead of assuming all the risk. The poet has already received royalty for his book containing the poem, and, although good words are better than poor words, it is the music that sells the song, and if the music should not happen to please, the words alone would never sell a copy.

In England, where the custom started, the composer writes a song, pays for the words (for a poem of Tennyson's, five guineas, it is said), the publisher prints the song, in many cases gives a series of concerts to introduce it with other new publications, not only pays a singer to sing it, but also pays him a royalty on every copy sold, making it worth his while to sing it as often as he can—a system of machine politics, rotten for art, but not without its commercial advantages.

In America the publisher prints a song, advertises it in his catalogue, and if a singer happens to take the song up, well and good; otherwise it is left to make its own way.

In view of these facts, would it not be better, instead of importing a custom from England, where the conditions are so different, to establish one of our own? And since poet and publisher are both freely advertised on each copy of the song, ought this not to be sufficient compensation to the poet for the use of his poem, for which he has already been paid? If not, then let the composer agree to share with the poet the royalty until the poet shall have received $10, $15, or $20, according to the agreement. Such an arrangement would give the composer a chance of covering his expenses, recognize the claims of the poet, and settle a question which, at present, is open to the caprice of every publisher and poet in America to settle as they may please. A Writer of Songs.

# Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s autumn list embraces Lyman Abbott's Life of Henry Ward Beecher; T. W. Higginson's 'Longfellow,' Professor Woodberry's 'Hawthorne,' Professor Carpenter's 'Whittier,' and Professor Bourne's 'Motley,' in the American Men of Letters Series; John W. Chadwick's 'Channing'; Lowell's Anti-Slavery Papers, in two volumes; 'Life and Correspondence of Henry Ingersoll Bowditch,' by his son Vincent Y. Bowditch; 'Daniel Ricketson and his Friends,' by Anna and Walton Ricketson; 'Reminiscences,' by John T. Trowbridge; 'Texas,' by Prof. George P. Garrison; 'American Navigation,' by William W. Bates; 'American Diplomacy in the Orient,' by John W. Foster; 'Historical Geography of the United States,' by Ellen C. Semple; 'Tracts relating to the Currency of the Massachusetts Bay, 1682-1720,' by Andrew McFarland Davis; 'Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775,' edited by Gertrude S. Kimball; 'Where American Independence Began' (Quincy, Mass.), by Daniel Munro Wilson; 'The Silva of North America,' concluding volumes xiii. and xiv., with index, by Prof. Charles Sprague Sargent; 'Handbook of Birds of the Western United States,' by Florence Merriam Bailey; 'A Sea-Turn, and Other Matters,' stories by Thomas Bailey Aldrich; 'Library Values' and 'Far and Near,' by John Burroughs; 'A Guide to the

Use of Reference Books,' by Alice B. Kroeger; 'An Index of Portraits,' by Nina E. Browne; a supplementary Index to the *Atlantic Monthly* (1889-1901); 'A Study of Prose Fiction,' by Bliss Perry; 'Captain Craig,' poems by Edwin Arlington Robinson; 'A Pocketful of Posies,' rhymes for children, by Abbie Farwell Brown; 'Grimm Tales Made Gay,' by Guy Wetmore Carryl; 'A Primer of Right and Wrong,' by J. N. Larned; and 'Americans in Process: A Settlement Study,' for Boston, edited by Robert A. Woods.

Professor Lounsbury's 'Shakspere and Voltaire,' Bishop Potter's 'The Citizen and the Industrial Situation,' 'Human Nature and the Social Order,' by Prof. Charles Horton Cooley, and 'The Book of Joyous Children,' by James Whitcomb Riley, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

A. Wessels Co. have in preparation Newton's 'Life of Captain John Brown'; 'The Story of Fish Life,' by W. P. Pycraft; and 'The Story of Euclid,' by W. B. Frankland.

George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia, will publish 'Some Early Printers and their Colophons,' by Joseph Spencer Kennard; 'Spain and her People,' by Jeremiah Zimmerman; and 'Wit and Humor of American Statesmen,' compiled by Frederick Reddale.

Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., Boston, announce for September a new 'Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World,' for school and college use, consisting of 33 maps, with a complete index, and bound in paper and in cloth.

During the present month, Duckworth & Co., 3 Henrietta Street, London, W. C., will issue, in a small and limited edition of eighty copies, a volume of 'Reproductions of Drawings by Old Masters,' in the Chatsworth collection of the Duke of Devonshire. Mostly unknown and unexplained examples will compose the seventy plates, to which Mr. S. Arthur Strong contributes a critical text. The facsimile reproductions will be put on Japanese vellum.

Ex-President Kruger (Krüger, as the Germans prefer to spell the name) has been dictating his Memoirs, and the competition to publish them has naturally been great on both sides of the water. The Munich house of J. F. Lehmann has secured the coveted monopoly for all countries, and expects to bring the work out in November simultaneously "in allen Kultursprachen."

The 'American Newspaper Annual' for 1902 of N. W. Ayer & Son, Philadelphia, makes a volume of nearly 1,500 pages, exclusive of advertisements. Fulness could hardly further go; in fact, the total of newspapers and periodicals recorded is but 152 more than last year, and the editor notices in his preface the continued tendency to consolidation even among journals of importance. The revised maps exhibit "practically every newspaper town contained in the Annual," and, with the statistics of population affixed in the text, make this work a gazetteer and atlas serviceable to others than advertisers. There are also classified tables of towns from 3,000 population to 50,000 and upwards, and the last Presidential vote is recorded for States and counties. This work has an established place at the front.

The Concise Standard Dictionary of Funk & Wagnalls brings some 28,000 words into small compass by confining the data to pronunciation and definition on the well-known lines of the greater work. Room is still found for a certain number of illustrations, as that of an automobile. The usual appendixes, including coinage and weights and measures, are given.

In our recent notice of the first number of the *Ancestor* we had it in mind to say that it contains very little relating to America; in fact, it is rather pleasant to see how completely the heraldry of America is ignored. There is, however, some reference to an interesting but little-known episode in the annals of Roxbury, Mass. There are extracts from Carr-Ellison's MSS., as printed in Appendix X. to Report XV. of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. They relate to the Lady Hesilrige (originally and now Hazlerigg), wife of Sir Robert Hesilrige, eighth Baronet of Noseley. He married, but when and where does not exactly appear, Sarah, daughter of the Rev. Nathaniel Walter of Roxbury, and was almost wholly disinherited by his father, Sir Arthur. His only son, Arthur, succeeded as ninth baronet, but was not ancestor of the present holder of the title.

Dr. Eugen Kretzer's 'Joseph Arthur Graf von Gobineau: Sein Leben und sein Werk' (Leipzig: Seemann) is in its main features a contribution to the already extensive and constantly increasing Nietzsche literature —a fact which invests it with peculiar interest at the present time. Although Nietzsche rarely refers to Gobineau, and always in a somewhat disparaging tone, the author of this biography argues that the German thinker, whose originality is so strongly emphasized by his admirers and adherents, was indebted to the Frenchman for the cardinal points of his philosophy. Whether he consciously borrowed his ideas from Gobineau or not, he was certainly anticipated by him in his views concerning the inequality of races, the gradual decadence of mankind, and the evolution of the "overman" as a redeemer. Both of them regarded the belief in a personal God as the chief hindrance to human progress, and Nietzsche interpreted the words of Christ, "The kingdom of God is within you," as implying that the Deity is otherwise non-existent. The most complete divine incarnation is the "overman," but his development demands absolute freedom from superhuman supremacy. Nietzsche's writings are full of contradictions, and he took pride in characterizing himself as a thinker whom no one need refute, since in this respect he is sufficient unto himself (*Er genügt sich dazu selber*).

A timely contribution to comparative philology and ethnology is Prof. Dr. Renward Brandstetter's pamphlet 'Tagalen und Madagassen' (Lucerne: Dolischal), which contains a careful study of the racial and linguistic peculiarities of the principal inhabitants of the Philippines and of Madagascar, both of which are scions or subdivisions of the widely diffused Malay stock. Treatises of this kind would naturally be read by imperial Americans, but how many such really give any thought to their subjects except as ministering to their pride of conquest or their pockets?

The celebration of the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of the Germanic Museum at Nuremberg, fully described in a recent number of the *Nation*, was accompanied by the publication of a *Festschrift* entitled "Das Germanische Museum von 1852 bis 1902," prepared under the direction of Dr. Theodor Hampe, conservator and librarian of that institution, and issued by J. J. Weber in Berlin. It is a finely illustrated quarto of 150 pages, containing a full account of the origin and character of the Museum and its development till the present time.

The growth of morality in the brute creation through gregariousness is the subject of an article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of August 15 by M. Alfred Fouillée. It is hardly to be remarked for its novelty or its philosophy, but it usefully groups facts which are seldom viewed in the aggregate by the lord of creation. "Animal morality," concludes this writer, "is, like our own, a struggle against the struggle for existence; it is organization in society, devotion to a common cause. The social question has been raised by the animal world as by the human world," but has been solved by the former.

The July number of the *Library Journal* is wholly given up to reports of the Boston and Magnolia conferences (in June) of the American Library Association. Much stimulating reading is the result. Mr. George Watson Cole sums up and tabulates the gifts and bequests to American libraries in 1901-02 (July 1 to June 1). The money value of these benefactions, whether for running expenses or for buildings, was nearly twelve millions. Eight-tenths of the more than nine and a quarter millions for buildings proceeded from Andrew Carnegie, who found even in Massachusetts a foothold for his generosity to the extent of $200,000. To Michigan he gave $914,000, leaving only $500 to come from outside sources; to Kentucky $395,000, leaving $50,000 to other donors.

The monograph by Senator Hoar on Charles Allen of Worcester, a powerful and once distinguished jurist and statesman of Massachusetts, is the longest and not the least interesting paper in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. xiv., part 3), at their October meeting a year ago. Judge Allen's portrait is very impressively drawn. But here are also to be found Charles Francis Adams's "The Confederacy and the Transvaal," and Reminiscences of John Fiske by S. S. Green.

The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey has issued Special Publication No. 7, devoted to a discussion of the "Eastern Oblique Arc of the United States and Osculating Spheroid," by Charles A. Schott. The development of this arc is the result of the necessity for a main triangulation binding together the detached surveys of the harbors on the Atlantic Coast, and forming a base upon which all subordinate triangulation along that coast might be brought into accord. The triangulation upon which the oblique arc is based begins at Calais, Maine, on the St. Croix River, opposite the Canadian boundary, follows the trend of the Appalachian Mountains, reaches the Gulf Coast at Dauphin Island, near Mobile Bay, and terminates at New Orleans. The total length of the geodetic line is 1,623.2 statute miles, and in its course it traverses sixteen States. Near the middle of the arc the triangulation crosses the thirty-ninth parallel, and for some distance in Maryland and Virginia the same triangulation is employed in discussing the oblique arc as was used in the discussion of the transcontinental arc. The results of

this survey are of far-reaching consequence, since for the first time a measurement oblique to the meridian has been executed on a grand scale, and valuable material has been furnished for a more exact determination of the figure of the earth. The oblique arc contains within itself all that is necessary for determining the dimensions of a spheroid which corresponds most nearly with the existing geoid within the area covered by the triangulation. Previous discussions of parts of this arc, taken in connection with the transcontinental arc of the thirty-ninth parallel, have led to the substitution of Clark's spheroid of reference for Bessel's, and the adoption for the whole country of geographic coordinates based on a uniform system. The volume fills 394 pages, and contains 38 illustrations, including portraits of Hassler and Bache. It is accompanied by two folded maps, one showing the area covered by the arc, the other the distribution of astronomic stations from Maine to Louisiana.

The Geodetic Survey of South Africa has published the second volume of its reports, which contains a "Rediscussion of Bailey's and Fourcade's Surveys and their Reduction to the System of the Geodetic Survey," by Sir David Gill. The survey of Capt. Bailey, which, beginning at the southern end of the arc of meridian executed by Sir Thomas Maclear, extended for a considerable distance along the southern coast of the Cape Colony, is of permanent value as a basis for future subsidiary triangulation and the cartography of the colony. Mr. Fourcade triangulated a large area of the Knysna district, from Krakeel River to Belvedere.

In a paper on Japan's commercial future, read by Mr. Henry Satoh, director of the Imperial Commercial Museum in Tokio, before the Japan Society of London, he points out fields of enterprise for the foreigner in Japan, especially in textiles and the manufacture on the soil of iron and steel. He shows that the larger part of Japan's industries, and notably keramics, are still individual and part of the household routine. Under the direction of the same author, the well-known writer of 'Agitated Japan,' the Imperial Department of State for Agriculture and Commerce sends forth a bound and indexed Abstract of Statistics for 1900, showing in most carefully digested tables the progress of agriculture, commerce, industries, fisheries, forest and mine products. The historian cannot afford to neglect this picture in figures of contemporaneous Japan, which shows modifications of diet (the potato taking the place of other vegetable food) and enlargement of flesh food (with the corresponding multiplication of cattle and increase of pasturage), the decrease of tea-plant acreage, and the increase of mulberry-tree, the astonishing development of native goods manufactured for export, etc. Formosan statistics are not included. Evidently this little publication No. 1 is to be a serial.

Commercial education in Germany is one of the most important subjects treated in the Consular Reports for August. Instruction is now thoroughly organized in five distinct grades, from the primary commercial schools to the commercial universities of Leipzig and Cologne. Many of the primary schools have been founded and are maintained by the chambers of commerce, which, in nearly every city of the empire, are actively engaged in promoting commercial education. An object-lesson as to the value of this training is given by our consul at Hong Kong, who tells of the great success of two young Americans in selling goods of American manufacture in China, owing largely to the fact that they prepared themselves for their trip by learning to speak the Chinese language. The great decrease in the importation of alcohols into the Congo Free State is a hopeful sign, while progress in an Asiatic state is shown by a translation of the recent Siamese copyright law. The fifteenth section provides that one copy of every copyrighted work shall be presented "to the King's library, one copy to the Vajirayana library, and one copy to the ecclesiastical library." Several of the reports refer to the production of sugar in different parts of the world, and, though there has been a decrease of 17 per cent. in this year's sowings of beet sugar in Europe, "it is expected," writes our consul at Bremen, "that the visible supply of sugar in the world on August 31, 1903, will continue to show an enormously overstocked market."

The Damascus-Mecca railway, officially styled the Hedjaz or Pilgrim line, is one of the latest and most interesting projects for the development of the Levantine countries. It is worthy also of being ranked among the great enterprises of the day, as it is to run for 1,100 miles through a waterless desert, peopled by Bedouins hostile to the scheme. Nearly two million dollars has been raised by subscription from Moslems, and work was commenced some fifteen months ago from the terminus of the existing Hauran Railway, sixty-three miles from Damascus. Turkish soldiers and foreigners, mostly Italians, have been employed, and it was hoped that the line would be completed as far as Ain Zerka, 125 miles from Damascus, on August 29, the anniversary of the Sultan's accession. The chief engineer is a German, who has under him some Turkish officers from the corps of engineers. The material comes from Belgium, with the exception of some machinery and of the wooden ties, which are supplied gratis by the vilayets of Aidin and Salonika from their forests.

—Musical periodicals are not, as a rule, profitable unless they cater to the vanity of singers and players. The majority of professional musicians are not great readers even of the literature bearing on their art—which is one reason why they belong to the majority—and the general public seems to be contented with what it gets in the columns of the periodical press. This is true in Germany as well as in other countries; in fact, the editors of German musical periodicals seem to be particularly hampered by the lack of funds. A good deal of attention was therefore aroused last year by the appearance in Berlin of a new fortnightly, in magazine form, *Die Musik* (New York: Breitkopf & Härtel), which has shown an enterprising spirit quite unusual in its sphere. A notable instance is the recent "Bayreuth Heft," comprising the issues twenty and twenty-one. Its twenty articles (144 pages), mostly by well-known specialists, contain a surprising number of new details regarding a subject on which there has been a superabundance of writing for more than half a century. There are also numerous illustrations—portraits, facsimiles of Wagner letters and manuscripts, pictures of the houses in which Wagner lived, Bayreuth Nibelung scenery and singers, and the music of a short waltz which Wagner composed (with a humorous dedication) in Zürich (probably in 1857), and which is here printed for the first time. It has only thirty-two bars, and will not eclipse Johann Strauss.

—The most valuable new document in the "Bayreuth Heft" is the first sketch of the "Meistersinger." It is dated July 16, 1845, and was therefore written at the same time that "Lohengrin" was planned, and seventeen years before its completion as a dramatic poem. It takes up ten pages of type, and contains all the scenes of the completed poetic drama except that between Eva and Hans Sachs in Act II. One cannot but marvel at the dramatic vividness with which the details of the whole comedy are indicated in this preliminary prose sketch, while at the same time the finished poem compares with it as an oil painting with its pencil sketch. A more interesting and instructive glimpse into the workshop of genius has never been afforded. Wilhelm Tappert, who is always making new discoveries, has an article showing that there are not two, as commonly supposed, but three different endings for "Tannhäuser" made at various times by Wagner. Hausegger discourses on Rousseau and Wagner, and Egidi reports some conversations on the subject of Wagnerism which he had with Nietzsche, whose rarely more than semi-sane utterances on diverse topics have received altogether too much attention in Germany. Of greater interest are the sixteen pages devoted to extracts from the letters of Esser relating to Wagner and his works. Esser was a Viennese composer and conductor who was commissioned by the publisher, Schott, to make arrangements for piano of Wagner's later operas. How well he was qualified for this task may be inferred from his reference to the second act of "Siegfried" (which pleases even the boxholders of our Metropolitan Opera-house) as music "in which a melody occurs only sporadically," and most of which is "repulsively tiresome." In one of his letters to Schott he expresses his surprise that that publisher should be willing to risk his money in printing the scores of the Nibelung operas.

—Prince Nicholas Galitzin, Keeper of the Archives in the Foreign Office, Moscow, in the second section of the *Annales Internationales d'Histoire*, Congress of Paris, 1900 (Paris: Armand Colin), deals with "The Question of the Emancipation of the Serfs under the Empress Catharine II." He asserts that this Empress was the first to raise the issue of liberating the serfs (but Maxim Kovalevsky, in a note, not only denies that Catherine had that honor, but calls attention to the fact that she imposed serfage in the South of Russia, which had hitherto been free from it); and gives a brief narrative of the rise and progress of that institution. Until her accession to the throne, Catharine II. was imbued with the ideas of Montesquieu, Rousseau, Voltaire, and the French Encyclopædists, and her first efforts were in the direction of complete emancipation; but she ended by doing nothing to ameliorate the condition of the serfs, because she did not know where to begin in practice, and

her attempts to apply her theories merely served to set all classes in an uproar, and to bring about some serious open revolts.

—More curious and interesting, in the same volume, is the article by M. Vinavert, a lawyer of St. Petersburg, on "French Influence upon Russian Codification under Nicholas I." The *Svod*, or systematic code of laws in Russia, in fifteen volumes, was prepared under the direction of Speransky, at the command of Nicholas I. Speransky had been the greatest statesman under Alexander I., admired everything French, and fairly adored Napoleon I., especially after the interview at Erfurt between the two Emperors, at which he was present. In 1810 Speransky elaborated a civil code which was, in great part, copied from the Code Napoléon. As the war of invasion of 1812 approached, his French sympathies—in particular this civil code—raised a tremendous storm against him, and in 1812 he was banished to a remote province and subjected to the strict surveillance of the police. In 1821 he was allowed to return to St. Petersburg, and appointed a member of the Council of State. When a section of his Majesty's Chancellery was formed, in 1825, to edit the Code, Speransky was not placed at the head of it, but the work fell into his hands, and his chief was warned by the Emperor that he would be held responsible for any actions in the line of those committed by Speransky in 1810—*i. e.*, for any copying from the French code; Russians being persuaded that they possessed, of native origin, everything requisite. But Mr. Vinavert has cleverly analyzed the Code prepared under these conditions, and finds that Speransky got his own way, after all, using half a dozen different devices to conceal his borrowings. Meanwhile, in his Introduction, Speransky asserted that "the articles of the code were set forth without the slightest change, in the very words employed by the ukases on which they were based"; and that "all our wealth in this line belongs to us by right, was acquired by us, and contained nothing borrowed." Mr. Vinavert explains, in detail, several of Speransky's disingenuous and baffling methods of procedure, and shows how, in many cases, the law, which was clear in the Code Napoléon or in Pothier, has been rendered obscure by the manner in which the Russian editors handled it. Mr. Vinavert's labors on this subject are very instructive and important.

—Prof. Ernest W. Clement is the Atlas supporting the little world of the Asiatic Society of Japan in the latest publication of its Transactions. Volume xxx., part i., contains but two papers, both by this author, one on "Japanese Calendars" and the other on "A Chinese Refugee of the Seventeenth Century." In more senses than one, the Japanese have plenty of time. They have solar, lunar, Japanese, Chinese, and Occidental time, two national calendars, and several chronological year periods or era-systems. Of the two vernacular calendars, one called Ki-gen (history-beginning) starts in the mythology of 660 B. C., and the other, Meiji (enlightened rule), began after the accession of the present Emperor Mutsuhito. The country people and most of the Buddhists still observe the old style of reckoning based on the twelve signs of the Chinese zodiac and the sexagenary circle, or period of sixty years. This "cycle of Cathay," in all its divisions and subdivisions, rests upon, or at least receives its terminology from, the ancient philosophy of China. The old Japanese hour was one hundred and twenty minutes long, and the order of numbering was not what to us is the logical order, one, two, three, etc., but followed a style of computation based upon the multiples of nine (1x9=9, 2x9=18, 3x9=27, 4x9=36, 5x9=45, 6x9=54), and in each case the tail figure of the product was chosen as the name of the hour (9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4). In announcing time by the bell, three preliminary strokes were always struck, in order to warn people that the hour was about to be sounded; hence, to avoid confusion, the numbers, 1, 2, 3, were not used. In most old Japanese clocks there was but one hand or pointer, which stood still while the dial went around it. Despite watches and modern clocks, it will probably take the average Japanese, of the thirty-five millions in the empire, several generations to get accustomed to such trifles as "minutes" and "seconds"—common words for which did not exist in the old vernacular, at a time when "punctuality was the thief of time." The full calendar for 1902 and the list of year periods from B. C. 660 to the present Meiji, with much interesting folk-lore and illustrations of the Zodiacal animals, are given. To his previous studies of the Chinese refugee scholars who fled to Japan on the fall of the Ming Dynasty, causing a renascence of learning something like that of the Greek scholars in Europe from Constantinople, Professor Clement adds another study of one who was a priest, a physician, and an engineer. The Transactions are to be had at the Librarian's Office, 56 Tsukiji, Tokio.

—The yearly consumption of morphine, cocaine, ether, and similar drugs grows out of proportion to the increase of population and to the legitimate demands of medicine. The vice of addiction to narcotics accounts for this. Its immediate consequences are less obvious than those of alcoholic intoxication, but have quite as disastrous ultimate effects, and their very elusiveness makes the slavery more inexorable. We may not discuss here its probable causes, and can only insist that the use of narcotic drugs is a fascinating peril, whose gravity increases with its charm, and from which escape by self-help is practically impossible. 'Morphinism, and Narcomanias from Other Drugs' (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co.) is the somewhat inexact title of Dr. T. D. Crothers's hospital and other experience, and his deductions therefrom, in book form. His warnings and his advice are good, especially as applied to the more mischievous poisons, and his general deductions may be accepted with confidence. But we can hardly commend this as a model book. There are lapses in construction, and especially there is frequent failure to give exact references when authorities are cited. The latter is apologized for in a general way in the preface, but the deficiency is none the less tantalizing when the reader wishes to consult the originals. Should the precise data have been lost, it would be quite worth while to recover them, as might easily be done through the superb Surgeon-General's Library and Catalogue. The following case is gravely made a part of the record (p. 303): "Some very curious instances of coffee intoxication have been reported. One, of a prominent general in a noted battle in the civil war: after drinking several cups of coffee he appeared on the front of the line, exposing himself with great recklessness, shouting and waving his hat as if in a delirium, giving orders, and swearing in the most extraordinary manner. He was supposed to be intoxicated. Afterwards it was found that he had used nothing but coffee."

## PAULSEN'S KANT.

*Immanuel Kant: His Life and Doctrine.* By Friedrich Paulsen. Translated from the Revised German Edition by J. E. Creighton and Albert Lefevre. With a Portrait. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. 8vo, pp. xix, 419.

Of the three "parts of the soul," as they used to be called, Sensibility, Energy, and Thought, Kant was decidedly deficient in the first and by no means a hero in the second. That he was genuinely great in thought would seem to be overwhelmingly proved by Vaihinger, from the manner in which he has commanded the attention of all subsequent thinkers. Yet very many of these thinkers, if not most of them, would hold Kant to have been wrong in almost every one of his arguments. Let us reëxamine his capacities in sensibility, energy, and thought.

As for sensibility, we call to mind a single passage in Kant's writings as having been admired æsthetically. It is the well-known parallel between the starry heavens above and the moral law within. That genuine eloquence must be attributed to this passage is sufficiently attested by the general admiration it has excited, for it clothes an ethical doctrine which, nakedly presented, would be repugnant to the majority of admirers of the passage. This seems to be the one passage in all Kant's writings that can really be called fine. Professor Paulsen is of opinion that Kant might have become one of the great writers of Germany. He gives sundry reasons for thinking so—such as that Kant's style is marked by great emphasis, that he has a goodly stock of fine phrases and no little ingenuity in bringing them in, and that his "waggishness" is strongly marked. There is no reason to suppose that Kant might not have made a good writer, like anybody else, had he been trained under a good master. Any exaggeration of tone would have been repressed, his elegant extracts dismissed, and his wit subjected to good taste. A good writer, of course; but whether a great writer, or not, is one of those questions of which Kant himself would have said that they transcend the limits of possible experience. Measuring his sensibility by known facts, we find that his style, though it has qualities which excite the gratitude of a student who many times rereads and deeply ponders every section, is devoid of any other grace than that of keeping to the point—is not even always grammatical. Kant never contemplated matrimony, and apparently was never in love. He never had an unreasonable attachment. Though for years he was a distinguished lecturer on physical geography, he was never moved to go to look upon a mountain, never even tramped to the neighboring sea, never saw other town than his own little East Prussian capital. In sensibility, then, Kant must be rated as below the average.

Energy is of two kinds; that which reacts upon the outer world, and that which inhibits one's own impulses. We must be careful not to mistake a deficiency of either kind for an excess of the other. Kant was never moved to any enterprising action, nor even to making any troublesome observations. On the occasion of his being reprimanded for his religious philosophy by minister and king, the little fellow meekly promised to say no more upon the subject. It is true that he was seventy years of age; but then he was a bachelor, without dependents, and by far the most illustrious person in Germany, not even perhaps excepting Goethe. He declares, in a well-known paper, that he has read Swedenborg's 'Arcana Cœlestia.' If he really did that, it was the most heroic effort of his life. He would have been better employed in reading Hume's 'Essays' or 'Treatise on Human Nature,' which concerned him more than any other books in the world; but Paulsen is quite right in saying that he never did read Hume in the sense of apprehending his meaning. It must be granted that Hume is an enigmatical writer. His so-called "easy" writing makes hard reading enough. It allows the superficial student to read into it ideas that the author never intended to express, especially the student unacquainted with what was going on in the English world of letters of the period. But take the ordinary traditional logic. A schoolboy can master that. Yet Kant's pamphlet on the 'Falsche Spitzfindigkeit' is devoted to setting forth as a novel discovery of Kant's own the very doctrine of the reduction of syllogism taught in every book of traditional logic. The only real novelties it contains are two or three absurd blunders. Kant probably did read Baumgarten's 'Metaphysica'; but one must doubt mightily whether he ever really read any other book of philosophy.

These things are most significant. In self-control Kant appears to be a prodigy. A man more systematic than he would not be reckoned among the sane. When, during his afternoon constitutional, he reached a certain corner, the good people of Königsberg would pull out their watches, not to see whether Herr Professor Doctor Kant was on time, but to see whether their watches were going right. His more important books were put together, as he expressed it, architectonically. That is, just as architects, until recently, used to insist upon designing buildings upon an arbitrary plan supposed to have certain merits, but not determined by the purposes which the buildings were to subserve; just so, Kant would enslave himself to an elaborate system of divisions and subdivisions—*Hauptheile, Theile, Abtheilungen, Bücher, Hauptstücke, Abschnitte,* and *Paragraphen*—laid down beforehand, not arising from the peculiar character of his theme, but supposed to be dictated *à priori* by reason and to be derived from the idea of pure reason. Such method either bespeaks extraordinary self-control or a singular defect of *élan*. Several circumstances besides Kant's apparent inability to read a work on philosophy somewhat incline us to the latter hypothesis.

At any rate, it was exclusively in the way of thought that Kant can be deemed great, if he was great at all. There are different kinds of thought: there is mathematical thought, that works by diagrams; there is the thought which, from observing a fragment, divines a whole; and there is logical analysis. Kant was certainly not a mathematician. In scientific theorizing, however, he was decidedly strong. He is accounted by astronomers the author of the Nebular Hypothesis. In his younger days, he was a physicist; and he always remained a physicist who had taken up philosophy (naturally, less strikingly so as his powers declined), contrasting in this regard with Fichte, Schelling, Hegel, and Schleiermacher, not to speak of Baader, Günther, etc., who were all theological students, and as strongly with Jacobi, Fries, Krause, etc., who came to philosophy by the route of theology; and even, more or less, with Schopenhauer, Herbart, Beneke, and all the others before Fechner and Lotze, who, at any rate, breathe rather the atmosphere of the seminary than that of the laboratory. Every scientific reader feels the philosopher of Königsberg to be of his kindred.

When we think of the stupendous amount of close study which intellectual men of every stripe have bestowed upon Kant, and when we ask ourselves, What is it, then, which has attracted all this attention? We are led to answer, it was his power of constructing a theory, which is the kind of intellectual feat that marks the man of science—the Young, the Faraday, the Darwin. We shall not, of course, be misunderstood as saying that constructing theories made any of them the great men that they were, any more than it did Kant. As a scientific man beneath the skin, Kant is comparatively free from the besetting fallacy of the philosophers, which may be described, without exaggeration, as consisting in producing arguments to prove a micron, at most, and in concluding a light-year, at least. Kant, perceiving in some measure this universal fault of the philosophers, was naturally led to his evident ambition to be the arbiter of philosophical disputes. But he could have exercised this office only in the weak manner of the Eclectics, allowing so much weight to this consideration and so much to another diametrically opposed to it, if he had not fortunately been gifted with a great strength in logical analysis, that enabled him at once to do full justice to the arguments and tendencies of both sides, and to make both contributory to a third unitary conception. Yet even his logical analysis would not have sufficed, if it had not been for a supereminent share in a characteristic that may be remarked in all the more powerful scientific intellects, the power of making use even of conceptions that resisted his logical analysis, and of drawing from them nearly the same conclusions as any clear mind would have done that had analyzed them. We cannot, in a few words, make our meaning very clear; but one might say that an ordinary intelligent mind has an upper layer of clear thought, underlaid by muddled ideas; while in Kant's mind there appears to be a pure solution down into those depths where daylight hardly penetrates. He thinks pretty correctly even when he does not think distinctly.

The volume under consideration contains a careful account of Kant's place in history, of his life and character, and of his philosophy, by one of the most accomplished and popular of the German philosophers of to-day. It is not a suitable guide for a beginner in Kant. The 'Critic of the Pure Reason' is, perhaps, as wholesome a book as a student of force could find with which to begin the study of philosophy. But the only accompaniment to it that is advisable at first is a textual comment. Such books as Paulsen's are best left for later perusal. We need not say that the student must not allow himself to imagine that in going through the 'Critic' for the first time without preparation he can understand Kant entirely, far less duly estimate him, until he has read the discussions which led up to the 'Critic.' Deeper students will find this volume interesting and convenient. It leaves hardly any question of metaphysics untouched.

We have said that it is drawn up with care. We will now give two specimens of its inevitable inaccuracies. In summing up Kant's historical position, Paulsen says that to have cleared the ground and pointed the way to a poetic naturalistic pantheism as the fundamental form of the conception of the world, is the imperishable service of Kant. This not only forgets that Lessing introduced "poetic naturalistic pantheism" the year before the 'Critic' appeared, and that its propagator, Goethe, was uninfluenced by Kant, but conveys the idea that Kant's importance is exclusively theological and poetical; and accordingly, in the summary of his philosophy, his scientific writings are left unmentioned, and, throughout, his relations to theology are made infinitely more important than his relations to what is generally called science. But Kant, as we have said, was, on the contrary, mainly a man of science—not oblivious of aspirations towards God, freedom, and immortality, but yet dwelling in the realm of experience; and his theory of cognition—its general design, at least, and some of its corner-stones—still stands, as far as scientific thought is concerned, firmly established. Under these circumstances, and since he himself was not a pantheist, it is unjust to sum him up as a forerunner of what he condemned.

The following is an example of another kind of inaccuracy. On p. 147 we read:

"How synthetic judgments *à posteriori* can have actual validity seemed to him to be no problem at all. If he had raised the question, it would have shattered the whole structure of the 'Critique.' He would have been forced to reply that there can be no such judgments; synthetic judgments *à posteriori* are a *contradictio in adjecto.*"

Compare this with the following from page 8 of the 'Critic of the Pure Reason':

"In synthetical judgments, I must have, in addition to the concept of the subject, A, something else, X, upon which thought may react, in order to cognize a predicate, B, as belonging to A, although not a part of it. In empirical, or experimental, judgments there is no difficulty in fulfilling this condition. The X is merely the complete experience of the object of the concept A, which is but a part of that experience. [Having expanded this remark very clearly, he concludes]: Experience, then, is that X which extends beyond the concept A, and upon which the possibility of the synthesis of the predicate B with the concept A is founded."

We thus find that Kant does consider the very problem which Professor Paulsen says he does not consider. He does not, indeed, consider it in all its branches, but he does so quite sufficiently to show that his answer, had it been more complete, would have borne not the slightest resemblance to the absurdity which Professor Paulsen says he would have been drawn

into. The answer that Kant gives is easily susceptible of natural expansion to cover every possible phase of the question, quite in opposition to the theological logicians of Germany. Kant looked upon such questions as a clear physical thinker would—that is to say, in a manner of which Professor Paulsen has not the least conception.

We will add one word concerning the title of the 'Critik der reinen Vernunft.' The word *Kritik* already existed in German, meaning a critical writing. But Kant declares, with all his emphasis, that that is not the word he uses. He borrows a word from the English of Hobbes and Locke, and spells it (in his first edition) with a C. He used it, as the English writers had done, to mean the art or science of criticising. Since this word *critic* exists in our language in that meaning, and is, in fact, the very word Kant borrowed, while the word *critique* is English, if at all, only in the sense against which Kant almost violently protests, the first word of the title should be restored to its English form 'Critic' in translation.

In the best philosophical use of English words, "reasoning" is a well-known operation of a mind, and "reasoning power" (or, less well, "reason") is the faculty of performing it. "The Reason" is a totally distinct faculty by which we are supposed to know the truth of first principles. "Reason" means nothing more nor less than conformity to the best result of deliberation. Kant, not being insane, did not propose to criticise Reason. Neither did he criticise the Reasoning Power, unless to approve it in one paragraph. But what he chiefly criticised and had reference to in his title was the faculty of knowing first principles, *The* Reason. Consequently, his book, the 'Critik der reinen Vernunft,' is a work concerning 'Critic of the Pure Reason.'

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*The Lower South in American History.* By William Garrott Brown. Macmillan. 1902. Pp. xi, 271.

The three papers which give title to this volume of essays are an interesting attempt to exhibit the conditions, social, economic, and political, which characterized the lower South between 1820 and 1860, and which caused it to exercise during that period so marked an influence on the course of national affairs. Between the lower South and the upper South there were, as Mr. Brown points out at the beginning, marked differences. The society of the lower South, from South Carolina to eastern Texas, was, to be sure, sprung largely from Virginia and Carolina, but it was a selected stock of energetic men to whom the material conquest of a new and wonderfully fertile country was an attractive task; and when, with the retirement of Monroe, the ascendancy of Virginia came to an end, the influence which Virginia had wielded in national affairs was taken up and continued, not by New England or the newer West, but by the "Black Belt." It is this vigorous and masterful society that Mr. Brown, unable to see, in the pictures of it drawn by such writers as Cairnes and Olmsted, "a true likeness of that which was," has endeavored to analyze and weigh.

The illustrative State with which he particularly deals is Alabama. In 1850, at the end of thirty years of Statehood, Alabama had a population of about three-quarters of a million, three-sevenths of whom were slaves. The 335,000 slaves, however, were owned by less than seven per cent. of the white population, while less than ten thousand whites owned three-fourths of the negroes. The average annual value of the cotton crop, the principal product, was $20,000,000, practically all of the cotton going to New England or to Europe. While thus contributing largely to the prosperity of the East, the cotton States also offered to the West the best market for corn, bacon, and mules, not even the most progressive planters always growing food enough for their own demands. In the "concentration of land and slaves in fewer hands, in the greater immediate profitableness of agriculture, and in the greater rapidity with which lands were exhausted" (p. 37), the industrial life of Alabama and the lower South was marked off with most distinctness from that of Virginia. The poor whites in the hills and sand barrens were a class apart, apparently as unaffected by slavery then as they are by freedom now. Among the planters, a high degree of religious interest accompanied a small measure of intellectual concern. The best men in Alabama went into politics, though without a resulting marked predominance of the planter class. Government was democratic, after the Jeffersonian order of democracy; "governors and legislators were chosen from various social ranks; many prominent men were distinctly of the self-made type" (p. 44). It was a social régime that bred personal ability and masterfulness, and developed powers of business organization, while the patriarchal character of its home life long continued to have, alike for strangers and those who lived under it, an undeniable charm.

What the representatives of the cotton States in Congress stood for was,

> "not slavery alone, . . . not agriculture alone, but the whole social organism, the whole civilization, whose decay in Virginia had been arrested by the rise of the States from which they came. They were committed to the maintenance, in the most progressive country in the world, of a primitive industry, a primitive labor system, and a patriarchal mode of life. They held that their main industry could be successfully prosecuted only with slave labor, and while it was so prosecuted it tended to exclude all other forms of industry. Its economic demands were imperative; its political demands were hardly less imperative. Economically, it demanded that the fewest possible restrictions be placed upon the exchange of its two or three staple products for the products of other countries, and that it be permitted to extend itself constantly to fresh lands. Politically, it demanded protection from criticism and from social and humanitarian reforms and changes" (pp. 57, 58).

In this contention the lower South could count on the support of Virginia and the upper South, and had little difficulty in making allies among the manufacturers of New England and the farmers of the West. The first clash over protection showed the firmness of the cotton States, though the majority of their public men were too strongly devoted to Jackson and the national idea to follow South Carolina into nullification; and the Walker tariff of 1846 was "more clearly in accordance with the principles of free trade, more clearly contrary to protectionist ideas and devices, than any other tariff law since 1789" (p. 66). The same determination to defend a system was shown in the effective opposition to internal improvements, while the absence of cities caused the South to take a "country view" of public finance, to favor State banks, with a currency easily expanded at harvest time, and to oppose a national bank. Yet, although on all these points the influence of the lower South was against the development of a strong national Government, the majority, probably, of the great planters, at the division of the old Republican party, became Whigs rather than Democrats.

The primary cause of the final struggle Mr. Brown finds in the differing mental and moral habits of the sections. It was, he says,

> "the belated concern of the Northern mind about the things of the spirit, not its absorption in material enterprises, that boded ill to the plantation system. It was the North's moral awakening, and not its industrial alertness, its free thought, and not its free labor, which the Southern planter had to fear. The New England factory made no threat, the town meeting did. The Northwestern wheat farms and pork-packeries and railways were harmless; but Oberlin College and Lovejoy's printing-press and the Underground Railway were different. . . . [The true danger] was in that freedom of individual men which had made the North prosper, and in that national feeling, that national theory of the Government, that national antagonism to whatever was weak or alien under the flag, which had resulted from the development and the denser peopling of the North. The final conflict came only when these things were thrown clearly into competition with the picturesque Old World social system, the limited nationalism, the unprogressive industrial contrivances of the South for the occupation of new lands" (pp. 88, 89).

Yet, as Mr. Brown points out, while the South struck at abolition, not only because abolition was hateful to it, but also because, if it would preserve its own social structure, it could not do anything else, it did not stand on the defensive alone. There was a vigorous counter-movement in favor of slavery to offset the Northern denunciation of it. From the standpoint of the Southern leaders, the presence of the negro in the South could be met only by keeping the negro in subjection and building a society with slavery as one of its foundations. Such an adjustment of race relationships as Mr. Bryce has lately spoken about, in which the superior race shall grant to the inferior the full measure of actual equality before the law, seemed to the men of the South fifty years ago, as it seems to many of their descendants to-day, too visionary to be seriously worth trying.

Of the remaining papers in the volume, three—on William L. Yancey, "the orator of secession," on the resources of the Confederacy as set forth in Professor Schwab's recent book, and on the Ku-klux movement—appeared originally in the *Atlantic*, and were favorably commented on at the time. The others, entitled respectively "A New Hero of an Old Type," and "Shifting the White Man's Burden," are printed now for the first time. The "new hero" is Hobson, whom Mr. Brown, apparently writing from personal acquaintance, praises with much rhetorical warmth and glow. The subject of the other is the disfranchisement movement in the South, in which Mr. Brown, though anxious to do justice to the motives of those responsible for it, naturally finds no solution of the race question in its political phase, nor any progress towards free government. In so

far as the movement is a recognition of actual conditions and an attempt to bring the law into harmony with the facts, it may, in Mr. Brown's opinion, result for the time being in a better conduct of affairs; but the primary difficulties which it at present contemptuously ignores will surely return to vex alike the whites and the blacks.

The value of Mr. Brown's rather sketchy papers lies mainly in their suggestiveness. They do not make any considerable contribution of fact, but disclose some interesting points of view. Taken together, they are stimulating and helpful attempts to deal fairly and broadly with a period and region of which, in spite of all that has been written, we still know very little. The observations are keen as well as sympathetic; critical and discriminating as well as broad. The style, too, though often artificial and over-picturesque, is entertaining and very readable. Altogether, Mr. Brown's book is not only worth reading, but even more worth pondering.

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*Matthew Arnold.* By Herbert Paul. [English Men of Letters.] The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This is a surprisingly poor addition to an excellent series. The wonder is not that Mr. Paul should have written such a book, but that he should have been afforded the opportunity. Among English men of letters none more than Matthew Arnold needs a skilful, conscientious, and highly qualified biographer. In many respects the typical English man of letters, with an engaging temperament, in which traits of the poet and the critic, the idealist and the agnostic, were subtly interfused, living a life of multifarious literary activity closely allied to most of the significant tendencies in Victorian opinion, Arnold might have been made the subject of a really notable brief biography, a fitting conclusion to the set. Instead of this, we have, in the present volume, a stiffly constructed work, wherein, between the summary chapter misnamed introductory and the conclusion, are comprehended seven chapters of desultory narrative, followed by a series of essays upon "Mr. Arnold's Philosophy," "Mr. Arnold's Theology," "Mr. Arnold's Politics."

The texture of the book is jejune animadversion—Mr. Paul's assertion of his own opinion against Mr. Arnold's on points of rather unimportant detail. He reiterates endlessly that Arnold's unrhymed lyrics are "detestable," but gives no reason, and the reader is not convinced. He points out and quotes the "gems" of certain pieces, but nowhere catches or imparts the peculiar flavor of Arnold's poetry in his best and most characteristic manner. He nowhere firmly exhibits the singular effectiveness of Arnold's poetic work as a whole, so largely the result of applying the cool and careful methods of classic art to the expression of the troubled mood of the mid-nineteenth century. The chapter upon "Mr. Arnold's Theology" is equally inadequate.

At times, indeed, Mr. Paul puts forth a remark of considerable suggestiveness and insight. The dictum that "Mr. Arnold has the gift of seeing his own faults without seeing that they were his own," is excellent, despite its trickiness; and there is much pertinence in the reminder, apropos of Arnold's attitude toward dissent, that "the religious freedom in which he so lavishly indulged was secured for him by the objects of his constant gibes." We are grateful for the delightful story of the Bampton lecturer, who passionately adjured his hearers: "I beseech you, brethren, by the mercies of Christ, that you hold fast to the integrity of your anthropomorphism." Unfortunately, such good things are the exception. The writing is, in the main, quite in the author's wonted manner—flat and jerky prose, relieved by occasional smartnesses, but lamentably devoid of the *ordo concatenatioque veri* for the "pedantry" of desiring which he pokes ill-advised fun at Arnold.

Errors in taste are accompanied by errors in fact. We find, for example (on page 51), the statement that the Oxford professorship of poetry was founded in 1808. It was, as a matter of fact, founded by the will of Henry Birkhead, who died in 1696. It may be, however, that this minor discrepancy should be referred to the demon of misprint, for Joseph Trapp, styled by a contemporary "an ingenious, honest gent," became the first incumbent in 1708.

It is hard to know just what impression of Arnold's personality a reader unfamiliar with his life would derive from the book. Mr. Paul so constantly keeps his finger on the wrong place, so continuously avoids analysis and pursues minor faults, that the running reader is likely to conceive Arnold to have been a learned, but intellectually temerarious and often frivolous person, whose chief business in life was to make mistakes. In fact, at times Mr. Paul seems to pause for fear lest he make Arnold appear too insignificant a subject for his abilities as a biographer. At such times he is prone to remark that Arnold was, after all, a genius. There is, moreover, a good deal of misplaced praise that is even more irritating than the fault-finding to the true lover of Arnold. We hear a great deal of Arnold's learning, and are told that, "next to Milton, he was the most learned of English poets." A scholar, in a fine sense, he certainly was; but is there any true sense of "learning" in which Arnold was not less learned than such poets as Ben Jonson, or Southey, or even, one is disposed to add, Mr. Swinburne? The fact is, that Arnold was a man of ideas rather than of erudition. He was blessed with a certain beneficent singleness of mind. He kept strictly to the high road of literature, with rare side excursions to the shrine of some minor writer of "distinction." The "hundred best books" were his province. It was this limitation of the field, this renunciation of the more devious coverts of true humanistic learning, that had much to do in begetting the "sad lucidity" of Arnold's poetic art, and in forming the critical method and manner which make his work of permanent importance to a literature in which "sweet reasonableness" is a perennial issue.

Something of this is stated in Mr. Paul's conclusion, but it scarcely avails to counterbalance what has gone before. The final impression is one of hopeless confusion. All of this goes to show that in biography, as in life, the mood of admiring sympathy is better than the mood of superiority for getting at the real nature of a man.

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*Savings and Savings Institutions.* By James Henry Hamilton. Macmillan Co. 1902.

The subject here treated, as the author remarks, has not received the attention that it deserves. The desire of man to better his condition, and especially to give his children advantages which he did not enjoy, is the most potent factor in civilization. It flourishes even under misgovernment, and is not extinguished by war, pestilence, and famine. To examine the manifestations of this desire in the form of institutions is certainly a praiseworthy undertaking.

We cannot speak very favorably of the manner in which this examination is here carried on. The author appears to be ignorant of the causes which lead to the establishment of savings banks in some places and not in others, and to believe that Government can cause savings to be accumulated where they are not now made. He seems to suppose that the deposits in the institutions established under the auspices of the European governments represent capital that would have had no existence had not these institutions been provided. Such an inference is fallacious. In an agricultural country land is altogether the safest and most profitable investment for the savings of those who are in active life, and loans secured on land are the best security available to those who depend on the income from invested capital. It is only where large accumulations of capital exist that institutions for its investment are required.

The scheme for the reception of small deposits by the Post-office is superficially attractive. If men were induced to save by making it convenient for them to deposit their savings, such a scheme would be highly satisfactory. No doubt the existence of facilities constitutes a motive for their use; but the virtue of providence is chiefly due to other considerations. It is a comparatively small matter to receive deposits; to invest them—*hic labor, hoc opus est.* A Government, it need not be said, is incompetent for this task. There is not a national Government which has not at one time or another cheated its creditors, and some of them have repudiated whole issues of their bonds. Every one knows the financial standing of Turkey, of Greece, of Spain, of Italy. Austria is only beginning to emerge from insolvency; whether Russia is solvent or not, who can tell? France has so loaded itself with debt that it would certainly be bankrupted by another war, and England and the United States have each recently invested a thousand millions in the pursuit of empire, from which no pecuniary return can be expected.

By far the greater part of all existing public debts has been incurred in war or in warlike preparations, and there is little reason to hope for better things in the future. But if a Government assumes control of the savings of its subjects, it can invest them, generally, only in its own obligations. The French Government has recently compelled the savings banks to turn over their deposits to the Treasury—an abominable act of oppression. The British Government, some years ago, undertook to pay depositors in its savings banks 2½ per cent. interest. But it invested these deposits in consols bought at such prices as do not produce that interest, and the depositors are thus paid a bonus at the expense of the taxpayers in general. No private bank could or would adopt such a policy, and when the Brit-

ish Government had assumed this responsibility, it went to war with the Boers, and impaired the value of its consols one-fifth. It owes the depositors in the savings banks really more than their investments amount to, and in that department of the finances is probably insolvent, judged by the standard of private commercial morality. Doubtless consols will now rise; but what would have happened if the issue of the war had been different? What will happen if a general European war breaks out?

The author of this book has collected many facts concerning building associations, insurance, and the various methods of saving and of caring for savings. His accounts, however, are not sufficiently complete to be very satisfactory, and he does not succeed in getting a comprehensive grasp of his subject. But his aim is laudable, and this essay may lead to others of a more substantial character.

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*The Ethical Treatises of Berachya*, Son of Rabbi Natronai Ha-nakdan; Being the Compendium and the Masref, now edited for the first time with an English translation, etc., by Hermann Gollancz, M.A., D.Lit. London: David Nutt. 1902. Pp. lvi, 362, 154.

*The Improvement of the Moral Qualities.* An Ethical Treatise of the Eleventh Century by Solomon Ibn Gabirol, printed from an unique Arabic MS., together with a Translation and an Essay. By Stephen S. Wise, Ph.D. Columbia University Press. 1901. Pp. 120, 47.

The awakening of the East is affecting not the living only but the dead as well. Books supposedly laid to their rest long ago, over whose dusty graves the drums and tramplings of many conquests have passed, are being brought forth into a new life as immortal (through the kindly art of the printer) as any sublunar life may be. Not so many years ago such a resurrection would have seemed a pious dream, but the utterly impossible is steadily coming to pass, and these sheeted dead, often strangely and uncomfortably enough, are beginning to move in twentieth-century life. For the Muslim East its mediæval scholars and sages, so awakened, still have kinship of aspiration and habit of mind; but in Europe, for all our rigors of historical science and *pietas* towards the founders and transmitters of our thought, there is almost a Hamitic element in the exposure of the nakedness which oblivious time itself had perhaps more wisely veiled. The soaring geniused few who, by the universal within them, were kin to all the ages, may have nothing to fear; but the little men who clung and groped around them, who understood the masters so little and were yet so confident, so definite, and so particular—for them there is great pity in this awakening.

Such dismay and sore puzzlement would surely have befallen Berachya if he, like his books, had come to life again in our time. A worthy man, come of a family of Massoretic scribes and probably in youth plying that art himself, he—so Dr. Gollancz has with singular skill and acuteness reconstructed his life—must have turned early to the science of the time and translated a 'Lapidarium' of most miscellaneous stone-lore and the 'Questiones Naturales' of Adelard of Bath—that queer dialogue between an uncle and a nephew on the respective values of eastern and western methods; both probably through the French. Later, it would seem, he took up ethical philosophy as accessible to him in Hebrew, French, and Latin. Arabic he plainly did not know; the new life which was to come from it through the families of Tibbonids and Kimhids, was only just beginning. Last of all, he, like so many of his time, wrote fables. These he managed so to dress in easy Scriptural Hebrew, barbed with Biblical allusion, that they have remained, and with them his own name, very much alive to the present time. Practically, up till now, Berachya has been Berachya of the fables. Round them has centred the burning question of his place and date. He himself has been only a name, or rather several names, and some witty Hebrew fox stories. Mr. Joseph Jacobs, after his wont, had a fantastic hypothesis that he was a certain "Benedictus le puncteur," a Jew of Oxford who was mulcted by Richard I. towards his ransom. But this hypothesis was smitten sorely by both Neubauer and Steinschneider, and now Dr. Gollancz has very fairly demonstrated that Berachya was really of Languedoc, one of the brilliant circle gathered in the twelfth century at Lunel round the Jewish Mæcenas Meshullam.

This he has done by bringing into court and publishing the present ethical treatises. For themselves, it must be confessed that these are of a phenomenal dulness. They are a rehash of sections from the great work of Saadya, the Gaon—from whom, indeed, all Jewish ethics dates and comes—in part straight, in part mingled with matter from Ibn Ezra, Bahya and Ibn Gabirol. All these he knew in the older Hebrew translations only; to the broader Arabic culture he had no access. And thus, as a link in the chain of ethics, he is frankly valueless. His line ends with him. The intellectual energy which sprang from Ibn Gabirol's 'Fons Vitæ' did not reach him, though it reached and affected Europe down to the Renaissance; he appears even to have known nothing of Halevi or Maimonides. In ethics his face was set backwards into that past which is so unintelligible to us; only by the art of his beast fables can he have part with modern men. We may therefore rejoice at Dr. Gaster's promise of an edition of them. We shall learn from it what relation, if any, Berachya had to Marie de France, and what part he played in the whole Isopet development.

In Dr. Gollancz's own work only one point seems open to criticism. That is the *obiter dictum* that the old translation, so long ascribed to Berachya himself, of Saadya's 'Amanat' was made in the East. When we consider that learned Oriental Jews wrote regularly in Arabic and that the ordinary language of the masses of Oriental Jews was Arabic, it is hardly explicable how such a translation could have there been called for. In Spain and Italy the case was different. There a Hebrew version would be required as soon as the book was known.

With Ibn Gabirol the matter stands otherwise. He would be no uneasy ghost in modern life. If his Hebrew poems, and especially the "Kether Malkuth," give him part in the devotions of the synagogue, his 'Fons Vitæ'—the authorship of which was so long ascribed to a shadowy *Doppelgänger*, Avicebron—connects with the Muslim neo-Platonic school, and puts him in the great line of philosophical development that runs from Plato and Aristotle to our day. His influence was heavy on Duns Scotus and Giordano Bruno, and from them has passed on. But the present ethical treatise gives little suggestion of his weight as a thinker. In spite of independent flashes, it is of the old type, and evidently formed part of his more public writings as distinguished from the esoteric tractates in which his real opinions were given out. Dr. Wise does not seem to have appreciated this economy of teaching which characterized all Arabic philosophy, nor to have divided sharply enough this book from the 'Fons Vitæ.' The two have little in common; they are intended for quite different audiences. As to details, it is a pity that the Arabic text—the first edition of the original, though there have been many of the Hebrew translation—should have suffered so in printing. The diacritical points have been too often broken away, and the text would be hard to read if its vocabulary were not of a well-worn monotony. Dr. Wise, too, might have paid more attention to the vowels; they seem sometimes to be scattered in at random. Further, his translations, especially of the verses, might often be improved. Ibn Gabirol, whether sincere or insincere, was worthy of more care. Finally, the remark on the *Todtschweigen* of Ibn Gabirol will hardly hold. Berachya, though of the steadiest orthodoxy, quotes him repeatedly.

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*A History of Greece to the Death of Alexander.* By J. B. Bury. Macmillan. One volume. 1900. Library edition; two volumes. 1902.

In the preface to his first edition, the author intimates that the work is intended not only for the general reader, but also for use as a text-book in universities and schools. He writes under the conviction that those histories which are capable of enlisting the interest of mature readers are best also for informing younger students. This perhaps would be a sound view, if it were only practical; but, at least in America, secondary teachers universally demand short, simple books; and even college instructors say that they find works of the compass of Holm and Bury too detailed for use as texts. Another opinion of the author, as to the superior usefulness of a one-volume history, must have been modified somewhat by experience, else we should not now have his far more attractive "library edition" in two volumes. The new edition omits the cuts, but retains the maps and plans. Of the few changes in the text, the most important is that which notices the progress of the Cretan excavations. "The other chief additions are a fuller account of the diplomatic transactions between the peace of Nicias and the first battle of Mantinea, a short biographical notice of Herodotus, and a clearer statement regarding the character of Thucydides as an historian." It is difficult to understand why the author ended with the death of Alexander; the broad view of Greek history now prevalent ought to have influenced him to continue the work to the beginning of the period covered by his 'Later Roman Empire.'

Mr. Bury is favorably known to classical scholars by his edition of Pindar, and to students of modern history as the editor of the "Foreign Statesmen" series. His 'History of the Later Roman Empire' is a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the neglected period which it treats, and his 'Student's Roman Empire,' though scarcely more than a compilation, has served a good purpose in bringing to the English reader the views of Mommsen as to the early imperial Constitution. The breadth of the field in which Mr. Bury works, however, prevents him from being a specialist in anything. It is true that he brings to the preparation of the present history not only his long experience as a writer and editor, but also the broad, sympathetic knowledge of Grecian literature rarely found except in the professor of Greek, and a good acquaintance with the best modern authorities in his field. Yet he is wanting in that mastery of the material which distinguishes Busolt, Holm, and others who have devoted their lives to this one subject. In everything excepting literary form and expression he lacks originality. In his treatment of Athens the influence of Wilamowitz-Möllendorff appears on nearly every page, but the greater part of his work seems to be drawn from Busolt's exhaustive history. He goes so far as to take credit for suggestions offered years ago by Busolt. For instance, in volume ii., p. 474, the suggestion as to the original application of *pentacosiomedimni* was made in 1891 by Busolt (Philol, l, p. 396), and repeated in his history (ii., p. 182, n. 3). In such cases Mr. Bury's memory is doubtless at fault. It is a question, on the other hand, whether the kind of work he does is just toward the original investigators. After the Germans, with infinite toil, have advanced historical science in a given field, is it fair that an English writer, competent to handle every subject in the ancient or modern world with equal brilliancy and success, should leisurely reap the fruit of all their labor? In the instance before us, it is highly probable that, had the works of Busolt and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff been translated into English, Mr. Bury would never have attempted a history of Greece. But the fault is not his alone; the custom of preying upon German scholarship is so general that we have become hardened to the injustice of it.

Mr. Bury's work has enabled the English reader to think the thoughts of the most advanced German specialists in the field of Grecian history. For instance, he does ample justice to the merits of Herodotus; he calls attention to the partisan attitude of Thucydides toward the leaders of the Athenian democracy; and he appreciates the part taken by Themistocles in the making of Athens. Had he followed the principles of historical inquiry more strictly, he might even have acquitted the great Athenian statesman of the charge of bribery, as Eduard Meyer has done. Following Köhler, Mr. Bury dares in one case to prefer the authority of Aristotle ('Constitution of Athens') to that of Thucydides. To scholars of like mind with Mr. Evelyn Abbott, this judgment will doubtless appear sacrilegious. These conservatives will find our author heretical on so many other subjects that we may expect to see them putting their ban upon his work and denouncing him as no true historian of Greece.

In the early part of the work Mr. Bury shows little evidence of dependence on German scholarship, but leans rather upon those English archæologists who are directly interested in the Cretan excavations. An archæologist, it is to be noted, is as a rule an untrustworthy historian. In the historical interpretation of his "finds" he indulges in the most fanciful speculations; two or three facts furnish him with material for a whole chapter of "history." Taking his clue from the English archæologists, Mr. Bury attempts to follow in minute detail the fortunes of the Pelasgians, Achæans, and many other races through the third and second millennia B. C. Nearly all that he says about primitive Greece might possibly be true; it is easy, however, to imagine a hundred other ways in which the movements and the development of the primitive races might have taken place. Had these speculations appeared in a paper rather than been prefixed to a history, whatever value they may have would not thereby have been diminished, and the public could more quietly await the judgment of the sober historian as to the bearings of the recent discoveries.

The weakness of this first chapter is not confined to the interpretation of archæological material, but in various respects the treatment is unscientific. The founders of cities whom we have long regarded as legendary, Mr. Bury considers historical. In his view, Ilios was named after "King Ilos, who perhaps was its founder." Similarly, he supposes that whenever two cities of Greece are found with the same name, one must be a colony of the other. The truth is, that identity of name does not of itself prove connection of any kind. His reasoning, too, from later to earlier conditions is often faulty. "The Javones," he says, "were a people who had settled on the coasts of Argolis and Attica, but there the name fell out of use, and perhaps passed out of memory, until on Asiatic soil it attained celebrity." There is in fact no historical hint that those early people of Argolis and Attica called themselves Javones—it is nothing more than a possibility. But history is something more than a chain of possibilities; and if we are to have a history of early Greece, it must be based on a more scientific method than is to be found in the present work.

As a whole, Mr. Bury's history answers to a need which could have been better supplied by the translation of certain German works into English, but this limited value can hardly be more than transient.

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*The Alps in 1864:* A Private Journal by A. W. Moore, edited by Alex. B. W. Kennedy, F.R.S. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1902. 8vo.

Moore's Journal has long been one of the most sought of the rarities of Alpine literature. It was written for the author's own amusement, privately printed for the pleasure of his friends, and is now offered to the public, fifteen years after Moore's death. Moore was a remarkable man, about whom the world knew nothing. For many years he was the soul of the India Office, where he came to occupy a high position. He was Lord Randolph Churchill's confidential assistant. He was a silent official who exercised great influence over his chiefs. All who knew his work agreed that he was the beau-ideal of a civil servant. He died of overwork. This book is his only monument, except the warm remembrances of his friends. The Alpine Club was largely made by him. He was its organizing mind at a critical period. Moore took part, and a very important part, in many of the first ascents described in Whymper's 'Scrambles.' Whymper described them picturesquely; Moore's descriptions are written with all the accuracy and clearness of an official dispatch. If there are books that can be described as Alpine classics, Moore's book should stand high, perhaps at the head of the list. It would be impossible to write such a book on the Alps now. The freshness is gone from the climbers' hearts; the Alps have become *vieux jeu*. Hence the possible permanent value of this book. It may live long after those who knew the author and admired or loved him have all passed away.

The new edition is well printed, carefully edited, and beautifully illustrated with choice heliogravure reproductions of photographs by the editor and other well-known Alpine specialists.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, F. P. In Cupid's Court. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord.
Benton, C. E. As Seen from the Ranks. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Black, B. N. Primer. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Beylié, L. de. L'Habitation Byzantine. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
"Chauffeur." Two Thousand Miles on an Automobile. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Chesterton, G. K. The Defendant. London: R. Brimley Johnson; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Clark, Kate U. Up the Witch Brook Road. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Conrad, Joseph. Typhoon. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Corelli, Marie. "Temporal Power." Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Craddock, C. E. The Champion. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Crane, Elizabeth G. The Imperial Republic. The Grafton Press.
Decennial Publications of the University of Chicago: (1) Starr, Frederick. Physical Characters of Indians of Southern Mexico; (2) Klenze, Camillo von. The Treatment of Nature in the Works of Nikolaus Lenau. Chicago: The University Press.
Glasgow, Ellen. The Voice of the People. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Hall, J. L. Judith, Phœnix, and Other Anglo-Saxon Poems. Silver, Burdett & Co. 75 cents.
Hall, Ruth. A Downrenter's Son. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Higgins, Elizabeth. Out of the West. Harpers. $1.50.
Industrial Conciliation: Report of the Proceedings of the Conference Held under the Auspices of the National Civic Federation. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Joyce, J. A. Brickbats and Bouquets. F. Tennyson Neely.
Kauffman, R. W. The Things that are Cæsar's. D. Appleton & Co.
Lawton, W. C. Introduction to the Study of American Literature. Globe School Book Co. $1.
Matthews, Brander. Aspects of Fiction. New ed. Scribners. $1.25.
Merriman, H. S. The Vultures. Harpers. $1.50.
Metcalfe, Cranstoun. Fame for a Woman. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Molina, Julia W. Mingled Sweets and Bitters. Abbey Press. $1.50.
Naylor, J. B. In the Days of St. Clair. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.50.
Patterson, Ada, and Bateman, Victory. By the Stage Door. The Grafton Press. $1.50.
Pfungst, Arthur. A German Buddhist. London: Luzac & Co. 2s.
Pidgin, C. F. The Climax. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co.
Price, Lillian L. Wandering Heroes. Silver, Burdett & Co. 50 cents.
Riley, I. W. The Founder of Mormonism. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Sabin, E. L. The Magic Mashie, and Other Golfish Stories. A. Wessels Co. $1.
Sadler, M. E. Special Reports on Educational Subjects, Vols. 10 and 11: Education in the United States of America. London: Wyman & Sons.
Sayre, T. B. Tom Moore. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Scudder, Vida D. Introduction to the Study of English Literature. Globe School Book Co. $1.20.
Super, O. B. Thiers' La Campagne de Waterloo. Silver, Burdett & Co. 40 cents.
Supino, J. B. Fra Angelico. Florence: Alinari Bros.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
The Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe. (Virginia Edition.) Edited by James A. Harrison. 17 vols. T. Y. Crowell & Co.
Villari, Luigi. Italian Life in Town and Country. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Wyatt, Lucy M. L. Constance Hamilton. Abbey Press. 50 cents.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 18, 1902.

## The Week.

It is not so much the case itself as the fact that there *is* a case before the Hague Tribunal that is significant. For a year and a half the International Arbitration Court has been duly constituted, but until recently has had no international dispute brought before it for adjudication. There was some danger that its very existence might be forgotten. We are glad that it has fallen to two American nations, Mexico and the United States, to make the first appeal to its jurisdiction. The case of the "Pious Fund" is a very pretty quarrel from every legal point of view, and it is not so important but that the decision may be accepted without any strain upon the loyalty of either nation. This promises that the first session will be of considerable interest, and that the judges will have the great advantage of proceeding imperturbably without regard to ulterior embarrassments. As for the Pious Fund, its story is a curious one. Originally a private benefaction, it was administered by the Jesuit missionaries of California from 1697 to 1767. After the expulsion of the Jesuits it was transferred to the Franciscans, from whom the new-born Mexican Republic took it, guaranteeing however, by way of indemnity, the payment in perpetuity of 6 per cent. on the capital to the church authorities. "Perpetuity" and the payments stopped abruptly with the cession of California to the United States, and now the church in California sues the Mexican Government for arrears of interest amounting to about $1,000,000. Certainly, a case which involves three changes of custody and one of sovereignty should put the quidnuncs of the Hague Court on their mettle. But these jurists are doing more than to settle a curiously complicated case in equity, they are passing upon the first case ever presented to a permanent international tribunal. They have a hand, we believe, in a historic event, the magnitude of which future generations will acknowledge more fairly than we, with our heritage of international mistrust, can hope to do.

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Evidence of bad faith on the part of Mr. John Mitchell in his recent statement that no response was given by the coal operators except a vague intimation that there was nothing to arbitrate, has come to hand since our comments last week. It now appears that President Baer replied by telegraph on the following day in a perfectly civil way, and at considerable length, giving the reasons why Mr. Mitchell's proposal could not be complied with. The reply was accompanied by an offer to open the books of his company to examination by experts appointed by the miners' organization, which he said would show that it was impossible for his company to pay higher wages. This was an important fact, and it relieves Mr. Baer from the charge of treating Mr. Mitchell and the miners' organization in a contemptuous manner. It is much to be regretted that the public were not promptly informed of these facts. The foregoing perversion of the most important incident connected with the strike casts suspicion on all Mr. Mitchell's statements, and compels impartial onlookers again to question the justice of his cause. Meanwhile, the collapse of Gov. Stone's mission makes it certain that the strike will go on until the miners surrender. A communication from Mr. Markle, one of the independent operators, says, in the most emphatic terms, that no political party will attempt to interfere with the anthracite situation — an affirmation which Gov. Stone's withdrawal tends to support. Mr. Markle says, also, that the great majority of miners would gladly return to work now if they were not in fear of violence from the lawless minority. If that is the state of affairs, the strike cannot last many days longer, and when it is broken, the anthracite miners will probably have less use for Mr. Mitchell hereafter.

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We feel that Gov. Stone of Pennsylvania is justly criticised for his attitude toward the coal strike. He was not in a position to arbitrate the dispute, nor could he promise such aid to either party as would shorten the contest. The talk of convening the Legislature was malapropos when one considers that the Pennsylvania lawmakers are primarily in the hands of the capitalists, and, secondarily, afraid to do anything to offend organized labor. This backing and filling would ordinarily be harmless enough, but at the time when common sense dictates a return to work, a complete reorganization of the anthracite workers, and a fair conference between the operators and their several mine forces—to hold out even vaguely the hope of State interference was to do the miners a wrong. Furthermore, to prolong the period when the unionists are beginning to feel the pinch of want and the operators are gradually opening the mines with non-union workmen, was to incur grave peril of serious disorder. In fact, the whole episode suggests that the political settlement of last year's coal strike, while it may have been immediately advantageous, was as a precedent deplorable. The steadily increasing production of anthracite, estimated at 130,000 tons for the past week, is the sure sign that the operators are winning. When the strike is over, it will be time to point out the vices of organization that made Mr. Mitchell's campaign hopeless from the first.

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President Roosevelt has once more rebuked an army court-martial. This one failed in its plain duty properly to convict and sentence Capt. James A. Ryan, Fifteenth Cavalry, for cruelties inflicted upon Filipinos. His particular form of amusement was standing people on their heads and immersing them when they refused to give him the information he desired. The court acquitted him on all specifications except one, of which they found him guilty "without criminality," and let him off scot free. The speech which he made to the court in his own defence should alone have brought a severe sentence upon him by reason of its disgraceful tone, and its plain proof that he lacked the self-control and good judgment indispensable to any officer exercising an important separate command. The President merely disapproved the sentence without giving reasons, which is regrettable. This is the fifth or sixth case in which the final reviewing officer has found fault with the verdict of the courts-martial trying officers for cruelty, and Gen. Chaffee's and the President's disagreement with the sentences inflicted in almost every case should convince even the most unthinking defender of the army that it needs a radical toning up of its ethical standards.

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It occasionally happens that a statesman, not before accused of familiarity with finance, suddenly blazes forth into an amazing display of facts and figures. Such displays are impressive to the untutored public which has not been supplied with the latest "Trade Bulletin" of the Bureau of Statistics. But these documents contain pitfalls for the statesman, because the Bureau often takes for granted some elementary knowledge of the former trade conditions, and therefore leaves fundamental facts untold. Into this pitfall Senator Beveridge abruptly descended in his speech at Ogden, Utah, on Thursday, when he demonstrated how our appropriation of the Philippine Islands was the cause of the whole expansion of our recent trade in the Orient. "Since we acquired these islands, American exports to Asia and Oceanica have risen from $43,000,000 to $120,000,000." Certainly; that is, if we acquired these islands in the fiscal year 1896, which is the period selected by Mr. Beveridge for his comparison. Had he taken the trouble to inquire, the Bureau could have supplied him with other bulletins, showing that $24,000,000 of this increase, or nearly

one-third of the total gain between 1896 and 1902, occurred in the two years before the war with Spain. The regular monthly publications of the Bureau would have further shown that, of the $54,000,000 increase since that war began, $12,000,000 has occurred in exports to Australia, and $15,000,000 in trade with China, neither of which, it would seem, has yet been annexed to the United States. Another interesting line of inquiry, which it might have been safest for Mr. Beveridge first to pursue, is how much an American army of 72,000 quartered in an Oriental archipelago and supplied by this country with its necessaries and luxuries, is taken account of by genuine statisticians in drawing conclusions as to permanent trade developments.

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The Republican literary bureau took counsel on Saturday on the subject of endorsing Roosevelt for nomination in 1904, and decided that it would be best to do so. This course was foreshadowed by the *Sun* on Saturday morning, which gravely rebuked the *Times* for objecting to that policy. The *Sun* thought that such an endorsement of President Roosevelt's aspirations would be "quite as proper, natural, and legitimate as those aspirations themselves." The literary bureau came to the same conclusion later in the day, but did not put its reasons in writing, preferring to leave them to the public imagination. Some reasons for not doing so were handed to the reporters in an exculpatory way. It was unprecedented to pledge delegates two years in advance. It was impossible to bind men who were not yet chosen to represent the party in the national convention. Of course; and so much greater is the merit of doing it. *Credo quia impossibile est.* Not only was the impossible done, but "there was no recrimination," says the bureau, in doing it. We are fully prepared to believe this statement. How could anybody recriminate when Platt had had a talk with Roosevelt beforehand and the subject had not been mentioned between them? Under such circumstances Platt could come to the meeting in an impartial state of mind. He could say that reflection had convinced him that it would not be wise to leave the question of endorsing Roosevelt for 1904 to the delegates to be chosen at the convention of that year, or even of the present one, but that it would be best to decide it at the Fifth Avenue Hotel now, and to decide it in the affirmative, and without recrimination. He must feel greatly relieved now that he is rid of such weighty responsibility.

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It is quite evident that Dr. Joseph Struthers of the United States Geological Survey is not a politician. If he were, he would not introduce into his report on the production of borax in the United States figures showing the profits of the international borax combination. That combination has been cited, the reader will remember, as one example of a tariff-protected monopoly fattening at the public crib. When, under a tariff of five cents a pound, borax selling in England at two and a half cents brings seven and three-quarters cents per pound here, it is no wonder that the Borax Consolidated, Limited, can report "a very favorable business for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1901." Net profits for that year were £190,278, which is something more than 13½ per cent. on the capital of £1,400,000. As business goes, that is more than a legitimate profit, and every cent of the excess was filched, with Government aid, from the pockets of the American consumers.

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When the last of the war taxes were swept away by the Act of April 12, 1902, the estimated reduction in yearly revenue was $72,500,000. The June appropriations for the new fiscal year footed up, by the committee's official statement, $19,700,000 above the drafts of the year before; this without reckoning in the provision for the Isthmian Canal. On the basis of the last fiscal year's results, the outcome for the fiscal year 1903 should have been a very close levelling of revenue to expenditure; for the smaller internal revenue and the increased expenses would, between them, cut down the annual surplus $92,000,000, and $92,000,000 was exactly the surplus reported for the fiscal year 1902. These facts are now in point, because on September 10, for the first time in the new fiscal year, the total revenue since July 1 exceeded total expenditure. The public surplus, from which, in July, $7,500,000 more was paid out than in 1901, is now rising again at exactly the pace of a year ago. If customs receipts continue to increase at the present rate, the year's surplus revenue, despite the $41,000,000 reduction in 1901 and the $72,500,000 cut in April, will exceed both last year's and that of the year before. With the war taxes now removed in full from the public schedules, it would certainly seem that the next pruning process must be in the customs duties.

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A novel, but seemingiy effective, means of breaking up the collection of political assessments from State employees has been discovered in Illinois, where recent exposures have revealed the fact that for years 5 per cent. of the wages of members of the State civil service has been deducted by the disbursing officers and turned over to a committee, to be used for political purposes. The employees were supposed to consent to this deduction, and the money extorted was said to be the result of "voluntary contributions." Before the light of publicity was shed on the scheme, no member of the civil service dared to complain; but after the exposures a State employee came forward and sued the disbursing officer for the return of the money deducted, making Gov. Yates a party to the action. There was a hurried consultation at Springfield, and a representative was sent to the court with an offer of payment in return for a discontinuance of the suit. This was agreed to after the representative of the Governor and his associates had paid costs amounting to $5 in addition to the sum demanded by the employee. A statement was then given out as coming from Gov. Yates, declaring that the 5 per cent. collection would be discontinued, and that any employee who desired his money back could get it. Few employees are likely to respond to this invitation, for their future is still in the hands of the extortioners, but the assessment scheme is evidently checked, temporarily at least, and public sentiment may now force the Legislature to enact proper laws preventing this abuse.

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Although New Hampshire Democrats cannot win, they have done the next-best thing by deserving to win. They have nominated a Gold Democrat for Governor, and have placed him upon an old-fashioned Democratic platform—the kind of platform on which the Democrats triumphed under Cleveland. There is no halting in their position on the tariff issue, not even at the half-way house of "Tariff Reform." They declare for a tariff for revenue pure and simple, the only logical reason for the existence of a tax—and if that means free trade, why, make the most of it. This, coupled with a demand for the immediate abolition of all tariffs on Trust-made articles, with expressed opposition to subsidies, and with demands for reciprocity to Cuba and independence for the Philippines, makes a platform on national issues which is commended to Democratic conventions in other States. There was not a word about silver or about Bryan. This was no violent wrench for New Hampshire Democrats, however. In May, 1896, they had declared in convention for the gold standard, and had commended President Cleveland for his firm stand in maintaining the public credit in the face of formidable opposition. Four months later they adopted the Chicago platform "as authority for party action on all political subjects," but they did it with wry faces, and they shied at 16 to 1. They continued to be "regular" Democrats in 1900, but again with no specific mention of silver, and now they have proclaimed their independence of Bryan and Populism. They are pointing the only way to Democratic success in 1904, and probably the only way to relief from public taxes for private pockets.

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After eight years of political wandering, Senator Teller appears to have landed safely within the ranks of the Demo-

cratic party. Speaking to a Democratic convention in one of the Colorado counties the other day, he said: "I came here particularly to connect myself in the most public manner possible with the Democratic organization." Now the Colorado Democrats have completed the circle by declaring that they "recognize Senator Henry M. Teller as one of the greatest of the nation's living statesmen," and by formally nominating him to succeed himself in the United States Senate. Mr. Teller was first elected to the United States Senate when Colorado was admitted to the Union, taking his seat in 1876. With the exception of the period from April, 1882, until March, 1885, during which he served as Secretary of the Interior in President Arthur's Cabinet, his membership in the upper branch of the national legislature has been continuous. His course has always been exceedingly erratic, but there seems to have been method in it, too, for otherwise he could hardly have succeeded in stemming the peculiar tide of Colorado politics which has submerged so many other men. When he tearfully walked out of the Republican National Convention in 1896, he seemed to be severing the associations of a lifetime, but this appears to have been the only course which could have kept him on the top of the wave. The next Legislature, which was to choose his successor, was controlled by an overwhelming majority of Fusionists, and Senator Teller was reëlected, receiving 94 out of the 100 votes on joint ballot. Whether his latest venture will prove as successful, remains, of course, to be seen.

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In showing, in his speech at the Buffalo State Fair, the effect on Greater New York of the abolition of the direct State tax, Gov. Odell brought out some comparatively new points which are of undoubted interest. If it is true, for instance, that this city actually pays some $4,000,000 less of the State tax under the indirect system than it would under the direct, this is worthy of note and attention. The general belief, we think, has been the contrary. New York city, however, does not complain of the amount she is called upon to pay for the support of the State government. At present her chief interest in the regulation of the State finances centres upon the question of whether or not the policy of exclusively indirect taxation for State purposes can be maintained. Granting that $17,000,000 will be raised this year for the State by the indirect levies, $5,000,000 at least remains to make up the $22,000,000 of expenditures. This year this sum can well be provided out of the surplus, which now amounts to more than $8,000,000. But what of next year? Can the indirect taxes be increased by so large an amount, or the expenditures further reduced? These are questions which must be answered before we indulge in complete satisfaction over the abolition of the State tax, however great the benefits of the change if finally and permanently effected.

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One of the familiar moves, in relieving a tight money market through the Treasury, is the paying, ahead of time, of interest on Government bonds. To this expedient Secretary Shaw has resorted, as his predecessors, on similar occasions, resorted before him. It is obvious enough that the relief thus provided can be but temporary. The four millions paid this week against accruing October interest will give the present money market more cash than it could otherwise command; but two weeks hence the market will, to the same extent, receive less than it normally should look for. In other words, the sole virtue of "interest-anticipation" rests on the assumption that the strain itself is temporary. There is some ground for this belief to-day. The banking community expects that the market will very soon be relieved by import of gold from Europe. In such case the Treasury's payment of interest somewhat ahead of time would serve to bridge over the period between now and the arrival of relief from other quarters. We doubt whether much tangible relief can be had from the plan of inducing national banks to use their unpledged Government bonds as a basis for increased public deposits. The amount of bonds thus held is trifling, and they are not, as a rule, held in the larger city markets, where relief is at present needed.

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From the Treasury's report on the country's foreign trade in August, published on Monday, some light is thrown on the Government's drain of money from the markets, and on the question of relief through imported gold. Last month's total merchandise imports, free and dutiable, though very large, have been frequently exceeded, even in the present year. But the month's import of dutiable imports alone has only once been equalled in the last dozen years. Returns for July, the last month for which full details have been published, showed a rather noteworthy distribution of the increase over 1901. A $2,200,000 increase in import of iron and steel goods had been foreshadowed by the state of the domestic iron trade. But such further increase as $500,000 in import of cotton manufactures, chiefly from Germany, and $700,000 in import of silk goods, mainly from France, has a more novel interest. It raises the question whether Europe may not be now exerting itself to recover some of its lost trade in this country. As for the August export trade, that, it is true, once more shows heavy decrease. But it is nevertheless to be observed that the whole of the decrease was caused by the fall in agricultural shipments. In this direction improved conditions are near at hand.

The extraordinary proposals of the Boer Generals at their recent conference with Mr. Chamberlain would give grounds for deepest apprehension if it were any question of formal demands. Fortunately, the conference on the Boer side was merely a dicker, in which the size of the "asking price" was proportioned to the expected abatement. Such a way of opening the negotiation shows a thrifty Dutch spirit, perhaps; but the calm disregard of the peace articles signed at Vereeniging was extraordinarily presuming. It was puerile to suppose that the British would agree to reappoint all Boer officials, or, failing that, to pension them; that the conquering nation would assume the entire debt, including that caused by the late war, of the conquered republics; and that indemnity would be granted to the Boers for the ordinary damage of war. To hear such proposals must have put Mr. Chamberlain's *sang froid* to the test. That he has learned much since he first began to deal with Boer officials, his admirably calm reply showed conclusively. He had the grace to take the presentation of the Boer case with absolute seriousness, to argue from the historic precedent of reconstruction after our civil war, and to maintain courteously the essential liberality of the terms granted at Vereeniging. This required tact, and was carried off, if one may judge from the dispatches, with sincerity and eloquence. The next Boer proposals will doubtless be drawn up with the peace protocol at least remotely in mind.

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A recent letter to the London *Times* describes the Prussian law against offensive advertising in the country. The act, which was passed at the last session of the Landtag, is remarkable in several respects. It regards, first of all, the mere disfiguring of natural scenery as sufficient ground for action. This is a considerable advance upon the opinion of the English and American courts, which still incline to limit the right of restrictive legislation in the matter of signs by the usual considerations of public health and safety. This attitude of the courts has made it very difficult to restrict advertising nuisances in the country. In Prussia the offence to the eye is frankly regarded as a nuisance. Furthermore, the act is permissive, not obligatory. The influence of the central Government in Prussia, however, will be exerted to make the local governments take appropriate action under the general law. It is an admirable feature of the law that it leaves each community free to live up to its best lights, giving absolute authority to each to decide what kind of advertising constitutes a disfigurement of the landscape, and to prohibit absolutely advertising in scenery of great natural beauty. This power to reserve "particular spots and areas" would mean much to an American town.

*THE SOUND OF A VOICE THAT IS STILL.*

What the President has said in his stumping round, everybody knows—or might have known. What he should have said but has not, is less generally recognized. Mr. Roosevelt's popularity has come of the general conviction that he scorns expediency and speaks stoutly the thought that is in his heart. It is on this account that he is largely freed from the necessity for perfunctory utterances, and may more strictly be judged by his words than is customary with those in great place. It may well have occurred to him—after his recent peril—to ask how, in case that untoward accident had had another ending, his score of speeches in New England would have weighed with Mr. McKinley's last address at Buffalo. When Mr. McKinley pleaded the cause of international fraternity at Buffalo, he did not rest in vague generalities, but advocated the negotiation of reciprocity treaties. Mr. Roosevelt has been speaking on the subject of Trusts without a single recommendation more practical than that of a Constitutional amendment, and in complete disregard of that most relevant matter—the relation of the tariff to the Trusts. This has not previously been Mr. Roosevelt's way.

But before we point out the President's omissions it will only be fair and right to recall what he actually said during his tour in New England. He made in all twenty-four speeches which were reported in the *Tribune*. Three of these—those at Providence, Boston, and Fitchburg—were weighty deliverances on the subject of Trust regulation. Two minor addresses were also devoted to this theme, by way of explanation and reassurance. The other nineteen speeches were given up to what might be called occasional and general eloquence. The Monroe Doctrine did service twice. Praise of the army and navy, laudation of the President's colleagues in the Cabinet, defence of the policy of expansion were the themes of six addresses. Under aspects of patriotism, then, we may range eight. The remaining eleven utterances were devoted to practical and transcendental morality, including the nurture of children, the obligation to be an honest citizen, a good citizen, a courageous citizen; the duty of using prosperity with discretion; the joys of Republican brotherhood, and the privilege of equal laws; finally, eulogy of the public service of the Hon. Thomas B. Reed. Now we have no inclination to judge the President harshly for his commonplaces—often the theme was set for him by the place or the day; but would not the intelligent foreigner, following these speeches through the *Tribune* files, be likely to fall into the error of believing that the framing of emphatic platitudes is Theodore Roosevelt's way?

His omission of the words tariff revision from a discussion of the Trusts may have its reasons. He may be going on the theory of one thing at a time, and saving the words for Western consumption. If so, we think he is mistaking his tactics. The country should know his attitude. If he believes that the tariff does not foster Trusts, let us hear that; if he believes that a Constitutional amendment is the readiest remedy, let him at least explicitly reject the other remedy, which many of his own party have proposed. Does he not realize that he is at any hearer's mercy? Suppose some Western Republican asks in open meeting, "Mr. President, what of the tariff-protected Trusts?" Will it be easier to meet that question then in confusion of spirit than it is now to answer it manfully and once for all?

But the failure to take a position for or against tariff reform is, it may be said, at worst a lapse of logic. The failure to plead the President's own cause, the cause of justice and generosity to stricken Cuba, comes perilously near to being a lapse in honor. Nothing is more painful to a sincere well-wisher of the President than to notice the fading from his mind and heart of the most urgent cause now before the American people, a cause he had made peculiarly his own. At Hartford, in his first New England address, he spoke on the matter in terms which were painfully inadequate. Four days later he touched briefly upon the same matter at Lowell. There may have been other instances too passing to be reported, or so casual as to have escaped our notice, but his wholly incidental deliverance at Hartford is the most elaborate presentation of his chosen cause which he saw fit to make in a region ever hospitable to generous emotions. He said of Cuba:

> "She must be in a sense part of our economic system. We must expect her to accept a political attitude towards us which we think wisest both for her and us. In return we must be prepared to put her in an economic position as regards our tariff system which will give to her some measure of the prosperity which we enjoy. We cannot, in my judgment, avoid taking this attitude if we are to persevere in the course which we have outlined for ourselves as a nation during the last four years; and, therefore, I believe that it is only a matter of time, and I trust of a very short time, before we enter into reciprocal trade relations with Cuba."

These words are mild and judicious; they are adequate—if one were deliberating the renewal of a pew rent. From Theodore Roosevelt, on the subject of Cuban reciprocity, they are of chilling import. Can it be that he has accepted Secretary Shaw's dictum, that reform is "academic"—a matter to be deferred to the fulness of time, which is the Greek Kalends? Is this the voice of Theodore Roosevelt and his thought?

When all efforts to relieve a nation ordained to adversity by our negligence fell through in Congress, when the fears and hatreds of politicians and the machinations of the beet-sugar ring balked what the President had declared to be a measure of duty and honor—then we were told that Theodore Roosevelt would appeal over the heads of the wranglers direct to the voters, and we believed that his voice would as no other penetrate to the very conscience of a generous people, and compel the politicians to sullen assent in right-doing. Now the fight is waging; a popular demand for Cuban legislation must be created now while the Congressional elections are pending, or never—and Theodore Roosevelt, whose voice should have given heart to this fight, is silent, or rather he appeals against the Trusts to the national pocket, studiously avoids an appeal to the national honor, and pays off his audiences with vague counsels to do good. Does he not know where his strength lies? Can he not see that the love that the West gives to the man who speaks his own mind could not survive the suspicion that Theodore Roosevelt is playing politics? Finally, does he mean to face the possibility of the battle for Cuba won without him? And can he, in victory or in defeat, wish to brook from those he should have captained, Henry of Navarre's taunt to Crillon, "Go hang yourself, my good Crillon! We fought at Arques—and you were not there"?

*OLD LIGHTS AND NEW IN CANADA.*

Sir Wilfrid Laurier recently said to his French hosts at Lille, "Our political relations are broken, but our commercial relations may be resumed. I saw to-day with my own eyes the characteristics of manufacturing France. You have, Messieurs, an open market in Canada, and I flatter myself with the hope of seeing in France an open market for Canadian products." The whole address was notable for the tact with which a French-Canadian Premier of a British colony maintained his loyalty to his sovereign while grudging no affection to those of his race; but it was chiefly significant because it showed that the opportunist leader of the Canadian Liberals had turned towards the old lights of the party, had set himself against the protective idea, and bound himself to facilitate international commerce with the Dominion.

The suggestion of a reciprocity treaty with France implies that Sir Wilfrid would refuse a greater British preference than the present 33⅓ per cent., and will not raise the tariff schedules generally—for, of course, no reciprocity convention could be negotiated when either party had radical tariff changes in prospect. Sir Wilfrid Laurier must be congratulated upon having taken his stand firmly, and in time. He would have been under increasing pressure to adopt in behalf of the Canadian manufacturer a policy of tariff exclusion towards the rest of the world. The Manufacturers'

Association raised last August its cry of "Give! give!" and the manufacturing lobby is potent at Ottawa. It was accordingly the part of wisdom for the Premier to meet and beat the protectionists before Parliament should assemble.

There is every sign that the bold policy has been the good one. Mr. Israel Tarte, to be sure, the Minister of Public Works, has been talking protection, at the Toronto Industrial Exposition, and the Conservatives have tried to make the casual utterance of a man whose opinion is of little weight seem like the beginning of a Liberal faction. There is no less influential voice in the Cabinet. Even more indicative of the response of the country to the old Liberal doctrine of a revenue tariff is the fact that Mr. Borden, the Opposition leader, in stumping the Northwest, has dealt as lightly as possible with protection, taking refuge in such random topics as Chinese exclusion, and insinuations as to Sir Wilfrid Laurier's loyalty. Mr. Borden knows—and the Premier knows—that the farmers of the Northwest have no intention of paying through the nose that the manufacturers of the centre and east may prosper unduly. When the Manufacturers' Association formulated its demands at Halifax, the Winnipeg *Free Press* reminded its readers that tariff revision must mean not increase, but reduction.

In fact, for a country that seemed to be sunk in all manner of fiscal heresies, Canada has been hearing a great deal of sober truth lately, and apparently has been taking it in. Sir Edmund Barton, fresh from Mr. Chamberlain's Conference of Colonial Premiers, recently said to the Toronto Board of Trade: "An imperial zollverein would be simply a dream. . . . Free trade between the different parts of the Empire would cripple the revenue of each part of it to such an extent that she could not carry on her internal affairs. We can leave it outside the ring fence of practical politics." If Canada needed any further argument against undertaking on her sole account a policy of exclusion which would prove disastrous even to an Imperial Federation, she might find the philosophy of the whole matter set forth in that ably conducted journal, the Toronto *Globe*. It says in a recent issue:

> "If under any scale of duties the industries of a country are prospering, higher duties cannot be justified even on grounds of expediency. The country has now been for five years under a tariff very considerably lower than that which prevailed in the previous seventeen years, a period amply sufficient to test the efficacy of high protection. The prosperity of our industries under the low tariff has far exceeded that enjoyed under the high tariff. The result is that the extreme protectionists are forced back upon the idea of retaliation pure and simple. The United States will not buy our goods as freely as we buy theirs. Therefore we must cut down our American imports until something like equality is established. Germany has made some foolish discrimination against Canadian wheat; we must, therefore, aim to strike a blow at Germany. In this way the word protection loses its meaning. *What is sought is not the protection of our own industries, but the injury of somebody else's.*"

The real political strength of the protective policy—hatred and distrust of the foreigner—is here admirably described. For signs that Canada is learning to repudiate the principle of hatred, all her friends should be grateful.

But it might be asked, What does it signify to us across the border that Sir Wilfrid Laurier and his Liberals have found their bearings? It signifies this, that since the danger of retaliatory legislation is over, the way lies open to a reciprocity treaty which nothing can now prevent but the dulness or the cowardice of our own Government. The time is ripe for all who are materially or disinterestedly concerned in the cause to agitate. There are feeble voices from New England manufacturers who seek Canadian markets, and stronger demands from the milling companies of the North which naturally cannot see why Canadian grain should not come to their hoppers. Many thousands of our own citizens are working the new farms of the Canadian Northwest, and should be shippers to their former neighbors. In short, the Manitoba line is likely to prove the weakest point in the "Chinese wall." It is there that the breach should be made. But the wood-pulp industry also will at no distant time be in straits for raw material which Canada produces abundantly. Those who see clearly the rights of the present and the needs of the future in this matter have still a terrible body of ignorance and prejudice to combat; but it should somewhat hearten our downcast Democrats to see that their traditional tariff policy is likely to prevail in Canada. The stirring in our own West is significant. Our farmers are beginning to see dimly what the farmers of Manitoba and the more northern provinces now see clearly, that trade should be as free as possible. This feeling could find no more fitting expression than in bettering the tariff relations between ourselves and our Northern neighbor.

## *THE NEW YORK CANAL QUESTION.*

Slowly public attention is awakening to the fact that we have a canal question which must soon be brought before the Legislature, and most probably be submitted to popular vote. The press of Buffalo teems with articles on it, and that of the rural districts is taking more and more interest in it. The press of New York city has hitherto been rather hard to move when the subject has been mentioned—a fact due, perhaps, to the prevailing lethargy of the summer months. In order to impart some zest to the discussion hereabouts, the Canal Association of Greater New York gave a dinner at Delmonico's on Thursday evening, at which the newspapers were represented in a private way, and where the canal question was discussed in brief speeches by persons familiar with it. The only mistake made at this dinner was in excluding reporters. The speeches, although mostly impromptu, were of a high order of merit. A full report of them would have been very useful in the way of enlightening the readers, as well as the makers, of newspapers.

Usually the first question asked by one who seeks enlightenment on the canal question is, "What is your plan? Are you in favor of a ship canal or a barge canal? Do you want merely the Erie Canal enlarged, or the Oswego and Champlain Canals also? What is the probable expense of the work, and how is the money to be obtained?" These questions may be answered with a fair degree of certainty now. The men who are seeking to convince the people of New York that canal enlargement is a wise and economical policy for the Empire State aim to have the Erie Canal, from Buffalo to Albany, so improved as to admit barges of 1,000 tons capacity, which can assemble in fleets of four to six under one motive power. They assume that this work can be executed at a cost of $60,000,000, as tabulated in the report made to Gov. Roosevelt by the committee of which Gen. Greene was chairman. Whether the Oswego and Champlain canals should be included may be left for after-consideration. We observe that some papers in the interior of the State favor a ship canal around Niagara Falls, and an enlargement of the Oswego Canal as a much cheaper line, cutting off two hundred miles of canal work and shortening the time for completion of the work, as well as the time for making the passage after it is completed. Under this plan there would be no breaking of bulk at Buffalo. The same ships that bring cargo from the Western lake ports would carry it to Oswego.

The next question most commonly asked is, "Why do you want the canal at all? Have you not sufficient avenues of communication now?" On the answer to this question everything else depends. It was affirmed by responsible members of the Produce Exchange at the dinner on Thursday evening that the means of transit between the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic Coast are insufficient to do the business which already exists; also that vexatious delays in the transmission of freight in large bulk are of frequent occurrence; that a "car famine" exists, and is sure to continue throughout the autumn months, and that these conditions are likely to become more aggravated as time progresses. The productiveness of the country increases from year to year, not merely by bringing new land under the plough, but by more scientific methods of tillage and by new discoveries and inventions in all departments of industry. The things to be moved are multi-

plying faster than the means of transit. The best, if not the only, way to meet the want is to enlarge the waterways of the country. Of these the Erie Canal is the most important one East and West, unless the St. Lawrence River may be considered its rival. The St. Lawrence, however, is not a route by which New York city can reap much profit.

If this difficulty did not exist—if the means of transportation were already sufficient—there would still be good reasons for putting the canal in a state of the highest efficiency. The railways are rapidly passing under the control of a small number of men. By means of centralization, or community of interest, or Trusts, they are likely to cease competing with each other. Then the only sure regulator of freight charges will be found in the waterways of the country. The Erie Canal has served the people well in this particular in times past. It has had an influence on freight charges on bulky commodities not merely between the great lakes and the Atlantic, but between the Mississippi and Missouri valleys and the Gulf of Mexico. Of late, however, the improvements in railway equipment have placed the canal at such a disadvantage that it has lost most of its former power as a regulator, and will soon lose the whole unless it is put abreast with the improvements in other means of transport. When it ceases to be a competitor, competition itself will cease, and the people will have to pay such prices as the railways may choose to charge. It is no answer to say that the rates have been going down steadily for a quarter of a century. They were not reduced voluntarily, but because competition was active and the managers could not help themselves. We are now contemplating a situation, which seems not far distant, when real competition shall cease to exist.

The reason why New York city is particularly interested in canal enlargement is that, under the differential charge which the railways make against this port, we are losing our relative importance as a grain market. The differential is an extra freight charge on grain coming to New York for exportation, intended to offset our superior advantages. We have the lowest railway grade across the Appalachian range, the best harbor, the largest and fastest steamers, the greatest amount of capital, and the prestige which all these things give. So the railways terminating at other Atlantic ports say to those terminating at New York, "You must charge more than we do for carrying grain to the seaboard in order to balance your advantages, natural and acquired, since otherwise we cannot carry our share of freight." Commodore Vanderbilt, representing the New York Central, refused to comply with this demand. The result was a railroad war of three years' duration, which inflicted enormous losses on all parties. He was compelled to yield, because his rivals had no choice but to continue the fight. The differential against New York still exists, and nothing can ever remove it except the enlargement of the canal.

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### *AN APOLOGY FOR NEWPORT.*

Mayor Garretson of Newport has issued a serious and even heated answer to Col. Henry W. Watterson's comments upon the "smart set" of that city. Obviously, Mr. Garretson is unfamiliar with Col. Watterson's mode of speech. The valiant Colonel has, as Matthew Arnold said of Macaulay, his own "heightened and telling" way of saying things, as a result of which the Kentucky style in journalism has long been recognized as a close rival of the justly famed "Oregon style." When Col. Watterson calls the society leaders "Cyprians and debauchees," he probably means to convey the impression that, although for their characters in general he has the highest esteem, candor compels him to admonish them for occasional lapses into pardonable frivolity and extravagance. Since we have so often expressed our admiration of the simple elegance of Newport entertainments, we feel constrained to offer an apology for Newport, less acrimonious than Mayor Garretson's, and therefore more likely to convince the Kentucky editor of his error.

Putting even the most favorable interpretation upon Col. Watterson's remarks, we can see that he does not wholly understand the point of view of a member of the "smart set." His ideal man seems to be one who spends no more than half an hour a day in dressing, and an hour and a half at his meals. Such a man, driven with business from dawn to dark, disregards the niceties of his toilet, sickens at the idea of being fussed over by a valet, chooses his waistcoats at haphazard, and often—*horribile dictu*—buys his trousers ready-made. While eating, he chats busily with his friends or his family about his latest deal in stocks, the doings of his sisters, his cousins, and his aunts, and about President Roosevelt's views on Trusts. Unless he is dyspeptic and pampered, he fails to notice whether the mayonnaise dressing contains just enough red pepper, he cannot detect the difference between native and imported champagne, and an hour after dinner he has clean forgotten what the ice-cream was flavored with.

If Col. Watterson, who is, we take it, a typical member of this sturdy bourgeoisie, were invited to dine by Mrs. X. at Newport, he would say to himself: "Yes, I remember, she married the corespondent. Her present husband doesn't know enough to go in when it rains, and his friends are equally imbecile. In order to keep them from yawning in each other's faces, Mrs. X. will provide a stupid vaudeville entertainment that I wouldn't be hired to listen to. I shall be tired with my day's work, and I'll be hanged if I'll sit through three hours of stuffing with such a crowd." Accordingly, he would write a polite note of regret. Would he be prompted by the stern moralist's desire to frown upon dubious Mrs. X., or simply by an ordinary human wish to escape an evening of infinite boredom?

But let Col. Watterson imagine himself one of the "smart set," and view the situation more sympathetically. He will have time to spend at least two hours a day in dressing, and even more in thinking about his clothes; no wonder if he grows finical about cravats and shirts. He will devote four or five hours to his meals. Since he has made no deal in stocks to talk about, since the doings of his sisters, his cousins, and his aunts are as uninteresting as his own performances, and since he is incapable of comprehending President Roosevelt's views on Trusts, incapable of discussing any public question, he is driven to think about his food. The red pepper in the mayonnaise becomes the chief concern of his life.

When he receives the invitation from Mrs. X., he also remembers her past, but he says, "Poor woman, she is trying to lead a decent life, and why should I put a stone in her path by refusing her dinners? Besides, all my friends will be there. We shall have one of those jolly and clever vaudeville performances. She has the best cook in Newport, who makes the most delicate mushroom sauce I've ever tasted. Going to the dinner will at any rate be something to do." Accordingly he accepts. Is he prompted by a charitable desire to rescue Mrs. X. from her unhappy past, or by the average man's wish to avoid perishing of ennui?

No, members of the "smart set" are as human as Col. Watterson and the rest of us. They live up to their best lights, and Col. Watterson's only just ground of complaint is that those lights are not very bright, and they are not exactly the same as his. All this so-called laziness and extravagance, for example, are very easy to explain. If a man has an income of $1,000,000 a year, he is really bothered to find ways of spending it on himself and his immediate family. To go to work and earn more is simply to heap up additional trouble, for he will not only have a larger income, but less leisure in which to get rid of it. While Col. Watterson studies to secure the largest return for his expenditure, the problem of the idle millionaire is to secure the least return. He naturally devotes the whole of his energy and intellect to devising the most costly methods of disposing of his surplus. Of course, Col. Watterson, with his wider outlook and greater abilities, could beat the idle

millionaire at his own game. Col. Watterson would doubtless found colleges and libraries, would build hospitals and museums. All this is very well, but it is beyond the mental range of the "smart set." They are earnestly doing the very best they know how. What more can Col. Watterson ask?

Then, too, the charge that Newport is haughtily exclusive and refuses to recognize anything except money, is wholly groundless. Never was there a society more eager to welcome what it regards as brains. It is only a year or so ago that a young champagne agent acquired a reputation for the easy wit and repartee that everywhere marks the commercial drummer; and instantly all doors were open to a man who, in the set in which he now moves, is held to be a miracle of cleverness. There is not the slightest question that Newport would be equally hospitable to authors, artists, and such intellectual fry if they would consent. The trouble is not that the "smart set" is exclusive, but that other people are.

We trust that these few words will clear up the misunderstanding in the minds of Col. Watterson and other harsh critics of Newport; and that we shall have proved that the simple and guileless children of wealth who try to be happy at Newport deserve from the rest of the country not blame, but sympathy and pity.

## *SCIENCE AND THE COMMON WEAL.*

One of the most striking features of the nineteenth century was the rapid increase of population, especially in the most highly civilized countries. From 1801 to 1900 the population of the earth grew from 900 or 950 to 1,558 millions, or considerably more than 50 per cent.; but this increase was due mainly to the growth of the population during the same period from 170 to 510 millions in Europe, America, Australia, and other lands settled chiefly by Europeans. At the time of William the Conqueror, in 1086, the population of England and Wales was 2,150,000; six centuries later it was 5,500,520, and in 1800 only 8,500,520; but from 1801 to 1901 it rose to 32,500,000. In Germany the increase was from 24,800,000 in 1816 to 56,300,000 in 1900; and in France, where the growth of population is relatively slow, it was from 27,300,000 in 1801 to 38,400,000 in 1900. Ireland is the only part of Europe that shows an actual diminution of population during the same period. This decline began in 1851, in consequence of unfavorable political and economical conditions, famine, and emigration.

A little more than a century ago Malthus published his 'Essay on the Principles of Population,' in which he asserted that the increase of population tends to overpass the means of subsistence, and that this disproportion necessarily leads to general destitution and starvation, unless counterbalanced and corrected by the devastations of pestilence and war; the only other remedy of the evil being the voluntary or coercive restriction of propagation. From his point of view, the material welfare of the people ought to have been much greater when the population was small than it is at present, but statistics show the reverse of this to be true. In an address entitled "Volkswohlstand und Wissenschaft," recently delivered by Professor Brentano, Rector of the University of Munich, on the four hundred and thirtieth anniversary of the founding of this institution —the university was founded at Ingolstadt in 1472, transferred to Landshut in 1800, and to Munich in 1826—the eminent political economist examines the Malthusian theory, and explains why its pessimistic predictions concerning the future of mankind have not been verified.

In 1794 more than 6 per cent. of the men over twenty-one years of age in Bavaria were beggars. The peasants were virtually serfs, and it was forbidden by law to pay a laborer more than fifteen kreuzers (about ten cents) a day. Whoever offered more than this sum rendered himself liable to a fine of ten thalers ($7.15); and the workman who demanded or accepted such high wages was condemned to eight days' imprisonment at hard labor and on bread and water, and to receive each day twelve stripes with the scourge. It is no wonder, as the Bavarian historian Westenrieder remarks, that "the jails were crowded with culprits, and the highways adorned with gallowses instead of fruit-trees." Since that "good old time" the population of Bavaria has doubled, while the condition of the individual has constantly improved. Still more conclusive is the refutation of Malthusianism furnished by England, where the increase of population, accompanied by a corresponding increase of prosperity, has been greater than in any other country of Europe. According to the statistics tabulated by Sir Robert Giffen, the wealth of Great Britain and Ireland amounted in 1812 to 160 pounds sterling per head, and in 1885 to 270 pounds sterling per head. That this advance was not due to the enrichment of the rich, attended by the impoverishment of the poor, but benefited all classes, is evident from the fact that from 1840 to 1900 the average wages of the common workman rose from 43 to 100, or about 133 per cent. The fact that compassion for poverty finds stronger and more frequent expression with us than with our ancestors, and that more persistent and systematic efforts are made to relieve it, is not due to its greater prevalence, but to the clearer perception of its evils, the prevalence of a higher standard of living, a more correct conception of what is necessary to human comfort, and stronger sympathy with all forms of suffering.

The chief cause of the increase of population has been the decrease of mortality. From 1810 to 1820 the death-rate in Europe was 31.5 per thousand, while from 1886 to 1890 it was only 27.3 per thousand; in western Europe, where the progress of civilization was most rapid, the death-rate diminished during the same period from 28 to 23.4 per thousand. In Germany it sank from 28.8 in 1870-1880 to 23.5 in 1891-1900. Malthus maintained that every improvement in the conditions of human existence would be followed by a multiplication of marriages, and consequently of the human species by natural generation. This anticipation, however, has not been realized. The enormous increase of wealth during the latter half of the nineteenth century has not resulted in an increase of marriages. In England the number was 8.5 from 1851 to 1860, 7.5 from 1881 to 1890, and 7.9 from 1890 to 1900. In other parts of Europe this fluctuation is still more marked; but, on the whole, the number of marriages in proportion to the population, and also the average number of births to each marriage, have greatly diminished during the last decades of the nineteenth century. This is true not only of France, where the ideal of the family is to be attained by not having more than two children, but also of lands inhabited by more prolific races, as, for example, England, where the number of births to a marriage has fallen from 4.36 in 1884 to 3.63 in 1900. Taking these factors into consideration, the extraordinary increase in population in recent times must be ascribed to the diminution of the death-rate, and especially of infant mortality.

The question now arises why the principle enunciated by Malthus and accepted by the most prominent political economists of his day should have been so greatly qualified by subsequent events; the increase of population, so far from producing general distress, having been attended by a still greater increase of human welfare, the people being better provided with the means of subsistence at the present time than they were a century ago. This favorable result we owe to what Malthus could not foresee, namely, the evolution of modern science, and its practical application for the relief of human wants, especially in the production of food. We need only mention the progress of agriculture, to which organic chemistry and physics have so largely contributed; the social amelioration attending technical and industrial development, and commercial expansion by the aid of forces such as steam and electricity, which make the remotest regions of North and South America and Australia convenient market-places for supplying the daily needs of the densely populated cities of Europe; and the effi-

ciency of medical science, jurisprudence, and ethics in promoting longevity by sanitary regulations, inculcating justice and equity, and elevating the standard of morals, thus leading to the relative decrease of crime.

It is only to countries unaffected by the progress of science that the Malthusian theory may be said to apply. Outside of Europe and nations of European origin or under European influence, like British India and Japan, the population, according to the statistics of Sir Robert Giffen, remains very nearly stationary. In British India the number of inhabitants has increased during the last century from 150 to 294 millions, and in Japan, since 1870, from 31 to 45 millions.

## LATE SPANISH OPINIONS ON BULL-FIGHTING.

MALAGA, September 1, 1902.

The first opinion I shall mention was that of a Spanish gentleman who took me up into a high mountain back of this place, not to show me the kingdoms of the earth, and the glory thereof, but to show me a small country-house he had to rent there. It was a pleasant, rural house enough, but with the radical objection that it could be reached only by the dried bed of a torrent after a long ride on donkey back. The August Festejos, or summer carnival, were on just then. Every Spanish town is especially lively in August, and as 20,000 people or more come to Malaga for the sea-bathing, something unusual has to be done for their benefit. The gayeties were thinly spread out over a fortnight: one day a battle of flowers, another an evening concert, and so on, and especially the bull-fights. My companion spoke of staying a few days quietly at his country-house. "But you will be coming down for the great bull-fight on Sunday, of course?" I said. "Not I," he replied, and, waving his forefinger with disgust and emphasis, "á mi no me gustan los toros" ("Bulls are not to my taste").

Another typical opinion was that of the lady who was our hostess during our stay in the city. She was an elderly person, a good housekeeper, sympathetic in time of sickness, a sterling and attractive character. We used to call her, among ourselves, "Doña Perfecta"—not that she had any disagreeable trait whatever; but a look of severity that would occasionally cross the prevailing amiability of her smile, recalled the impression produced by Pérez Galdós's fictitious personage. We were going to the bull-fight one day, as strangers go "just for once" to what is curious in foreign countries, and we asked our Doña Perfecta if she were. "I have never seen one in all my life," she replied vigorously, "nor do I ever think of going." A handsome young widow, a guest from Granada, whom in like manner we had slyly dubbed 'Pepita Ximenez'—though I found, in passing, that she herself had never heard of 'Pepita Ximenez,' nor of its author, Juan Valera—then spoke out plainly against the cruelty and even against the monotonous tameness of the national diversion.

So here are three different opinions, taken quite at random, which clearly indicate the existence of a body of enlightened sentiment on the subject. But far more important was the appearance of an article in the leading newspaper, the *Union Mercantil*, of Malaga, headed, "Sin Picadores" ("Without Picadors," the mounted men in the fight). It consisted of a scathing denunciation of the whole wretched sport to which the unfortunate country is addicted.

"If we should put on savage war-paint and feathers," it said in part, "and dance hand in hand, as do the red Indians of the West about their prey, we should only be in keeping with our true position when attending these bloody spectacles. What an odious piece of hypocrisy, too, to lecture children for tormenting birds and insects, when the same people go perhaps from that very lecture to feast upon the magnified horrors of the bull-ring!"

It went on to speak of the work of the picadors as being the most brutal part of the exhibition, as it is, and called for the abolition of that feature as a preliminary to further reform. The poor horses, as we know, are spurred blindfolded upon the horns of the bull for the express purpose of being ripped open, and they are often seen going about treading on their own entrails.

"What a premium and final reward is this," exclaims the *Union*, "for the patient labors of this faithful servant of man! Such baseness and treachery, such a cowardly vileness, enter into this conduct, that few actions can be more degrading to human nature. If a cry of horrified protest does not arise from all the spectators—a cry which would do them honor—it is because their finer feelings have been calloused by familiarity with the sight from childhood; such a vicious education makes the devotee of the bull-fight himself a brute beast and nothing less."

This is as strong language as the most humane foreigner could desire. To give to its suggestions a practical effect, this paper proposes that the different local societies for the Protection of Animals and Plants, which exist throughout Spain, should meet in a congress and endeavor to obtain the proper legislation from the national Government. An active propaganda should also be begun through the teachers of the public schools, who should be induced, by money rewards and otherwise, to include, as a part of the regular moral lessons they give, abhorrence of the bull-fight.

The article in question drew out hearty approval from many in the succeeding numbers, and found favor in other journals. Señor Garcia de Toledo wrote. He had already worked much for the cause, and it came out that a large meeting had been held, and numerous signatures to a petition obtained, at Barcelona in 1901, but the movement died a natural death. This writer wants the agitation to be entirely Spanish and without the coöperation of foreigners. If the sport is called "national," then let the protest against it be thoroughly national, too. The journalist, Alfredo Calderon, known on a wider than the local field, says:

"Apart from the horses, the bull is the only one who is in the right of it; the animal conducts himself like a man, but the man like a brute animal. Our national diversion is the Waterloo of reason and the Austerlitz of instinct. A crowd of people gather to these villainous shows, some to massacre helpless beasts, the rest to delight in the carnage. They tell us that this should prove a stimulus to Spanish spirit and valor. Precisely the opposite is true; this is the apotheosis of cowardice. True courage is generous and merciful, only wretched cowardice is mean and cruel."

All this was very encouraging as to the future of Spain, and it was the pleasanter to read after coming again fresh from the bull-fight. For surely, as a game, apart from the cruelty, it is very dull indeed; the bull is so unfailingly simple and stupid; he turns away every time from the man to dive idly at the flaunting cape; the men are never in danger, at least from intent of the bull, and cannot come to harm except by accident. There is nothing of it, then, except the cruelty. But, on the other hand, friends who know the country longer, point out to me that Spanish newspapers are fond of dealing in fine sentiments, and Spain generally abounds in good intentions which amount to little.

On the other hand, too, the new young King, who was brought up by his careful mother to know better, has been induced to attend the bull-fights, to cultivate popularity with the mob. And, on the other hand, again, a new and more brutal form of bull-fight has come in. A law on the statute-book, the Ugarte Law, endeavors to infuse a certain amount of decency into the thing, by restraints as to times and places, combats with too tender animals and by inexperienced performers, and so forth. This law is evaded or openly defied. The *Heraldo* of Madrid stated a day or two ago, that the numerous country fairs all over Spain have come to be only an excuse for bull-baiting of the most barbarous sort. These fairs consist now of one day of market and two of torturing animals to death. It cites, in passing, the case of one worthy citizen who spends his time going from one to another of these shows, and has jotted down in a notebook a record of some two thousand.

For lack of better opportunity, the denizens of the market village or hamlet will buy some poor animal of the bovine race in common, some inferior bull or a bull calf, or a frisky cow. "I will put in five reals," says one, "and I seven," says another. They massacre the victim in common, and divide up the meat afterwards. If the authorities do not apply the Ugarte Law, through fear of losing their votes or fear of riot and personal injury, they do this in the open plaza; otherwise, in the yard or even the court of some private house. Each one appears with such a weapon as he may have—this with a dagger, that with a sword-cane, the other with a sharpened table-knife—and they set to work like demons; they stab and hack their helpless prey to death, but by slow stages, that the pleasure may last the longer. If death does not come the first day, the animal is brought out again a second, and even a third day. *Vaya!* (Go to!) exclaims the *Heraldo*, here is a fine, magnanimous people! And it continues:

"Bulls and bulls only are what the country is clamoring for from one end of the land to the other; it is a veritable madness; the Spanish nation will not see or hear of any other form of diversion. Where blood does not flow, there is deemed to be no festivity, no amusement. Thus in bloodshed we are reared, and in blood we live and have our being."

If the *Heraldo* be right, the good *Union Mercantil* of Malaga has a slow and toilsome campaign before it.

WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP.

# Correspondence.

COLOR-SEEING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Having lately returned from a summer resort which is much frequented and exploited by artists in all stages of development, I was interested by the article headed "A Corollary to Nature-Study" in the *Nation* for September 4. One passage in this article runs as follows: "Try him on a beech or a smooth maple, and when he answers 'Gray,' bid him look and see that the real color is one of the blue purples or violets." Now I shall not venture to criticise this suggestion. I can usually see blue or violet where the water-colorists say it exists, and I quite agree to the proposition that we should try to see things as they really are. But how far will this effort, honestly and reasonably maintained, carry us in the perception of "lilac" where the untutored impression is "brown," or of purple or violet where the child at first sees only gray? As far as the average water-colorist would lead us? By all that is sane, no. The fact seems to be that the artist, once perceiving that there is a shade of blue or violet where the careless, unprofessional eye sees only gray, begins to pride himself on seeing the obscure, and presently comes to think that the more conscious he can make himself of it, and the more glaringly he can reveal it in his work, the better artist he is. It is the old story. The one per cent. of fact which was lost and is found, obscures for the time being the ninety and nine per cent. which has been all the time evident till now, and which will be evident again as soon as the excitement of discovery dies out.

And so I have a suggestion to add to those made in "A Corollary to Nature-Study." Let the nature-study teacher have in reserve, not for ordinary exhibition, but for uncovering at the psychologic moment, one of those beautiful, really beautiful, water-colors representing, for example, a New England seacoast sand dune, with its clumps of scrubby bushes. After the pupils have been led to see the lilac shade of pine-boles and the violet tinge of beech bark, let the teacher bring forward this water-color, point to the base of one of the pictured clumps of bushes, and ask: "Now, children, what do you think is represented here?" If the pupils are still possessed of normal color perception, they will probably reply, "A bed of violets." Then let the teacher say, "No, children. This patch of vivid color does not represent violets. This is the way a very talented artist now pictures the stalks and the dead twigs and leaves of these green-topped bushes. No doubt she once saw these things just as you would see them if you looked carefully, but she got the blue into her eye and into her mind, and her grays kept on growing bluer and bluer till they came to what you see here. Let us keep our senses, children, and beware the fate of this very talented artist. Let us not persuade ourselves that skim-milk and purple ink look just alike. At least, let us not do so while we are at 'Nature-study.'" EDWIN H. HALL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., September 10, 1902.

[The writer of this agreeable letter is in so promising a way that the *Nation* can have no controversy with him. Let him continue to frequent the water-colorists, who, in spite of their exaggerations, have still much to teach him on the difference between real and conventional color.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

Preliminary fall announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons include 'A Political History of Slavery,' by William Henry Smith; 'The American Republic and its Governments,' by Prof. James Albert Woodburn; 'Government and the State,' elementary principles with their practical application, by Frederic Wood; 'Famous Families of New York,' by Margherita Arlina Hamm; 'The Hudson River from Ocean to Source,' by Edgar Mayhew Bacon; 'The Romance of the Colorado River,' by Frederick S. Dellenbaugh; 'Christopher Columbus,' by John Boyd Thacher, in three royal octavo volumes containing some 300 illustrations; Carlyle's 'French Revolution,' edited by C. R. L. Fletcher, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford; 'The German Revolution of 1849,' by Charles W. Dahlinger; 'The Youth of La Grande Demoiselle,' from the French of Arvède Barine; 'Life and Times of Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford,' by E. S. Roscoe; 'William Morris,' by Elizabeth Luther Cary; 'Studies of a Biographer,' by Leslie Stephen; 'Tolstoi as Man and Artist,' with an essay on Dostoyevski; 'Saint Augustine and his Age,' by Joseph McCabe; 'The Sons of St. Francis,' by A. MacDonell; Blake's Illustrations to the Book of Job, in photogravure, a limited edition; Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese,' with colored illustrations and decoration by Miss Margaret Armstrong; 'Spiritism or Telepathy?' by Minot J. Savage; and 'The Use of the Voice in Reading and in Speaking,' by Ernest Partwee.

The Crosscup & Sterling Co. of this city announce the immediate commencement of publication of the Complete Writings of Henry Fielding, edited by William E. Henley, with an essay; the whole in sixteen octavo volumes, illustrated, to be delivered to subscribers before the new year.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, are to publish 'The Struggle for a Continent,' an abridgment, in one volume, of Parkman's works by Prof. Pelham Edgar of Victoria College, University of Toronto. Also, a thirty-two-volume edition of Charles Lever's works, and the Oxford edition of Plutarch's Lives in five volumes.

Fifteen pictures from the *Century Magazine* and *St. Nicholas* are to be reproduced among the Copley Prints of Curtis & Cameron, Boston, in sizes suitable for framing. This firm will also undertake, upon private order, to reproduce family portraits in the manner of the Prints.

A treatise on 'The Law of Copyright,' by E. J. MacGillivray, embracing Great Britain and her possessions and the United States, will be issued directly by E. P. Dutton & Co.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have nearly ready 'Reciprocity,' by Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin and H. Parker Willis, and a Life of Zwingli, by Samuel Simpson.

James Pott & Co.'s autumn list embraces C. H. Firth's 'Cromwell's Army'; J. G. Alger's 'Paris, 1789-1794'; Hugh H. L. Bellot's 'The Inner and Middle Temple: Legal, Literary, and Historic Associations'; Sir Wyke Bayliss's 'Five Great Painters of the Victorian Era'; Funck-Brentano's 'Cagliostro and Company'; J. T. Bonney's 'The Mediterranean: Its Storied Cities and Venerable Ruins'; and 'Motor Cars, or, The Application of Mechanical Power to Road Vehicles.'

Besides Edgren and Burnet's 'Italian and English Dictionary,' already announced, Henry Holt & Co. are on the point of bringing out Auguste Fournier's 'Napoleon I.,' with a critical bibliography of Napoleonic literature; 'Standard English Prose, from Bacon to Stevenson,' by Henry S. Pancoast; 'Variations in Animals and Plants,' by Dr. H. M. Vernon; a 'Synopsis of Animal Classification,' by Prof. H. H. Wilder; Tardes's 'Laws of Imitation,' translated by Mrs. Herbert Parsons, Ph.D.; and 'Borrowed Plumes,' burlesques of popular writers by Owen Seaman.

The Century Company will make a book of their magazine's 'Confessions of a Wife,' by "Mary Adams"; and will issue a fresh instalment of Cole's wood-engravings, 'Old English Masters,' with text by Prof. John C. Van Dyke.

From R. H. Russell's list we select 'A Century of Sonnets,' by Mrs. S. B. Herrick; 'The Queen's Rosary,' by Alice D. Van Cleve—sixty sonnets devoted to Queen Victoria; 'Ad Astra,' selections from the Divine Comedy, by Margaret Armstrong, who also illustrates the volume; 'Mr. Sun and Mrs. Moon,' child's verse by Richard Le Gallienne; 'The Baby's Baedeker,' by Col. D. Streamer; and 'Plantation Bird Legends,' by Eli Sheppard.

Harper & Bros. publish directly a new volume of verse by Edward S. Martin.

'Wayfarers in Italy,' by Katharine Hooker, and 'Shakspere's Portrayal of the Moral Life,' by Frank Chapman Sharp, are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

'Every Day in the Year,' a collection of anniversary verse by James L. and M. K. Ford, is announced by Dodd, Mead & Co.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'Two Wilderness Voyagers,' a true story of Indian Life, by Franklin Wells Calkins.

Fresh announcements by McClure, Phillips & Co. are 'Gabriel Tolliver,' a novel of Reconstruction, by Joel Chandler Harris; 'Golden Numbers,' a poetic anthology for children, edited by Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith; 'Indian Boyhood,' by Charles A. Eastman; 'Little Stories of Married Life,' by Mary Stewart Cutting; and 'Fictional Rambles about Boston,' by Frances Weston Carruth.

*Life's* book budget for the season includes 'Rhymes and Roundelays from *Life*,' 'The Social Comedy,' full-page drawings; and '*Life's* Gibson Calendar.'

J. B. Lippincott Co. will give the American imprint to Arthur F. Davidson's 'Alexander Dumas *père:* His Life and Works.'

'Letters from a Self-Made Merchant to his Son,' by George Horace Latimer, is the serious title of a humorous work to be issued by Small, Maynard & Co., Boston.

The Oliver Ditson Co., Boston, will begin their series entitled "The Musician's Library" with 'Fifty Mastersongs,' edited by Henry T. Finck, in two editions for high and for low voices, and 'Frédéric Chopin,'

forty piano compositions, edited by James Huneker. October 1 is the date of issue.

From the University Press, Chicago, we are to have this month 'The Second Bank of the United States,' by Ralph H. C. Catterall, and 'The Place of Industry in Elementary Education,' by Katharine Elizabeth Dopp.

'Life without Principle,' an essay by Thoreau, with Emerson's brief biographical sketch of this author, is to be given a handsome dress at "the Sign of the Hop-Pole, Crockham Hill, Eden Bridge, Kent, England."

*Artistic Bookplates* is to be changed from a quarterly into a monthly by the publisher, George F. Kelly, No. 1135 Broadway.

A brush and colors in the margin, as in the 'Mother Goose Paint-Book' of the Saalfield Publishing Co., Akron, O., is a happy thought; but why should taste and refinement be discarded in the typography and in the designs for coloring? Is not art related in all its forms?

'Modern Polo,' by Capt. E. D. Miller (London: Hurst & Blackett; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons), comes to us in a revised and enlarged second edition, with a list of the polo ponies in England at the beginning of the present season. The game is discussed in detail, with the rules, with the records of tournaments, and with much good advice to beginners. Chapters are also devoted to choosing, training, and managing ponies. The illustrations are excellent, particularly those showing the strokes.

The more than prettily made book, 'Two Thousand Miles on an Automobile; being a Desultory Narrative of a Trip through New England, New York, Canada, and the West' (Philadelphia: Lippincott), is the vehicle of the author's reflections on Anarchism, the Concord philosophers, the Morgan mystery, and any other subject suggested by the station, or not suggested. "Nothing disturbed Shakspere's equanimity. Neither Stratford nor London bounded his life." "Women are the arbiters of social fate, and as such must be placated, but not too servilely. In society a blow goes farther than a kiss." These are some of "Chauffeur's" precious sayings, though he can be more interesting. The chief worth of his diary lies in his account of roads and his comparison of machines.

It is questionable whether the title 'A German Buddhist' is rightly applied to a sketch of the life of Theodor Schultze, by Dr. Pfungst, the translation of which, by L. F. De Wilde, has just been published by Luzac & Co., London. Schultze is an interesting epitome of the modern view of many metaphysicians towards Buddhistic philosophy. He accepted the "nucleus of Buddhism," but refused to believe in the church, the cosmogony, the doctrine of Buddhas, recreations, and even Karma, except in a very modified form. In a word, he was no Buddhist, but he regarded the ethics of Buddhism and the Buddhistic philosophy of pessimism as more satisfactory than Christian doctrine. Patience and sympathy make a better religion than hope and love, in his opinion. The sketch is significant of the ingrowth of Hindu philosophical ideas since Schopenhauer.

Georg Conrad's 'Majestät' (Berlin: Otto Janke) is what he calls a "Königsroman"—not an historical novel, but one in which a royal personage is eulogized and glorified. The hero in this case is Ludwig II. of Bavaria, whose morbid eccentricities are described as brilliant emanations of genius. The author is an enthusiastic Wagnerite, and naturally dwells at length upon the relations of the monarch to the musical dramatist, justly censuring the shortsightedness of the Munich people in preventing the erection of a Wagner theatre in that city. Utterly unjustifiable in a writer of fiction is the putting into the mouths of Maximilian II. and the youthful Ludwig II. depreciatory views of the distinguished poet Paul Heyse, which neither of these sovereigns ever expressed or even entertained. The creative imagination has a sufficiently large legitimate field of activity without resorting to calumny.

If there are any irreconcilables in Porto Rico, a minor consolation for being taken over by the United States may be found in the much bigger language to which the island inhabitants have been promoted. At least, we suspect some such motive for a bet sent up from Porto Rico for adjudication, and recorded in the Princeton University Bulletin for May, viz., that "there are twice as many words in the English vocabulary as in the Spanish vocabulary." Dr. Charles P. G. Scott undertook to analyze rather than answer this inquiry, and his report is given in full in the Bulletin. Incidentally, he says of the French Academy's Dictionary that "it is, in fact, nothing but a nice large spelling-book, with discursive definitions and gossip about phrases. It is not a monument of learning, but a monument over learning." He also sets for the industrious the task of counting exactly the number of words in the various extant concordances of English writers from Shakspere to Browning. Dr. Scott estimates that the Oxford Dictionary, when completed, will reckon about 240,000 principal words and about 140,000 compounds, cross-references and minor entries.

A unique educational experiment has been begun in Wertheim, Baden, in the shape of a "Deutsche Nationalschule." The founder is an experienced educator, Dr. Krapff, with the architect August Schilling (active in American schools for seventeen years) and Major Kressmann as coadjutors. The purpose of the new venture is to prepare young men to become representatives of German thought and life, trade and business, abroad. The course of study covers nine years, and accordingly makes this institution a full-grade secondary school, in which are taught chiefly modern languages, the natural sciences, and mathematics, with manual training on an extensive scale and a thorough business training. Boys are expected to enter the school at the same age at which they are accustomed to be admitted into the gymnasia. The new school has the warm sanction of the official and educated classes of Germany, its scope being so much wider and deeper than that of the "Colonial Schools," of which a number have been founded in recent years, but have been conducted with only partial success.

The University of Bern is the first Continental university to institute a regular department of journalism. The announcements for the lectures during the coming winter semester include courses on editing and the publishing of newspapers. They will be delivered by Dr. Gustav Schmidt, a member of the law faculty and editor of the *Schweizer-Handelsblatt*.

The Musée Guimet in Paris, the great storehouse of materials for the study of the history of religions, has received from the traveller Dinghello, now engaged in archæological work in Palestine, a number of recently discovered bronze images which, no doubt, are specimens of the household gods of the Jews so often mentioned in the Old Testament, but of which none had ever before been found. They show undoubted Semitic features. There are a Baal and an Astarte with plaited hair, the latter with a crown. The height of these images is 37 centimetres.

The Sudan, in the not very distant future, may be a formidable rival to the United States as a cotton-raising country. At a recent meeting of the Association for British-Grown Cotton at Manchester, Count Gleichen, the Sirdar's secretary, stated that "there were 15 millions of acres of land suitably irrigated on which cotton could be grown"—an area more than half as large as that which we devote to its culture. Upon it the natives already grow cotton in small quantities for their own consumption, but they are few in number, the dervishes having killed four-fifths of the population of the Sudan. The Government accordingly intends to let the land on the easiest possible terms, and it has already made some successful experiments in cotton-growing. When the Suakin-Berber railway is completed, which it is hoped will be at the end of two years, these will be the nearest extensive cotton fields to the English market.

The instruction of the Boer farmer in modern methods of agriculture is absolutely essential to the future prosperity of the South African colonies. Acting upon this conviction, the home Government is sending carefully selected parties, under competent guidance, to visit Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. They will make a study of the latest scientific agricultural methods, with a view to putting them into practice on their own farms and imparting their knowledge to their neighbors. One member of each party, at least, is to have a knowledge of photography and be provided with a camera.

Mildura, an "irrigation settlement" in the arid country in northwestern Victoria, was founded thirteen years ago by emigrants from Great Britain, who have invested more than five million dollars in the cultivation of vineyards, orange groves, fruit farms, etc. The enterprise, notwithstanding mistakes and difficulties, the chief of which is the want of railway communication with Melbourne, 350 miles distant, has proved a remarkable success. The production by irrigation of raisins and currants has proved exceptionally remunerative, the settlers, who number 4,000, being "reported to be making a return of as much as $600 per acre in some instances from these vineyards." The Government is building a railway, 100 miles in length, to connect Mildura with the capital, and proposes to add largely to the irrigated territory, on which it is now seen other valuable commodities can be profitably raised for home consumption and for exportation.

The latest issue of the German Asiatic Society of Japan is a stout supplement of 300 pages, making the fifth book, in addition to the eight portly volumes of papers

on special themes sent forth by this learned body. In it Pfarrer Hans Haas treats of the History of Christianity in Japan, this first instalment dealing with its introduction by Francis Xavier. Despite the fact that so many writers in many tongues have handled the same theme, Mr. Haas makes it almost a new subject, because he shows familiarity with both the native religions and with what critical scholars and men of research have done on the soil. He thus gives us an inside view of things. Along with this supplement comes the *Festschrift* (pp. 97) in celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Society, giving its history, list of contributors, and titles of papers read, together with an analytical index of subjects. In generous rivalry with the (British-American) Asiatic Society of Japan, this "Gesellschaft" has produced what in bulk probably equals, and in weight and seriousness of matter falls no whit behind, the output of the other. Both series are indispensable to the student of Japan, past and present.

—Apart from the report of the Commencement exercises, the September number of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* possesses exceptional interest. Justice Oliver Wendell Holmes's portrait is at the front, and Professor Grandgent's tribute to the late Prof. Ferdinand Bôcher is accompanied by an excellent likeness of that genial scholar, in former years a constant and generous contributor to the *Nation*. There is a very neat inquiry into the question whether Burgoyne and his officers were ever quartered in the college buildings as the State sought to have them, and Mr. F. H. Smith makes it pretty evident that they were not. The Editor gives timely notice of the approach of the centenary of the birth of Emerson (May 25, 1903), and urges a commemoration of it by the University. In calling Emerson the greatest Harvard graduate, Mr. Thayer is speaking, of course, in terms of the spirit; and has in mind, not the greatest poet or the greatest stylist alone, but the most liberalizing influence of the sort which best abstracts the university ideal. In lower planes of comparison, one has, not to speak of living Presidents, to remember John Quincy Adams as somewhat of a great man. Professor Hart's farewell review of the University's life is of the same high quality that has marked his eight years' comment. He surveys the changes in the past ten years, noting the invasion of the catalogue by strange un-English names and nationalities, the outstripping of Latin by Greek in the electives, the increase (sometimes doubling and much more) in attendance upon all the departments save the Divinity School and the abandoned School of Veterinary Medicine. The event at Radcliffe this year was the conferring of the doctor's degree for the first time, and in two cases. Of this college, Professor Gray skilfully sums up the history *ab ovo*. In the class news, mention is made of a graduate who lately died the richest clergyman in the United States, a ten-millionaire, whose public bequests were a quarter of a million. More notable, and as rare, is the return by a beneficiary of the aid he received from a scholarship, and the simultaneous founding of a new scholarship—a total gift of $6,050.

—Col. Silas W. Burt's memoirs of New York military history in the war for the Union, edited by the State Historian and published by the State as "Bulletin No. 1, War of the Rebellion," represents raw material of history. As auditor of military accounts during Gov. Morgan's administration, and later, the author had the situation before him; and the special merit of his pamphlet, which closes with 1862, is his plain narration and his candid and sometimes pungent expression of opinion as to the men and affairs of those exciting days. It is well for this generation, for whom that generation wrought, to read contemporaneous and unadorned records of hopes and fears, of efforts, failures, and successes in transforming peaceful citizens into organized armed bands. There were militia accepted for three months, volunteers for two years and three years; again, militia taken for nine months, and regiments that offered themselves for three months and were held for three years. Under these various conditions, New York sent out more than 222,000 men prior to 1863. There are described questions of supply, of pay, and of bounty, of recruiting and of commissions, of State authority and of Federal authority, of the patriotic and efficient Union Defence Committee and its allies, of the unpatriotic and mischievous Copperhead faction, and many more, all which represented real problems. The question was a burning one in those days whether the volunteers were to be regarded as State militia or Federal troops; and in the collision between the State and the general Government on the question of commissioning generals, Col. Burt notes that "the former had the right and the latter the victory." A useful feature of the paper is the frequency with which biographical data concerning men of moderate note, as well as those of distinction, are to be found. Where Col. Ellsworth's Eleventh New York Volunteer Infantry is given the alternative designation of Fire Zouaves (pp. 29, 35), there is probably confusion with "Billy" Wilson's aggregation of roughs, the Sixth New York, which was so styled. This is not pretentious literature, but it is a truthful record of what one man in not very conspicuous public life observed, and it would be well if his later notes, to include the close of the war, were printed.

—Lowell could not have been more amazed at beholding an old French text edited by an American than classical scholars will be to learn that the latest addition to the well-known Haupt and Sauppe series of Greek and Latin authors (Berlin: Weidmann) is "based," as the common phrase goes, upon an American edition of the same work. This is the 'Agricola' of Tacitus, the appearance of which in Bennett and Rolfe's series we noted in 1899. The editor in each case is Prof. Alfred Gudeman, the eminent Tacitean critic, who, after lending distinction for some years to the University of Pennsylvania, is now, we understand, about to proceed to Cornell. The two books are very much alike so far as introduction and explanatory notes are concerned; but, for the text and critical apparatus of the second, Professor Gudeman is the first editor of this famous biography who has had the advantage of using Leutze's collation of the newly discovered Codex Toletanus. We will not discuss in detail the resulting changes, but shall content ourselves with the compilation of a few statistics, which are as correct as a first reading could make them. There appear, then, to be 39 passages in which Gudeman's new text differs from that of 1899. Of these, 19 are due solely to the readings of Codex T; four depend upon T supporting an early conjecture; four are conjectures by Gudeman (one of them strongly supported by T); and the remaining dozen are orthographical corrections or miscellaneous changes. Among them, however, we note one which is apparently a misprint in the text: *timebatur* (25), where the apparatus seems to suppose the same *timebat* which stood in the earlier edition. With this exception, lovers of the 'Agricola' will find that nearly all the new matter deserves their very careful consideration, and we believe that a good number of the new readings will meet with ready acceptance.

—Now and then conventional literary opinion is chastised for its good. This time the punishment falls upon such as have admired the famous tract of Diderot, 'Paradoxe sur le Comédien.' This discussion of the actor's art has been frequently quoted; it is, indeed, the best known of Diderot's critical writings. To find it set down as a mere fraudulent farrago composed by his Secretary, Naigeon, is for the moment startling. That such is the case M. Ernest Dupuy has proved conclusively in a recent edition of the essay. The manner of the imposition is too interesting to be passed in silence. To begin with, Naigeon had worked intimately with the encyclopædist, and imitated very precisely his more formal and poorer style. When the Empress Catharine of Russia, who had bought during his lifetime the papers of her old protégé, became known as an eager purchaser of all sorts of Diderot memorials, Naigeon saw his opportunity, and rose to it. He had the good sense to base his fabrication upon a genuine but obscure work of his late master, "Observations upon the Actor's Art." Taking this vivacious article from the Grimm correspondence, he diluted it with his own rhetoric, and sweetened the resulting thin mess with all manner of unacknowledged quotations from contemporary authors. Thus he gave to the Empress an excellent money's worth, and to the critics of the century an object of respectful investigation. From internal evidence M. Dupuy had fairly made out the fraud when a fortunate "find" on the Quai brought objective proof. It was nothing less than the original draft of Naigeon's forgery—purporting, indeed, to be a copy from Diderot, but bearing corrections, erasures, and interlineations which could have been made only by the veritable author. It is apparently only the fact that the 'Paradoxe sur le Comédien' was published posthumously, and separately, in 1830, which has given it notoriety, while the far better expression of its doctrine has lain unregarded. It is a singular instance of the insensible worship that men of the cave after all pay to the idols of the market-place.

—If this trite moral needs further enforcement, it finds it in a recently published letter of the composer, Hector Berlioz. He knew the value of a name, and once, at the time of his greatest unpopularity, imposed one of his oratorios upon the critical public by presenting it as a rediscovered work of an old composer. At times his critics saved him the pains of deceiving them, as is explained in a letter of December 16, 1854, to the Princess Sayn-Wittgenstein, Liszt's friend and correspondent. The letter was

recently published in the *Ménestrel*. Berlioz writes: "In 1830 I was sent to Rome as scholar of the Académie des Beaux-Arts. The rules obliged me to compose at Rome a piece of religious music, which at the end of my first year of exile should be judged publicly at the Institute of Paris. Now since I have never been able to compose in Italy—why, I don't know—I simply had a copy made of the Credo of one of my masses, which had already been given twice at Paris before my departure; and I sent it on to my judges. They declared that the piece showed the favorable influence of my Italian residence, and that everybody must note the complete abandonment of my unfortunate musical tendencies. How many academicians there are in the world!"

## A MODEL HISTORY OF MODERN MUSIC.

*Geschichte der Musik seit Beethoven (1800-1900)*. Von Dr. Hugo Riemann. Berlin and Stuttgart: W. Spemann.

German historians of music used to make a division which was as simple as it was silly. Bach, Handel, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven were treated as the great tone-heroes whose every trifle was flawless and above criticism; while all subsequent composers were "Epigonen"—followers, imitators, more or less clever men of talent, who might be patted on the back, but could hardly be considered immortals. The champion among these historians was Emil Naumann, whose voluminous work is a marvel of critical ineptitude. A few writers, notably Brendel and Langhans, evinced a more liberal spirit and a gift of recognizing modern genius. Their works are still of value, but they far from exhausted the matter, leaving plenty of room for a history of music up to date in every respect, such as that of Dr. Riemann, which (like the same author's 'Musik-Lexikon,' now in its fifth edition) is beyond all comparison the most satisfactory, reliable, and useful book on its subject; a book which ought to be promptly translated into English.

After some introductory remarks on modern style, concert-giving in the olden times, musical centres of Europe, the collapse of Italian supremacy, and the revival of interest in Bach, Dr. Riemann devotes a chapter of sixty pages, biographical and critical, to Beethoven. Chopinists will dissent from his assertion that Beethoven's sonatas represent the culmination of pianoforte music up to the present day; nor can we subscribe the opinion that Bach unlocked all the secrets of harmony and Beethoven all the marvels of rhythm; but the author's subsequent remarks on Wagner, Liszt, and other modern masters indicate clearly enough that he does not intend such assertions to be taken too literally. In his view, Beethoven's claim to superiority over his predecessors of the "classical" school lies not so much where it is usually sought—in his free treatment and enlargement of traditional musical forms—but in the manner in which he eliminated all display and deepened the means of expression. He had the tenderness of Mozart and the exuberance of Haydn, but added to them a seriousness and a demoniac power which they lacked. Dr. Riemann does not agree with Thayer that Beethoven's slow and laborious method of composition was due to a lack of facility in expressing himself, but thinks it was a result of his extremely refined and acute critical sense, and a feeling that only by a supreme effort could he surpass his predecessors.

One of the merits of Dr. Riemann's history is good perspective. He never indulges in the German vice of hiding the most important facts in foot-notes, but gives his chapters and subdivisions headings which at once indicate the relative importance of composers and "schools." The eighteen chapters are named as follows: Music at the Meeting of Two Centuries; Beethoven; Schubert; Weber; The Change in Concert Conditions; Mendelssohn; Schumann; Chopin; Opera after Weber and up to Wagner; Berlioz; Liszt; Wagner; The National Tendencies (Russian, Bohemian, Scandinavian composers); The Buffo-Operetta and the Ballet; The Followers of the Classical and Romantic Composers in Germany; The Latest Productions Abroad; Brahms, Bruckner, R. Strauss; Musical Science. In commenting on the next great name after Beethoven, our author dwells pertinently on the fact that Schubert, in his songs, not only practically created a new type, but an endless variety of new types, leaving little for his successors to add. "It is easy to base a complete treatise on song-composing on Schubert's *Lieder* alone." Without going quite so far as Dr. Dvorák, who is inclined to place Schubert's instrumental works higher even than his songs, Dr. Riemann writes *con amore* of the magic charm of his symphonies, quartets, and pianoforte pieces, noting their surprising originality, and independence of Beethoven and all other masters. He also defends them against the charge of excessive elaboration and length: "In itself length is no fault, if only the composer knows how to impart to his elaborations incessantly fresh charms; and this, if not always, Schubert certainly succeeds in doing in most cases." Emphasis is also placed on the romantic features in Schubert's instrumental works, wherein they differ from those of Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven, both in the enchanting characteristic tone colors and in the capacity of the music to suggest pictures of a wonder-world.

While Schubert was thus developing the romantic spirit in instrumental music and in the *Lied*, Weber was doing the same thing for the opera. Dr. Riemann's pages on Weber and operatic romanticism (165-191) are the most luminous and suggestive ever written on the subject. When Dr. Hanslick and the other venomous opponents of Wagner abused him on account of his predilection for supernatural, legendary subjects, they were blindly hitting at nearly all opera-writers; for, as our author points out, the opera has been romantic since its beginning, "if we may understand by romanticism the intrusion of supernatural powers into human life." It is true, the librettos were formerly based on Greek mythology, but are not Pluto and Cerberus of the lower world, the gods and goddesses of the sea and the mountain summits, the nereids, tritons, and muses, as romantic as the gods, giants, and dwarfs, the nixies and kobolds, of the northern myths? Musically, however, the opera-makers learned only gradually how to create the impression of the marvellous, mysterious, phantastic, supernatural; and it remained for Weber's orchestra to teach audiences the *gruseln* so dear to Teutonic children of all ages. This he accomplished particularly by deliberately utilizing, for purposes of dramatic realism, certain instrumental registers and sounds which previously had been tabooed or subdued as inimical to euphony. In other words, "Weber provided in the magic of tone-colors a musical equivalent of the romantic traits in poetry." While thus paying a just tribute to Weber's originality, our historian is perhaps hardly fair to Schubert when he intimates (p. 139) that his characteristic tone-colors, and their mixtures, "if not derived from Weber, are at least parallel with his." The euphony of Schubert's pianoforte music (which marks an advance on Beethoven) is certainly not derived from Weber; nor, we believe, is his epoch-making use of the trombones *pianissimo*, and other exquisite details of clang-tints in his symphonies. The question how far Weber may have influenced Schubert in orchestration is an interesting one, and can be decided only by a detailed study of compositions and the dates of their performance in Vienna, for which no one is better qualified than Dr. Riemann himself. In this country Mr. Edgar Kelley might be called on for an essay on the subject.

After an intermezzo on choral societies, music festivals, conservatories, reforms in methods of instruction and historic investigation, the gradual displacement of virtuosi by interpreters, Viennese dance music and conductors of the old schools, Dr. Riemann proceeds with the next two men of genius on his list, Mendelssohn and Schumann. Both are criticised from the modern point of view in an admirably judicial spirit. Both were of a thoroughly lyric cast; both were more impressive as inventors of themes than as developers of them; both preferred the shorter to the longer forms; but whereas Schumann (at least in his early period) fascinates by the profusion of his ideas, Mendelssohn is more economical with his. Inasmuch as Mendelssohn's symphonies, overtures, and concertos are constructed after classical models, it may be true, as our author remarks, that his preference of short pieces to sonatas does not argue that he considered the pianoforte sonata as antiquated. But he omits to state that Schumann did express the opinion that the sonata had had its day, and that among his successors even Brahms devoted himself to the musical short story, excepting a few sonatas which belong among his earliest works. On this topic much light is thrown by Mr. Shedlock in his 'History of the Pianoforte Sonata' (recently reviewed in these columns).

It is an odd fact that Robert Franz (to whose admirable additional accompaniments to works of Bach and Handel Dr. Riemann does justice, as well as to his superb songs) began his musical career as a writer of pianoforte sonatas. These, however, he destroyed when he had discovered that his special vocation was that of a song-writer. Specialization was beginning to invade music, like everything else. Chopin devoted himself to the pianoforte almost exclusively. Dr. Riemann hardly gives him as much space as he deserves in comparison with some German masters, Spohr and Mendelssohn for instance, who play a very small rôle in modern concert halls compared with Chopin, and whose influence on other *great* composers has been much less deep and lasting than his. But he by no means underrates Chopin, as German historians usually do. He severely cen-

sures those who, like Louis Köhler, classed him among the drawing-room composers, to whom, in fact, he is directly antipodal. In his first sonata he anticipates some of Wagner's "Tristan" harmonies. What Field and others absurdly called "morbid" in his music is not a result of ill-health of mind or body, but is an elegiac trait which is found in his earliest works, written when he was thoroughly well and enjoyed life. It is a mistake, too, our author adds, to represent Chopin as the singer of Poland's tragic fate. What his music proclaims is not so much grief at Russian oppression as the peculiar character of Slavic music in distinction from Germanic and Romanic. "Chopin, therefore, is one of the sources of the national currents in musical production which take up so much room in the second half of the century."

To these currents Dr. Riemann devotes a special chapter, in which Rubinstein, Tchaikowsky, and Dvorák are prominently discussed. In the section on the Norwegians, Grieg is referred to as "beyond doubt the most important of the Scandinavian composers after Gade." But surely Grieg is infinitely more original than Gade, whose music is now as antiquated as most of Mendelssohn's, whereas Grieg's is only just beginning to be estimated at its true value, and is exerting an unmistakable influence on not a few of the younger composers, including D'Albert, Pugno, Paderewski, and MacDowell. He has created the latest harmonic atmosphere in music, and this atmosphere is much more Griegian than Norwegian. While Grieg doubtless has the charm of local or national color, he has borrowed much less from Norwegian folksong than is commonly supposed. His most characteristic songs are those in the third and fourth volumes of the Peters edition; these appear to us even more inspired and original than the early ones concerning which Dr. Riemann justly declares that they "speak a tone-language reminding one of Schubert in his greatest moments." To us it seems a blessing that Grieg left the German school and founded one of his own, even though the German be more universal in character. When we travel in Norway, we expect the women to have a beauty peculiar to themselves; why not the composers too?

One of the features which distinguish Dr. Riemann's history most favorably from the works of his predecessors is that he first assigns to Liszt the prominence that genius deserves. Of the four books into which his volume of 816 pages is divided, the third is headed "Epoche Wagner-Liszt," and to Liszt's life and works he devotes 32 pages which are a model of condensation, combined with clearness and a sense of what is most important. A chapter like this, by a recognized musical authority, has long been a desideratum, as too many professionals are still in the habit of looking on Liszt as a mere freak and a law-breaker in the realm of harmony. It is extremely significant, and indicative of the fact that the musical world "do move," to find the leading German theorist of our time expounding his views that Liszt, harmonically, grew out of Schubert; that his boldest and most intricate innovations are capable of explanation and justification; that the ear recognizes their legitimacy before the eye does; that they reveal Liszt's intuitive comprehension of the most intricate formations; and that the study of them is highly conducive to the development of musical insight.

"To be great is to be misunderstood," said Emerson. The fact that Liszt, early in his career, tried to become the Paganini of the pianoforte created the belief, still widely current, that, like that Italian, he made dazzling technical display the chief aim of his art. But Liszt himself wrote an essay, in 1841, on Paganini, in which he declared that thenceforth other and higher methods would have to be pursued to attain the greatest eminence. These methods he adopted in making his incomparable technical skill a mere means for the elucidation and popularization of the art of the great masters, from Bach to Chopin. To be sure, he also wrote and played fantasias on operatic melodies by Rossini, Donizetti, and Bellini; but in these cases he chose only melodies of genuine musical worth, and gave them settings as original and fascinating as they are brilliant. The catholicity of his taste enabled him to recognize beauty in all branches of the art; as our author puts it: "As interpreter and teacher Liszt manifested an exemplary universality and a previously unknown capacity for entering into the peculiarities of the most widely separated epochs, styles, and individualities." This same gift enabled him to become the apostle of Hungarian music, though he did not devote himself to it till he was thirty years old.

Our orchestral conductors, who have so long favored Berlioz and ignored Liszt, will do well to read Dr. Riemann's remarks on Liszt's superiority to Berlioz, both as a creative musician and in his treatment of programme music (pp. 365-369, 548). To the subject of programme music, naturally, a good many pages are devoted in this book. Raff's, Richard Strauss's, and Wagner's relations to it are fully discussed. The treatment of Wagner in general is as satisfactory as that of Liszt, and use is made of the latest contributions to the subject. Brahms, Bruckner, and R. Strauss have a chapter to themselves. Brahms sustained the Beethoven tendencies, while Bruckner transplanted Wagnerian practices to the concert-hall—where they do not belong—and therefore failed. Strauss began as an absolute musician of the Beethoven-Brahms persuasion; but in 1885 he "shed his skin" and went over to the camp of the programme musicians. The last two hundred pages of the 'History' contain a bewildering profusion of names of minor musicians, and a few great ones, in Germany, France, England, America, and elsewhere. The school of the "Young Italians," which made so much noise a few years ago, is disposed of (p. 739) as entirely a thing of the past, and Mascagni's "Cavalleria Rusticana" is characterized as "a tragic operetta."

## TWO TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GREEK DRAMATISTS.—I.

*The Prometheus Bound of Aeschylus*, rendered into English verse by Edwyn Robert Bevan. London: David Nutt. 1902.

*The Comedies of Aristophanes*. Edited, translated, and explained by Benjamin Bickley Rogers. (IX., The Frogs. X. The Ecclesiazusae). London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Mr. Bevan, in his preface, expresses the opinion that no worthy rendering of the "Prometheus" has yet appeared in English, and herein we must agree with him. Dean Plumptre's and Miss Swanwick's are scholarly, but somewhat pedestrian and uninspired. Mrs. Browning indulged in freaks and mannerisms and careless feminine embroideries, till it is no wonder that she shocked poor FitzGerald beyond the bounds of decency, and involved her husband in a corresponding indecency of retaliation. Such fits sometimes possess celestial minds. We cannot go so far as to agree with Mr. Bevan when he modestly condemns himself and is ready to consign his own experiment to the list of failures. He has sketched in his preface a sensible and well-founded theory of the patterns and methods which a translator should follow in dealing with this great poem; and he has illustrated his theory by producing unquestionably the most satisfactory version that has yet appeared. This should win respectful attention for his theory.

In order to reproduce the effect of the Greek drama in English, he would make the basis of his style that of the Elizabethan dramatists, purged of Elizabethan eccentricities; he would give this "more of elemental breadth and simplicity by approximation to the language of the Bible," and in the especially elaborate and sonorous passages, it might echo and recall the sound of Milton. This is surely a programme well laid out, and, for the "Prometheus," especially appropriate. That poem must have breathed an archaic air to the Greeks who first listened to it and saw it acted; the translator of the Book of Job might have dealt worthily with a large portion of the play, and the remainder might safely be entrusted to the vocabulary (and style, so far as it is imitable) of Shakspere and Milton. As an Englishman, Mr. Bevan assumes that the language of the Bible is still familiar to the ear and to the associations of his public; and even in our own country we may fairly make the assumption for any public which will trouble itself to read a rendering of the "Prometheus Bound" We cannot answer absolutely for the democracy which listens with rapture to "The Old Oaken Bucket" and the fatigue grammar of the dialect poem. But the subtle and composite magic of the style which, in Tennyson and Swinburne, draws its enchantment from the old-fashioned sources, still, beyond question, works its spell over many readers on both sides of the water. These fibres are so wrought into the fabric of our nineteenth-century poetry, that it is as yet a little fantastic to inquire how soon the generation will come for whom the spell will vanish, and the threads of which it is woven will be frayed out and forgotten. It may come, perhaps, before the coal fields are exhausted. If, as some ingenious spirits hint, the oracle is growing dumb, yet, as literature simply, it must long survive; as English literature it might be taught and read in our schools, without let or hindrance, when its authority as a divine voice had ceased entirely.

Mr. Bevan throws out the interesting and plausible suggestion that the present is exactly the literary period which is best fitted and tempered to produce an ideal and final translation of the Greek poets. Our age, he remarks, displays "a great variety of imitative manner"; if it cannot produce,

it possesses, at any rate, an unprecedented power of reproduction." And this is certainly, in a manner, true. Anybody and everybody has the knack of versifying—it is exercised by one's butcher and baker and candlestick-maker. There are, in the United States alone, we are credibly assured by a lady with a turn for statistics, "more than twelve hundred poetesses," and most of these write better verses than the late Mrs. Hemans. They publish, too, and their friends frequently read their verses. It is not by such aid, perhaps, that the final and permanent version of the Greek masters in poetry will be made; and Mr. Bevan, we presume, is not thinking of these when he suggests that it might be brought about by the coöperation of many minds, in which "the idiosyncracies of each would find correction." The King James's Bible is, of course, the weightiest proof that such collaboration may result in the most precious literature. For the literary syndicate which our author ingenuously suggests, we should name Mr. Swinburne as honorary President, and Mr. Bevan himself as one of the collaborators.

While we have our doubts about the labors of the syndicate and the acceptance of Mr. Swinburne, we are quite serious about the value of Mr. Bevan's services. His translation, if not entirely adequate—and no one understands better than he how impossible it is in such a task to attain one's standard—is much more than accurate and scholarly; it is eloquent, strong, sonorous, the work of a trained and dexterous artist, who has, besides the proper literary equipment, the poetic sense and the poetic touch. It reads well, it declaims well, and it should be read aloud to be thoroughly appreciated. The test of such work is that it should be effective in masses and as a whole, and this test the translation will bear. We cannot, of course, prove this by quotation, but there are single lines and felicities of detail of which we may permit ourselves a specimen. Here are some samples of that sententious "Stychomythy," so dear to the Grecian heart, which are faithful to the best Elizabethan manner, and yet free from the irritating effect of mere dexterous imitation:

KRATOS.
Lose not thy labour on what helps nowise.

HEPHAISTOS.
Woe worth the cursed cunning of these hands.

KRATOS.
Why curse thy craft? that, surely, to plain thinking,
Is innocent altogether of this coil.

HEPHAISTOS.
This arm at least it were a task to free.

KRATOS.
Now pin thou this as surely. Let him learn,
Wise as he is, there is One of nimbler wit.

HEPHAISTOS.
Such binding none could censure—save the bound.

And again:

OKEANOS.
But for the will, for making the adventure,
Were one the worse? If thou see'st loss, declare it.

PROMETHEUS.
Superfluous pains and fond simplicity.

OKEANOS.
Suffer that ill to cleave to me; 'tis gain
To be simple-seeming, being simply good.

PROMETHEUS.
The folly will be written down to me.

If we have any quarrel with Mr. Bevan's method it is that he has fettered himself a little by the closeness with which he follows his author, line by line. The number of lines in the English and the Greek is, we believe, exactly the same. We must call this numerical fidelity a foible, though it leans to virtue's side. There is no particular objection to it, except that it involves an acrobatic feat. *Solvitur ambulando;* and Mr. Bevan has solved it so gracefully that it is only when the choruses are reached that the feat obtrudes itself upon the attention. The roll and swing of the closing anapæsts are caught and suggested with that power which Mr. Swinburne has taught us is native to the cadences of our own language. We doubt whether Mr. Swinburne would have closed the stanzas with a parœmiac, which sounds like putting a brake on a rapid drag; and he surely would not have closed the grandiose final strophe containing the splendid and curiously accurate prophecy of a disaster like that of Pelée, with the weak line

"behold me
How I suffer outrageous things!"

This is what comes of hyper-fidelity, steered by the exigencies of rhyme. But it is a lapse altogether exceptional; and here, on the other hand, is a specimen which does justice to Aeschylus as well as to the workmanship of Mr. Bevan.

PROMETHEUS.
Or ever his lips had let it go,
I knew his burden; that foe of foe
Should suffer evil is no new law.
Light on me now the writhen hair
Of a flame two-edged; let all the air
Be lash'd with levin, with passion grieved
Of winds exasperate, earth up-heaved
From her roots by the inly-prison'd flaw!
Let him mingle a welter of bitter brine,
The froth of the seas, with the paths divine
Of the heavenly stars; down quick let him fling me
Where the face of the day is blotted and blacken'd,
By a might that masters, and twirls unslacken'd;
To death can he nowise bring me.

## SOME SUPERFLUOUS BOOKS.

*Sir Joshua Reynolds, P.R.A.* By Elsa D'Esterre-Keeling.—*Sir Edwin Landseer, R.A.* By James A. Manson. (The Makers of British Art, edited by James A. Manson.) London: The Walter Scott Publishing Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

*Decorative Brushwork and Elementary Design.* By Henry Cadness. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

*Views and Reviews: Art.* By W. E. Henley. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

If people who have nothing to say would say it, silence would be less often disturbed. If all that was not worth writing remained unprinted, the task of the reviewer would be less wearisome. Under such blessed circumstances, the present Life of Reynolds would hardly have appeared at all. The author announces it as "an attempt at achieving something on the one part less bulky, and on the other part less meagre, than the lives . . . heretofore published." As to number of pages, this ideal is perhaps attained; but nothing could well be more positively meagre or more relatively bulky than this volume if the amount of interesting information and enlightening comment is taken as the measure. There are very few plums in the pudding, and a sample will show the quality of the duff. Chapter viii. opens with this paragraph:

"The year 1770 was one of great political excitement, which in London went to the cry of 'Wilkes and Liberty!' In it took place the resignation of the Grafton Administration, which included many of the friends of Reynolds. The authorship of 'Junius' was the question of the hour, and, though three of the men on whom the daring Letters were fathered, Barrie, Burke, and Shelburne, had in their day sat to Reynolds, it was now no time for politicians to sit for their portraits, but the Lady Mayoress of London, who was the wife of one of the foremost of them—Beckford's Beckfordian successor, Trecothick—sat to Reynolds."

That is all. The next paragraph skips to an entirely different subject, and we are told nothing about this portrait of the "Lady Mayoress"—not even where it is or if it has been engraved.

The fact is that no life could have been more uneventful than that of Sir Joshua. It was essential to his business as a portrait-painter that he should be on good terms with everybody, and his somewhat cold temperament made it easy for him to abstain from politics and almost every other activity except painting. His pocket-books give us a record of his sitters and their sittings day by day, but this is valuable only as it is used to settle the dates of his work and to explain the evolution of his style. Otherwise, a bare catalogue, or the pocket-books themselves printed without comment, would be as valuable as the "bulky" works of Taylor and Leslie.

What little criticism of man or painter is here attempted is for the most part mere twaddle. Here is an instance: "An unpleasant story has it that it needed the bribe of £500 to induce him in 1787 to promise to contribute three pictures to Boydell's Shakespeare Gallery." What, in the name of common sense, is there "unpleasant" in the fact that he expected to be paid for his professional work? And why is his very moderate price to be called a "bribe"? On p. 121 is reproduced a blunder of Leslie's—a blunder which it is surprising that a painter should have made, and one which seems, as is the way of such blunders, likely to be immortal. Dr. Beattie had expressed his pleasure in watching, in a mirror, the progress of his portrait, whereupon, "Leslie comments: 'Sir Joshua was painting from the reflection in the glass—his usual practice.'" Now, apart from the inherent improbability of a portrait-painter's habitually reversing the features and gesture of his sitters, there is one consideration which shows the impossibility of Leslie's explanation. If Sir Joshua was painting from the mirror, he must have faced it, in which case Dr. Beattie would have seen nothing in the glass but the back of the canvas, although he might possibly have seen the picture itself by direct vision. Reynolds undoubtedly had a mirror behind him that he might occasionally see his work reversed, thus getting a fresh notion of it when his mind and eye had become jaded—a "usual practice" with many painters besides himself.

The illustrations of the volume are almost uniformly reproduced from engravings, and have, therefore, no value beyond that of memoranda of composition. On the whole, there is nothing in the book to relieve it of the charge of superfluity. Why could we not have had a cheap reprint of Armstrong instead?

The 'Landseer' of this series is composed on the same lines as the 'Reynolds,' but is somewhat better. There is the same chronological treatment of pictures, in lieu of biographical detail which is wanting, but there is more description of the pictures

mentioned and something approaching criticism, and there is a better picture of the man. Some of the anecdotes are entertaining, and the matter is all less hackneyed. The illustrations are again almost all from engravings, but this is of less importance in the case of a literary painter like Landseer, who had nothing in common with the great masters but technical facility. The question in this case is rather whether the thing was worth doing at all than whether it is done in the right way.

Mr. Cadness is evidently a practical designer, but it cannot be said that he has produced a practical book on design. There are useful hints in it, and bits of good advice, but, as a whole, it is fragmentary, rambling, and unsatisfactory. Delivered by word of mouth to a class of students, and taken in connection with class work and individual criticism, it may have answered its purpose well enough; for the solitary student it takes far too much for granted, and is likely to prove confusing rather than helpful. Whether the book ever has been or ever can be written, on any other subject than perspective, from which the practical student of any branch of art could derive any real instruction, is, after all, more than doubtful, though he may, of course, get much assistance from books of plates of costume, ornament, or what not. His teaching he must continue to get directly from a master.

Except that he is a man with a robust interest in himself, to whom nothing that he has ever done or said can cease to be entertaining, it is difficult to see why Mr. Henley should have cared to reprint nine-tenths of the present volume. Not that it is bad—much of it is, for what it is, exceptionally good; but, after all, it is hack work. The matter is collected for the most part from various catalogues of various exhibitions where another man would have been content to let it lie. We all know the kind of brief "appreciation," semi-critical, semi-biographical, which is expected in such publications. Mr. Henley is too vigorous and self-confident a personality to be commonplace even in the execution of such tasks. He is sometimes illuminative, often sound, generally bumptious, and always picturesque; but a hundred-odd pages of such notes, many of them mere paragraphs, present a patchy and unsatisfying aspect. So to present them is, perhaps, in the author's own words, "to take one's self more seriously than he may do that would sit well with posterity."

Two longer essays, "A Note on Romanticism," with which it opens, and "A Critic of Art" with which it closes, go near to take the little book from the category in which we have ventured to place it. The first deals more with literature than with painting, and rather fails in grasp of the essential nature of the Romantic revolution in the latter art, but is readable and interesting enough. The second is a hearty tribute of admiration and personal friendship for the late R. A. M. Stevenson which it is good to have. It would be almost altogether admirable but for the hint of a sneer at the other Stevenson, whose name Mr. Henley rather unnecessarily persists in spelling "Lewis."

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*The Principles of Logic.* By Herbert Austin Aikins. Henry Holt & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 489.

Amid the flood of logical treatises that gushes from the press, passes under our notice, and soon vanishes in the ground-mist, this book is distinguished by some slight differences from the uniform color of the general mass. We seem to detect in it the beginnings of a more living and effective thought. It is by no means a scientific treatise devoted to the exposition of the theory of scientific reasoning. It is didactic mainly, and extremely elementary—spoon-food for the puerile mind. The author is influenced most by Venn's helpful (though often mistaken) work with a somewhat similar title. He has studied Mill and Jevons. He has picked up an idea or two from Lotze. But the authors he seems most to esteem are of the grade of Whately and Minto. He declares his intention of treating logic in a thoroughly objectivistic manner.

Perhaps our readers would like to know what is meant by an objectivist treatment. We will explain. Every man who sits down to write a logic, unless he is to content himself with copying right and left without regard to consistency, as many do, must ask himself, "What am I to set up as the criterion by which to distinguish good reasoning from bad?" Good reasoning is reasoning which conduces to the truth; and every single act of reasoning feels itself to be pursuing a general method conducive to the truth. This indisputable fact suggests the objectivistic criterion according to which, in order to determine whether a given reasoning is good or bad, one must examine whether, from the nature of things, the method which the reasoning understands itself to follow must lead to the truth, supposing that there is any such thing as attainable truth, and supposing that it leads to any conclusion at all; and the method must lead to the truth in the sense in which the reasoning understands that this method leads to the truth. With more or less consciousness and consistency, oftener less than more, the mass of English logicians stand upon that ground. The Germans, on the other hand, regard our instinctive judgments of rationality to be the ultimate criterion. That which a man's reason deliberately approves is *ipso facto* good reasoning. This is the subjectivist position.

The subjectivist says to the objectivist, "So you distrust the instinct of rationality? To what, then, do you resort in order to establish or overthrow the validity of reasoning? Why, to reasoning itself! How, then, do you know that this critical reasoning is valid? Even if I grant you that it is so, what informs you of this? Nothing but the instinct of rationality, *par die!* So, then, you only come back to our criterion after an aimless beating round. You are compelled at last, willy-nilly, to place your trust in the instinct of rationality. Besides, your critical reasoning requires premises. On what do they rest? On experience, say you. Experience presents itself in the form of percepts; but premises are propositions, and so of a different nature from percepts. Moreover, not *all* your premises can be perceptual judgments. One, at least, must be more general. What can assure you of the truth of that, if you refuse to trust to instinct?"

To this the English logician replies, "I am not skilled in your artificial instruments of thought; so, if you please, we will consider the very facts themselves. You speak of man's having an instinct of rationality. I suppose you mean that a man is sometimes constrained to believe a thing without being able to say distinctly how he is constrained, and that among the things which he is so constrained to believe is that numerous consequences are reasonable. If this is your meaning, then when you talk of 'trusting' to the instinct of rationality, you mean that we should acknowledge that we cannot help regarding a consequence as perfectly evident. When we are under such compulsion, it is altogether out of our power to have the smallest shade of doubt; and we seem to see plainly that we never could be brought to doubt it. To call the recognition that a proposition seems beyond all possible doubt and perfectly evident 'trust,' and to give this as a reason for following my first impressions of rationality in cases where I can and do entertain doubt, is as if you were to say to a man who had been compelled to surrender his watch to a highwayman, that, since he has already 'trusted' the highwayman with his watch, he will behave inconsistently if he refuses to go bail for him when the police catch him. A man's voluntary conduct cannot be compromised by anything beyond his control. To ask whether a given method of reasoning is good or bad is either mere pretence, or it implies a doubt whether the reasoning be good or not; and such criticism is idle unless the man has some control over his reasonings. In fact, it is next door to absurd to say he has a doubt and yet can exercise no control over his thought. The moment he sees room for doubt, he does doubt; and to ask him to decide according to the prompting of instinct, which is, more probably, a loose association of ideas, is to ask him to surrender reason altogether."

That is the way in which the dispute stands at this moment; the German not yet, apparently, having taken cognizance of what has been said only out of Germany. We can, however, imagine the discussion to be carried a few steps further, somewhat as follows:

*The German:* "But after all, why not trust to the instinct of rationality? You know that instinct is incomparably keener and surer than reason."

*The Englishman:* "Would you counsel the entire abandonment of reason? If you are only thinking of cases in which the dicta of instinct are imperative and unconditional, I have already admitted that then there is no option, for the proposition which instinct so urges upon us appears evident. But what if uninstructed instinct should say, 'I incline to prefer method A to method B,' while whispering, as she always does in those cases if you listen well, 'but, really, you must not trust to me'; while reason, on her side, makes it clearly evident that, in the long run, method B must lead to the truth, and there is nothing in the nature of things to prevent method A from going hopelessly wrong?"

*The German:* "You English are for ever talking of the 'long run.' What is this 'long run'?"

*The Englishman:* "It is a succession of instances, as they present themselves in experience, indefinitely long, yet not endless."

*The German:* "Well, I might, perhaps, admit that pure science, which can afford to wait a century, or, if need be, five centuries,

or indeed any time not endless, before coming to a conclusion, might trust to reason's 'long run,' provided instinct, on reconsideration, compels it to do so. But how about an individual who has to make up his mind promptly concerning a practical proposition, and be ready to act when the occasion arises?"

*The Englishman:* "The individual should consider that his case is of insignificant importance in comparison with countless other cases."

*The German:* "Yes, yes; we know how lofty is your British altruism, especially when it happens to be altruistic altruism; but the practical man had better do what his instinct teaches him is reasonable without regard to your objectivistic logic."

*The Englishman:* "Equally without regard to your subjectivistic logic; unless he is to do what he likes not because he likes, but because your system teaches that he likes to do as he likes."

This explanation will serve to show what the strictly objectivistic treatment is that Professor Aikins professes to adhere to. We shall not pretend to be neutral. We think that the objectivistic method is the only way of enlightening instinct; and that wherever logical rules are to be of any use, they must be rules of objectivistic logic. But Mr. Aikins professes to strike an original path only in applying the objectivistic method to necessary reasonings, where no rules of logic are needed—for that which is evident cannot be made more so. Moreover, he chiefly has in view practical reasonings where men must be guided by instinct or lose all claim to good sense. Neither is Mr. Aikins at all consistently objectivistic. If he had not told us so, we never should have discovered that he made any endeavor to be so. He talks of "the three laws of thought" in the good old way, the somewhat obsolescent way. He speaks of "the test of Inconceivability"; thus making it something to be trusted to, and thus surrendering the key to the English position. He ought to have said, "I will not make inconceivability a *test;* but whatever, with all my efforts, I cannot entertain the smallest doubt of, I won't pretend to criticise." The best we can say is, that the author appears to recognize, in some measure, the futility of the common books, and makes some endeavors to do better. Whether it be from immaturity, insufficient reading and reflection, or lack of vigor of thought, he has not succeeded to any striking extent. But he writes in an agreeable style and makes himself intelligible to every boy. There is a list of exercises filling nearly sixty pages of fine print; and many of these are very good indeed. There is also a sufficient index.

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*A Short History of Germany.* By Ernest F. Henderson. Two volumes. Pp. xii, 517, viii, 171. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The antiquary studies the past for its own sake: the historian, for the purpose of making the present intelligible. The present is influenced, perhaps not more profoundly, but in more directions, by the near past than by the remote; and in historical writing it is as legitimate as it is usual to describe the remote past with relative brevity and to amplify the narrative as it approaches the present. Mr. Henderson, however, in his 'Short History of Germany,' carries this method further than is defensible without some indication, in the title of the work, of his plan of treatment. To the period or periods from the battle in the Teutoburg forest to the election of Rudolf of Hapsburg as Emperor—nearly thirteen centuries—he gives but one-eighth of his total space, and in another eighth he conveys the reader through almost two and a half centuries, and down to Martin Luther. At this point the method of presentation changes almost abruptly. Room is found for careful characterization of leading persons and for illustrative details. To the period that begins with the posting of the ninety-five theses and ends with the Peace of Augsburg (1517-1555) even more space is allotted than to the longer and more recent period within which the narrower Germany attained Constitutional government and national unity (1815-1871). In reality, therefore, Mr. Henderson's work is a history of Germany from 1517 to 1871, with an introductory sketch covering the preceding fifteen centuries.

This introductory sketch is not nearly so well done as is the remainder of the work. It is, of course, much more difficult to write history at the rate of ten or twenty pages to the century than at the rate of two hundred pages to the century; but the thing can be done if the writer is able to discern the chief trend of events, and has the courage to suppress or put in the background all facts of secondary importance. Oddly enough, Mr. Henderson has displayed this ability and courage much more conspicuously in the chief part of his work than in the introduction. His history of Germany from 1517 to 1648 is almost exclusively a history of the Reformation and the religious wars; from 1648 to 1871 it is practically a history of the rise and aggrandizement of Prussia. In the introduction we grope vainly for any such leading motives. These might well have been found in the gradual formation of a German nationality, and in the persistent but unsuccessful effort to give to this nationality a satisfactory political organization. We do not say that these tendencies are not set forth; but they are not set in the right relief, chiefly because this part of the work is cumbered with details improper to so brief a sketch. Moreover, the author's treatment of the Middle Ages is unsympathetic and one-sided. He does not make the reader understand the historical necessity of feudalism; he does not appear to appreciate the historical mission of the Roman Church, nor the immense services it rendered to Germany and to Europe. He impresses upon the reader only the absurdities and oppressions of a decadent feudalism and the abuses of a corrupt church. The best that can be said of this part of the work is that the author is familiar with recent German work—at least with purely historical work—and that, as regards the naked facts, he is accurate. If he were more familiar with the historical investigations of German lawyers and economists, his construction of the facts would, we think, be sensibly modified, and his presentation of the mediæval church and the feudal state would gain in clearness of outline and in solidity.

The deficiencies of this introduction are the more to be regretted because they may prematurely discourage readers who would find the body of the work both profitable and enjoyable. Those who wish to get what is really best in the book will do well to begin at page 228 of the first volume, with the chapter entitled "German Life on the Eve of the Reformation." It is at this point that the conscientious reader who has begun at the beginning and has not fallen out on the road, loses the sense of being crammed with imperfectly elucidated facts. Not only are the central movements of German history since 1517 brought out in bold relief, but the story is made interesting. Mr. Henderson has no mean power of characterization, and the leading personages not only are in most cases justly estimated, but are vividly presented. He has also a keen appreciation of dramatic situations, and is not afraid to give it play. If his style is somewhat journalistic, it is on the whole good of its kind. Purists will be shocked by the omnipresent split infinitive, and a critic need not be a purist to be pained when "flown" is treated as the past participle of the verb to flow (vol. ii., p. 391). There is also a redundancy of purely decorative adjectives. These, however, are minor blemishes in writing that has the positive merits of making the author's meaning clear and of holding the reader's attention.

As regards the substantial value of the work, we may repeat what was said of the introduction, that the author is familiar with the recent literature, and we may add that for the period subsequent to 1517 he has evidently done considerable work in the sources, especially in memoirs. Here again, however, the economic basis of the historical development is not always sufficiently emphasized, and matters of public law are in many cases treated with a vagueness that suggests the caution of uncertainty. Diplomatic negotiations, also, especially where legal questions are involved, are rather hazily sketched, and sometimes the technical point at issue is not brought out. It is quite possible that the author's appreciation of these matters is more precise than his treatment shows: it is conceivable that he is afraid of wearying his readers if he calls upon them for any exact thinking. If this is the ground of his superficiality, we think that he has committed an error of judgment. Those who wish really to understand things have rights which a serious author should not disregard, and readers of the other sort will slide over technicalities with little friction.

Mr. Henderson's point of view is Protestant and Prussian, but the Protestant bias, in his case, is not so strong as the Prussian. He fails, indeed, to do full justice to the Roman Church, but he does not fail to show up the weak sides of the Protestant Reformation and of the reformers. His leaning toward Prussia makes him more one-sided, and his construction of modern German history is essentially the same as Treitschke's. He takes Frederick the Great's Silesian claims much more seriously than they were taken by that monarch himself, and his attitude toward William I. and Bismarck is one of complete sympathy. The victorious cause, however, has always a presumption in its favor, and it usually pleases not only the gods, but also the historians. Mr. Henderson's book is certainly the best work in English for the period which he really covers—from the beginning of the Reformation to the establishment of the new German Empire.

The work is fairly, though not exhaustively, indexed, and there is, at the end of

each volume, an excellent chronological table. This serves in some cases to correct misleading passages in the text. For example, the author states that, in the autumn of 1869, it became known that the Spanish throne had been offered to Prince Leopold (vol. ii., p. 418). As nothing is said of the Prince's refusal, nor of the final offer and acceptance, in the summer of 1870, the reader might naturally infer that the French agitation against the candidacy continued all through the winter of 1869-70 and the following spring. Of course, the earlier offers, of which there were several, were known to the French Government, but the French people heard nothing of the matter until July; and the brief popular agitations which preceded and accompanied the negotiations at Ems were confined to the first part of that month. The chronological table speaks only of Prince Leopold's acceptance, July 3, 1870, and of the chief diplomatic events which followed. Dates are too sparingly given in the text. It would greatly help the reader if they were freely inserted in connection with the marginal notes which indicate the contents of each paragraph. There are eight good maps. That which shows the growth of Prussia to 1806 would be more useful if the territory acquired by the Hohenzollerns before 1640 were made distinct, either by shading or by color, and not left in the same blank white as the territories which were not and did not become Prussian.

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*William Hazlitt.* By Augustine Birrell. [English Men of Letters.] New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Landor's comment on Hazlitt: "His books are delightful to read; pleasant always, often elegant and affecting in the extreme. But I don't get much valuable criticism out of him"—probably embodies a final verdict. Hazlitt's books are most agreeable reading—fresh, vigorous, vivid, full of happy touches, often eloquent, and always sincere; yet somehow they leave in the mind no seed that germinates. They never get below the surface of things. The secret is that Hazlitt is an impressionist. In neither philosophy, art, nor literature did he have any fixed principles or guiding lines; his criticisms are but happy expressions of the way the book, the play, the picture struck him at the moment, and the associations it called up; and he would probably have been indignant if called upon to give a reason for his likes or dislikes. When we find a professed literary critic grouping Campbell and Rogers as of the same school, and signalling Homer, the Bible, Dante, and Ossian as four of the supreme poems of the world, we should close his book at once and finally if we believed that these were the conclusions of his sober judgment. But they are nothing of the sort. In the one case, something in each of the two poets struck him as "timid"; in the other, he happened at the moment to be under the impression of the misty, grandiose semi-sublimity of the bard of cloudy Morven. These impressions he mistook for well-weighed judgments—"sinewy convictions" he calls them somewhere—and they were proof against reasoning or fact. Having hailed Bonaparte as the champion of human freedom and the foe of kings, not even that champion's destruction of popular liberties, nor his assumption of the tinsel and trappings of a histrionic imperialism, nor his attempted foundation of parasitic dynasties of mushroom monarchs, could shake his votary's constant devotion.

His few friendships, his many enmities, were of much the same sort. To him the world teemed with Doctor Fells. And he had a most biting tongue, and the shrewdest knack at finding the joint in the harness and the tender spot in the hide. He even brought the gentle Lamb to the verge of exasperation; yet we find him, in a letter to Hunt, wondering why "everybody has such a dislike to me."

Of Hazlitt's not very eventful life, Mr. Birrell has given a candid, vivacious, and extremely readable account. William Hazlitt was born in 1778, his father being a Unitarian minister, who, having incurred popular animosity by his humane efforts in behalf of some American prisoners, migrated with his family at the close of the war to America, where they remained about four years, returning to England in 1787. It was the wish of the father that William should be a minister, but for this he had no vocation, and remained with no definite aim in life until he was twenty years old, when he made the acquaintance of Coleridge, whose enchanting conversation kindled in him a sudden passion for literature and philosophy. Presently he was seized with an intense ambition to be a painter, visited the great galleries, and worked hard until 1805, when, in a fit of discouragement, he laid aside his brush and came forward as a writer on philosophical and political subjects. There was no living to be made out of these; so we next find him a Parliamentary reporter, and then a dramatic critic, thus feeling his way to his real vocation, which was that of essayist, or "professor of things in general." His criticisms, as discursive literary papers, were excellent, but they dealt rather with the play itself than with its presentation on the stage. As Talfourd says, "the players put Hazlitt out." The step to essayist and miscellaneous writer was an easy one, and some of his best work appeared in Hunt's *Examiner* between 1815-17. His brilliant but unequal lectures on English poets and the drama were delivered in the following year; and, though to the last degree impressionist, they can still be read with pleasure. He had now acquired a most charming style—flowing, easy, and vivid; at its best, little inferior to the incomparable Elia's. And it is oddly characteristic of his destiny to miss marks that he aimed at, and hit those at which he had not aimed, that the style which he most admired and desired to possess, was that of Jonathan Edwards—perhaps the man most unlike himself of all the children of men since Adam.

Hazlitt's aggressive liberalism and admiration for Bonaparte drew upon him the wrath of the truculent Gifford, who took every opportunity to fling at him shovelfuls of his coarse vituperation, until Hazlitt concluded, as he says, that "it is time to tell you what you are"; which he did, thoroughly and delightfully, in a published letter which remains a monumental specimen of a trouncing.

Of Hazlitt's matrimonial aberrations we shall say nothing, as the subject is neither edifying nor amusing, though, of course, not to be omitted in a biography. Mr. Birrell tells us enough about them, and not too much. Hazlitt's last years were darkened by poverty and sickness. His great work, the 'Life of Napoleon,' was a pecuniary, if not a literary, failure. He died, not uncheerfully, on September 18, 1830, having lived to see the downfall of the hated Bourbons. After all, his biographer does not go beyond the truth in saying: "A life freer from greed of gain or taint of literary vanity is not to be found in the records of English literature."

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*Animal Forms:* A Second Book of Zoölogy. By David S. Jordan, M.S., M.D., Ph.D., LL.D., President of Leland Stanford Junior University, and Harold Heath, Ph.D., Professor in Leland Stanford Junior University. D. Appleton & Co. 8vo, pp. 258, illustrated.

The text of this volume is very interesting and is handsomely illustrated and printed. Types of the larger groups of animals are dissected and described; the details given are few and selected. The work "is designed to meet the needs of the beginning student of zoölogy." The arrangement is good, but, proceeding from the lower to the higher, is perhaps better for advanced pupils. Naturally the beginner gathers his knowledge first from the highest types, then gradually enlarges it in the direction of the lower. As if in recognition of this, the introduction is built about the squirrel.

Our severest criticism relates to numerous items that need something more than positive assertion to make them accurate and scientific. Thus, we are told in regard to the bee: "The queen may lay three thousand eggs a day, and be fully occupied during the three or four years that she lives; the drones, or males, fertilize most of the eggs, and are then driven out from the hive, after a stay of a month or two; the eggs unfertilized by the drones are placed in large cells, and the young fed on pollen develop into males; the fertilized eggs may produce queens or workers at the discretion of the queen." Entomologists say the eggs are laid in the breeding season, not through the entire year, that the queen is impregnated by the drone but once, during her nuptial flight, and that thereafter she lays unfertilized eggs in drone cells and fertilized eggs in worker cells and in queen cells; discretion on the part of the workers in building the cells and in feeding the larvæ making the differences. The "cutworms" are classed with the millipeds in the crustacea; as they are the caterpillars of certain moths, they should be among the lepidoptera of the insects. On their raids the ants are said to capture plant lice and carry them into their nests and carefully tend them; in fact, it is while the aphids are feeding on the plants that the ants tend them. The lancelets are said to live in the sand in warm seas, but the habits of the pelagic species are not yet known. The figure named "Dogfish (*Squalus acanthias*)" has no spines on its dorsal fins and has an anal fin; which proves it to be a different species of a very different family. The short-nosed sturgeon in figure 101 is not correctly identified as *Acipenser sturio.* "Clinging with its tail head downward" is given as the habit of the seahorse. The under side of flounders is described as white, without mention of the

exceptions. It is asserted that the egg-laying time of fishes usually comes with the spring, but this is not the case with the Atlantic salmon, the dog salmon; the brook, lake, brown, and the blueback trouts; the lake whitefish and herring; the cod, tomcod, and others, which spawn in the fall or early winter. The habits of animals are said to depend on structure; it was the habit of creeping on the belly that modified the structure and lost the legs of snakes and many lizards. "Eyelids are present in all except the snakes, together with a third, known as the nictitating membrane"; various genera and families of the lizards have no eyelids, and few of the reptiles possess the third eyelid. The size of alligator eggs is likened to that of the goose eggs. The horned toads (lizards) are said to capture insects "by the aid of their long tongue." The turtles are said to "lay several perfectly spherical eggs"; some lay several hundred—few, if any, lay so small a number as several, and of some the eggs are not spherical. Quail and grouse also are said to lay several eggs; these birds are noted for large numbers of eggs. The duck mole is asserted to be the only egg-laying mammal, and to lay but one egg per year; Echidna also lays eggs, and two is the number laid by the duck mole. The brown or cinnamon bear "lives on berries and juicy herbs, while the grizzly prefers the flesh of animals which it kills"; a closer acquaintance with these animals will much reduce the value of this distinction. The following from "How Species Originate" exemplifies ease in establishing things that are, by means of things that may be:

"One bird may have a larger bill than another of the same brood which excels in length of wing. . . . Those best adapted to their surroundings will have the best chances of survival. . . . A premium is placed on length of wing or bill generation after generation, with the result that a long-billed species arises distinct from the long-winged which trace their ancestry back to the same parents."

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*An Introduction to the Bacteriological Examination of Water.* By W. H. Horrocks. London: J. & A. Churchill. 1901.

The dominance of scientific thought in this country by German ideals and German methods has brought with it a certain neglect of the work carried on by English investigators. Professor Horrocks's clear and complete summary of British practice in bacteriological water analysis furnishes a wholesome reminder that in sanitary science, at least, England still holds a pre-eminent position.

The first thing which this book reveals is the fact that the London bacteriologist by no means imitates the provincialism of his confrère in Berlin, for it contains reviews of the most recent work, on the Continent and in America as well as at home. For the first time since the Franklands published their 'Micro-Organisms in Water,' the literature relating to the conditions controlling the life of bacteria in water, the effect of light, sedimentation, and food supply, and the normal bacterial content of waters from various sources, is brought fully up to date. The work of Sirotinin, Garré, Freudenreich, and Horrocks himself on the effects of antagonism is of especial interest.

The quantitative analysis of water does not appear to have been so fully developed in England as in this country. In treating of its methods the author outlines a needlessly cumbrous process of plating, but fails to lay emphasis on the urgent need for nutritive media of a known composition, and for a definite period of incubation under standard conditions as to temperature, moisture, and oxygen. It cannot be too often stated that the one and only essential in this work is constancy of conditions. It is by no means necessary to obtain the development of the largest possible proportion of the total bacteria present, but only to be sure that the same proportion will always develop when a similar water is tested. Towards this ideal the work of the American Public Health Association Committee has brought us measurably near in this country. Professor Horrocks does not dwell on this need for uniformity of method at sufficient length. His treatment of the interpretation of the results of the quantitative analysis is also vague and inconclusive. It is, of course, difficult to formulate any general standards. Bacteriological tests are too delicate to give the off-hand judgments which are often demanded of them; but it is certain that, in the hands of an expert, they furnish the only thoroughly safe criterion of the character of a drinking-water. For instance, a study of the bacterial analyses of well waters which, if protected from surface drainage, rarely show the presence of any intestinal bacteria, would have saved our author from the extreme statement that, "unless surrounded by at least an acre of virgin ground, shallow wells must be considered its dangerous sources of supply."

In the treatment of the most important branch of water bacteriology, the qualitative analysis, Professor Horrock's work is admirable. The first chapter in this section includes descriptions of the bacteria normal to unpolluted waters, which are grouped under twelve headings. As the attention of bacteriologists turns away from the vain attempt to fix rigid species to the more fruitful task of studying the limited number of well-marked types, the question of grouping becomes of vital importance. Horrocks's groups of the green, fluorescent bacteria, the red chromogens and the blue and violet chromogens, correspond to the same classes in the Fuller and Johnson scheme usually accepted in this country. The English observer combines the yellow and orange chromogens in one type, and adds a group for *B. brunneus* and other forms which produce a brownish color in nutrient media. Horrocks's *B. aquatilis sulcatus* group corresponds to the Typhosus type of Fuller and Johnson, whose Proteus type (including *B. mycoides* and *B. mesentericus*), and Subtilis type, are combined by Horrocks in one. Similarly, the Cloacæ type, the Liquidus type, and the Superficialis type of the American scheme are placed together. In Horrock's Group VIII. are included certain forms belonging to the Typhosus type and the Candicans type of Fuller and Johnson. Finally, he adds special groups for the Micrococci, the Sarcinae, and the Spirilla.

After the water bacteria, the sewage bacteria are treated, beginning with the colon bacillus. In considering the significance of this organism, Professor Horrocks points out clearly the two conditions which must be fulfilled if it is to be used as evidence of the presence of sewage. First, the organisms present must show the reactions of the typical *B. coli* and must not belong to the so-called para-colon groups, and, second, the number of colon bacilli present must be carefully considered. The conclusion finally drawn is as follows: "I would say that a water which contained *B. coli* so sparsely that 200 c. c. required to be tested in order to find it, had probably been polluted with sewage, but the contamination was not of recent date." The author recommends in the case of such remote pollution the examination of large quantities of water concentrated by filtration through a Berkefeld filter. It seems to the reviewer very doubtful whether this concentration, or even the examination of samples as large as one hundred cubic centimeters, has any great practical sanitary value. If colon bacilli are found only in such small numbers, the chance that virulent typhoid germs are present must be almost infinitesimal.

The typhoid bacillus is treated by Horrocks in great detail, and he supplements an excellent account of its general cultural characteristics by a full discussion of the significance of the serum test. In treating of the isolation of the typhoid bacillus from water supplies, the author points out the very small chance of a positive result, quoting Wathelet, who found only ten colonies of *B. typhi* among six hundred colonies having the characters of the colon and typhoid groups, isolated from typhoid dejecta. Here should be mentioned also the results of Laws and Andrewes, who in 1894 failed to find the typhoid bacillus at all in the sewage of London, and isolated only two colonies from a long series of plates made from the sewage of a hospital containing forty typhoid patients. None of the positive isolations published prior to 1897 will stand, as the differential tests used were inadequate. Three recent cases are quoted, however, in which the evidence seems fairly conclusive—those published by Kubler and Neufeld in 1899, by Genersich in 1899, and by Fischer and Flatau in 1901. The last organism, from a well at Rellingen, was worked out with special care.

Three chapters which add notably to the value of Professor Horrocks's book, treat of subjects somewhat beyond its direct scope. In the section "Relation of a Quantitative Bacteriological Analysis to Filtration of Water through Sand" he considers the proper depth of filters, the rate of filtration, the frequency of scraping, the source of the bacteria in the effluent, and the significance of *B. coli* as a measure of purification. The brief chapter on nitrifying and de-nitrifying micro-organisms contains a good condensed review of the history of the subject. Finally, to an admirable treatment of the question of household filters, the author adds some observations of his own. Freudenrich, Schöfer, and other European observers obtained the most conflicting and obscure results as to the growth of water bacteria and typhoid and colon bacilli through Pasteur and Berkefeld filters. Woodhead and Wood, and Lunt, in 1897, went over the whole question with great thoroughness, and apparently established the fact that (1) all filter candles, if properly sterilized, give a sterile filtrate on the first day; (2) water bacteria grow through the filters and appear on the second or third

day of using; (8) typhoid and colon bacilli in tap water and sewage fail to grow through the filters even after a long period. Horrocks confirms these results for the Pasteur filters, and concludes that "if proper care be taken to prevent the direct passage of organisms through flaws in the material and imperfections in the fittings, the Pasteur-Chamberland filter ought to give complete protection from water-borne disease." With the Berkefeld filters, on the other hand, he found typhoid bacilli in the filtrate after nine to eleven days, when potable water was used as a medium, and after four days when broth cultures and sewage were filtered. He concludes that such filters must be sterilized by boiling water or saturated steam every third day.

It is to be regretted that the valuable citations all through the body of the 'Bacteriological Examination of Water' are not connected by reference figures with the titles in the bibliography, and still more that many of them are not represented by any titles in the bibliography at all. As a whole, however, the book is a credit to British sanitary science. On the qualitative side it could scarcely be improved; and for all working water bacteriologists and teachers of sanitary bacteriology it is simply invaluable.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Albee, Ernest. A History of English Utilitarianism. Macmillan. $2.75.
American Newspaper Annual, 1902. Philadelphia: N. W. Ayer & Son.
Baldwin, J. M. Development and Evolution. Macmillan. $2.60.
Bardeen, C. W. A Manual of Civics for New York Schools. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.
Barnett, J. M. Mother Goose Paint Book. The Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.25.
Briggs, C. A. The Incarnation of the Lord: A Series of Sermons. Scribners. $1.50.
Capes, W. W. The English Church in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries. Macmillan. 7s. 6d.
Chambers, R. W. Outdoorland: A Story for Children. Harpers. $1.50.
Chefs-d'œuvre of the Exposition Universelle, Parts 18 to 25. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son. $1 each.
Clerke, Agnes M. A Popular History of Astronomy during the Nineteenth Century. 4th ed. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Colt, Stanton. The Message of Man. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Complete Art Reference Catalogue. Boston: Soule Art Co.
Connolly, J. B. Jeb Hutton. Scribners. $1.20.
Cooley, C. H. Human Nature and the Social Order. Scribners. $1.50.
Craddock, C. E. The Champion. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.20.
Cunningham, D. J. Text-Book of Anatomy. Macmillan. $9.
Customs Tariff Act of 1897, Revised to July 1, 1902. R. F. Downing & Co.
Cuyler, Rev. T. L. Recollections of a Long Life: An Autobiography. The Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Dahn, Felix. A Captive of the Roman Eagles. (Translated by Mary J. Safford.) Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Davies, G. S. Frans Hals. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $14.
Douglas, Langton. Fra Angelico. 2d ed. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $6.
"Gilhooley, Lord." Son! Frederick A. Stokes Co. 80 cents.
Hadley, S. H. Down in Water Street. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Hornung, E. W. The Shadow of the Rope. Scribners. $1.50.
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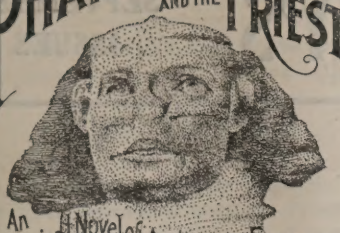

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 25, 1902.*

## The Week.

In his address to the Spanish war veterans in Detroit on Monday, President Roosevelt at last found tongue and opportunity to plead for reciprocity with Cuba, coincidently with a discussion of matters Philippine and Porto Rican, and the restatement of his now familiar "gospel of hope." It was in a sense carrying the war into the enemy's territory, for the Michigan delegation in Congress comprised, perhaps, the strongest opponents of the President's Cuban policy of last winter. If, as is reported, Representatives Corliss and William Alden Smith of Michigan have now surrendered to the President and foresworn their opposition to his demand for justice to Cuba, it is an encouraging indication of the growing strength of the President's policy, even in beet-sugar States. We cannot but hope that, from this time on, the affairs of Cuba will have the prominence in this campaign to which they are entitled and which has thus far been denied them.

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*Harper's Weekly* is in a state of agitation on the subject of Roosevelt. It doubts whether his habits of life are consonant with such effort as is required for the real work of a constructive statesman, such as he aspires to be. Wild gallops, rough-riding, and much conversing are not, in its judgment, the best signs of statesmanship. In short, it doubts "whether, after all, Mr. Roosevelt is the right kind of a man for the Chief Magistracy of the nation." The *Sun* also has its doubts, although they have hitherto been veiled. It had an article a few days since suggesting ex-President Cleveland as the kind of man for the crisis of 1904, and suggesting his former law partner, Francis Lynde Stetson, as a man fit to receive a nomination for the Presidency from the Democratic party. If this issue of the *Sun* came under Mr. Cleveland's notice, he must have been much surprised to find himself the object of such a flattering testimonial from that quarter, and also gratified to observe the *Sun's* high appreciation of Mr. Stetson. We commend the *Sun's* Democratic candidate to the favor of *Harper's Weekly* as the very opposite of the "wild-galloping, rough-riding, much-conversing" Theodore Roosevelt, and therefore eminently fit to receive its support.

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Consternation reigned in the higher circles of the Republican party when Speaker Henderson's resignation, and his reasons therefor, became known. President Roosevelt made the mistake of sending him a telegram asking him in urgent terms to change his purpose. This was an error of judgment, since it disclosed the extreme anxiety which Mr. Henderson's action has awakened. Most of the politicians who have been interviewed have assumed that there must be some other reason for Mr. Henderson's withdrawal than the one he assigned, but no evidence has been advanced to support that belief. On the other hand, a morning newspaper says that "Mr. Hepburn received a telegram yesterday from Gen. Henderson, in which the Speaker said it would be impossible for any person outside the State to imagine the bitterness engendered there. He added that in Waterloo, for which he had obtained a public building costing $150,000, the two Republican newspapers were exhibiting personal hatred toward him." The prevailing view among the Republican leaders seems to be that, even if Mr. Henderson thought that the Iowa platform went too far in its treatment of Trusts and the tariff, he ought to have kept his mouth shut till after the election.

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Massachusetts and Delaware are two more States whose Democrats have done away with Bryanism and free silver. There never was the slightest excuse for the acceptance of these doctrines in the Old Bay State. Yet the Gold Democrats have calmly allowed George Fred Williams and his gang to control the party councils until this year, when his domination and, it is to be hoped, he himself have been done away with once and for all. But the slowness with which the party is recovering from the attack of Bryanism was shown on September 17, when the Washington Democrats reaffirmed the Kansas City platform with all its follies. Evidently the party is not to be got together this year, despite the magnificent opportunity afforded by the break in the Republican party over what is essentially a Democratic issue, and on which a united and well-led Democratic party should have no difficulty in capturing the House. Among the many encouraging signs to be noted, besides the action of such States as New Hampshire and Massachusetts, is the recantation of Senator Cockrell of Missouri. That Democratic veteran is shrewd enough to see that the tide is turning and the silver issue "played out." Of course, he does not free his mind in these words, but he none the less finds it "inadvisable to press the issue" at present. It is to be hoped that other leaders of influence will now return to financial sanity, and improve the unparalleled opportunities of the political hour.

With the choice of D. Clinch Heyward for Governor of South Carolina comes, it is believed, the dawning of a better day for the politics of that State. The choice means, if we read the signs aright, a lessening of the hold on the State of Senator Tillman and his following, and a return to control by the educated men of affairs, who in the past placed many citizens of national reputation both in the Governor's chair and in the United States Senate. In its immediate aspects it is a triumph for decency in politics. No one a year ago would have ventured to predict the defeat of the Tillman following. For years that faction, having its origin in the growth of the agricultural population, securing its strength in the spread of the populistic Farmers' Alliance, and buttressed by the Liquor Dispensary machine, has ruled the State, sending Tillman and men of his calibre to the State's Executive Mansion and to Washington. It was the régime of the poor, unlettered whites, in whose marshalling Tillman exhibited something of the skill of a political leader, and to whose untutored ears his uncouth mouthings were oratory, and his demagogic championship of the rights of the "lower classes" statesmanship. But cotton-mill prosperity has offset cotton-field extension, the balance of power has shifted, and the people of the State have tired of buffoonery and fist fights in politics. This change in popular feeling was emphasized in the primaries just closed. In contrast with the swashbuckling Tillmanites, Capt. Heyward appeared the cultured gentleman. Against their county and State organizations, made up of veterans in politics, he arrayed a volunteer organization of young men. To their abuse, their characterization of him as a Trust advocate, a Roman Catholic, an aristocrat, and an opponent of everything for which the "Reformers" had fought, his only reply was that he was ready to serve his State if the voters wished; and altogether he conducted one of the cleanest campaigns the State has ever known.

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Even more significant than his victory is the relegation of the political hacks to the rear. Only two of the men chosen for State or Federal office were old enough to have served in the Confederate army, and many on the list were born after Appomattox. They are of the new South, identified with its material advance, and seeing in Populism only a drag. Their leader, Capt. Heyward, is only thirty-eight years of age, a graduate of Washington and Lee University, and described by his home papers as a man with no private interests to serve. He enters office unpledged, un-

hampered by combinations, and with a purpose to be Governor in fact as in name. Thus early he has put his finger on an evil, an outgrowth of the primary system—the practical transfer of appointments to office from the Governor to the State and county party organizations. The new Governor is under obligations to neither organization, and, while declaring his belief in home rule as a principle, and his intention to give due weight to county organizations concerning affairs within their immediate view, he has served notice that he will examine into the character, reputation, and fitness of all men recommended to him for appointment. He further declares his intention to devote himself to the development of every material interest of the State, and he aptly summed up his attitude on the race question by quotation of the words of Wade Hampton: "God bless all my people, black and white."

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With the election of C. F. Murphy, the "Sport" of the late triumvirate, Tammany Hall becomes again a one-man power. In form only, we hasten to say, for the new chief takes his orders from Croker at Wantage, and is furthermore wholly under the thumb of "Big Tim" Sullivan—the only brave in sight whom the Wigwam universally fears and respects. "Big Tim" undoubtedly prefers to have his chestnuts pulled for him; and as the Wantage influence wanes, Murphy will more and more assume that self-effacing office. Lovers of good government could ask for nothing better than the present situation. The election of a figurehead—or, as Devery more picturesquely puts it, a "lobster head"—as leader of Tammany can only foster the demoralization of the organization, signs of which are everywhere apparent. For the first time in years, and possibly in its history, the delegates of Tammany Hall are going to a Democratic State Convention unpledged—nay, without a slate, a leader, or a candidate. No delegation of mere mugwumps or reformers could find itself in a more miserable, disorganized condition. It is a rare opportunity, we believe, for those who share Mr. Shepard's and Mr. Peabody's ambition to reorganize the Democratic party, to take the direct and courageous course. The farcical regency of Murphy will last for some time—until a divided and humiliated Tammany compels Sullivan, or some other real leader, to come out into the open. During this time a genuine Democratic movement might permanently cripple the power of Tammany Hall.

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Gov. Stone was constrained on Monday night to order out the Thirteenth Regiment of State troops. This is not the first call that he has made. Other troops have been under arms looking on in an idle, desultory way for weeks, while men desiring to work have been assaulted and murdered around them, and almost under their very eyes. To keep these troops idle is an act of injustice in itself, since every one of them is perforce neglecting his own vocation. We have heard of some cases where the business of officers of the militia is going to destruction by reason of their service to the State, and yet they have done little or nothing to put down the disorder and violence which called them from their homes. It is high time for Gov. Stone and all others in authority to contemplate the situation in which society will soon be placed without the usual supply of coal. It has already been announced that sufficient fuel cannot be obtained in either city or country to heat the public schools. Therefore, we are facing a suspension of the whole system of public education. This is only a part of the calamity that society is approaching. The same want that closes the schools will deprive the poorer classes of the means of heating their rooms and cooking their food. Possibly the factories and shops which furnish the employment may continue to run on soft coal, but it is inevitable that these will be compelled to pay an enhanced price for their motive power, with the coming of cold weather, which will bring a greatly increased demand for all kinds of fuel. No words can exaggerate the calamity impending if means are not found to secure the reopening and working of the mines of anthracite.

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As is usual under such circumstances, the fall of the New York bank reserves below the 25 per cent. ratio to deposits has been followed by much ill-informed discussion. It so happens that this is only the third occasion in ten years when such a deficiency was reported. The last occasion was in November, 1899, when the outbreak of the Boer War, with London's consequent recall of capital, came upon an active money market and an outflow of currency to the West. In the second week of July, 1893, a similar deficiency occurred. It was then occasioned by the panic withdrawals of currency by Western banks—a movement which, along with heavy export of gold to Europe, drew out of the New York bank reserves $40,000,000 within seven weeks, a loss of one-third of the whole supply. The present situation of the banks has little or no resemblance to that of 1893, and it differs from 1899 in that no war or other shock to financial confidence has upset the money market. Described concisely, the meaning of last Saturday's statement is that the New York banks entered the crop-moving season ill prepared to meet the recall of currency to the West, and were then taken wholly off their guard by the sudden rise in the Treasury's surplus.

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It has been declared, since Saturday's deficit was announced, that the situation is simple enough, since the purpose of the surplus reserve is its use in emergencies. This is entirely true; but something more remains to be said about the cause of the present emergency and of what the banks have a right to do at this time. The National Bank Act speaks on this point as follows (section 31):

> "Whenever the lawful money of any association [bank] in any of the cities hereinafter named shall be below the amount of 25 per centum of its deposits, and whenever the lawful money of any other association [that is, 'country bank'] shall be below 15 per centum of its deposits, such association shall not increase its liabilities by making any new loans or discounts otherwise than by discounting or purchasing bills of exchange at sight."

In other words, the bank must cut short its accommodation to the market after its reserve has passed below the limit; and severe penalties, discretionary with the Comptroller, are prescribed for continuous refusal by a bank to do so. In 1893 it was impossible for the banks to keep good their percentage of reserve without aggravating a highly critical situation, and the Banking Department recognized the fact. To-day the general situation is not critical at all, and no such dilemma as now exists would have arisen had not money-lending institutions persistently fed fuel to the stock speculation of last summer. Every impartial critic has warned the local banks, during six months past, that they were heading for precisely this situation. Practically every weekly bank statement since last winter has shown a surplus reserve lower than at any corresponding date in a dozen years, except for 1893. On the whole, it is quite as well that this last note of warning should have been sounded loudly from the Clearing-house returns themselves. Fortunately, the banks are able, without distressing any non-speculative borrower, to regain and keep a proper status of reserves, and they should be required to do so.

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Commander McLean's interpretation of his duty of maintaining Isthmian neutrality has led to almost comic results. Some two thousand Colombian troops have been disarmed and transported across the Isthmus as ordinary passengers, and their arms and munitions carried separately as freight, both arms and men being under the protection of an American naval force. The paradoxical side of the proceeding is this, that these troops were technically sovereigns of the route which they traversed under surveillance, for the United States guarantees not only the neutrality of the Panama railroad, but also the "rights of sovereignty and property which New Grenada has and possesses over the said territory." Commander McLean told his Colombian brothers in arms: "You are sovereigns, but you must not fight on this particular part of your sovereignty, and you must not even

pass in an array which might make others wish to attack you." This, it must be said, is a peculiar position for sovereigns to find themselves in, and yet the spirit, if not the form, of the act is fully justified by precedent. The United States has set itself merely to the practical task of preventing the various revolutions from interfering with traffic. We fear, however, that Colombian susceptibilities may be offended by Commander McLean's personally conducted military excursion. The whole affair recalls Mr. Hannis Taylor's epigram, in his 'International Public Law,' that he who can reconcile the right of intervention with national independence is fit to pass on to the problem of predestination and free-will.

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Rear-Admiral Lord Charles Beresford has always spoken with a frankness which has made him the *enfant terrible* of the British marine. This character was perfectly borne out by his naval confidences to the press on landing in this city. Naturally he was asked to talk about the recent naval manœuvres, and on manœuvres in general, about which, as usual, he told truths with a smiling irresponsibility. He said that manœuvres "prevent men from going to war as an experiment." Now whether this be the truth or not, it is a striking admission of the pent-up bellicosity that is found in every great navy. We doubt if manœuvres are the proper exorcism for this demoniac possession, but there is no doubt of the fact that sub-calibre practice and the destruction of targets pall, and that the naval mind longs for an experiment upon real ships and real human lives. It is well to be reminded that in naval science we are building up an experimental method which most logically requires living subjects to work upon. If Lord Beresford can prove that manœuvres dull this scientific zeal, he will have discovered a sedative which civilization has longed for in vain.

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Minister Pelletan's amazing speech at Bizerta only shows that it is unseemly for a naval minister to stand on an African headland and talk as Capt. Mahan writes. We hasten to add that the ambition and the indiscretion do a certain credit to M. Pelletan in his naval, if not in his ministerial capacity. Sailor-men are supposed to have that familiarity with international law and high diplomacy which breeds contempt, and M. Pelletan's wanderings, over the coffee and cigars, from Suez to Gibraltar and then across to Corsica, sweeping imaginary foes from the Mediterranean, were in the broadest style of nautical grandiloquence. So thoroughly is it understood that a jolly seadog like the French Naval Minister must be taken in the spirit of his remarks, rather than in the letter, that even the Germans, whom M. Pelletan qualified with "barbarism and brutality," feel that such words are inoffensive in the context of a "champagne speech." England, who was in imagination driven back from the straits and the canal, takes her constructive discomfiture with perfect equanimity. Italy has yet to be heard from, but will presumably follow a like course. So no harm is done. But it must cause a certain amount of trouble to a Ministry to be always explaining that so loquacious a member as M. Pelletan means absolutely nothing.

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The process of Russification which works so admirably in barbaric Asia is being applied with extraordinary vigor in civilized Finland. Already the Finns are placed under laws authoritative only in Russian, and find the Finnish version regarded as an official concession. Russian governors, contrary to the law and precedent of the land, which Russia had engaged to respect, will displace Finns in every province, and permanently. The appeal of the municipality of Helsingfors against the replacing of the local police with Cossacks has been refused by the Emperor. Everywhere the Russian official succeeds the native. The process of crushing out a national spirit under the forms of humanity has rarely been so carefully planned and so unsparingly promoted. Germany in the conquered provinces pursued a more gradual way. It should be remembered, too, that the Russification of Finland means, broadly speaking, the substitution of an inferior civilization. It is this which gives to the spectacle a peculiar poignancy. No relief is in sight; but one must imagine that the better educated Finns will not wish to become subjects in a Russian province, and the prophecy might be ventured that we shall see from Finland an emigration of the class represented by the French Huguenots and our own Puritans.

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The correspondents did not think it worth while to cable the proceedings of the Italian Socialist congress at Imola. but it was an event of high importance for Italian politics, and not without bearings upon all nations which have influential Socialist parties. In a word, the Socialist organizations of Italy, by a vote of 521 out of 800 delegates, declared against the revolutionary branch of the party, and gave their adhesion to so-called moderate, or parliamentary, Socialism. This means that the "war of classes" and "the social revolution" cease to be orthodox Socialist doctrine in Italy—a decision which recalls to leadership Signor Turati, who for lukewarmness was read out of the party last spring. M. Guesde and others of the "Reds" witnessed the rout of the revolutionary faction. It would be unsafe to accept the vote of a convention as an indefinite mandate, but it seems reasonably certain that the Turati Socialists will continue to work with the Ministry, and generally will apply themselves to the gradual attainment of specific industrial reforms. Well-wishers of Italy will hope to see the conversion of Socialism into a genuine Liberal movement. Whether that can be, will depend upon the personal ability of Turati and his lieutenants—and no little upon the integrity of the rank and file. Without exaggerating the importance of the Imola congress, it has at least raised a legitimate hope that the power of professional politicians is to be broken, and that the Italian proletariat is at last to make itself felt in a salutary way. See on this head our correspondent's account of the recent sympathetic strike in Florence.

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It would be unwise to give an alarmist interpretation to the dispatches which tell of a Boxer uprising in the province of Sze-Chuen, and yet the gravity of the situation is apparent. The province itself borders Tibet. The centre of revolt, the capital city of Cheng-Tu, lies a round thousand miles from Pekin, five hundred from French Tonquin, and nearly as far from British Burma, with no approach by railway except on the Burmese side. This complete isolation means, of course, that the suppression of the present disorders, which have already extended over two months, depends upon the power and good will of the newly appointed Viceroy, Tzen-Chun-Hsuan. However wild the situation might become, it would be impossible for the European Powers to repeat the campaign of Pechili, and it is needless to say that the Imperial Government is almost impotent in the premises. But it should not be forgotten that the fanatical secret societies of China have never yet had a sufficiently perfect organization to conduct a genuine revolutionary movement. Civil war in any proper sense has for centuries been impracticable in China, and even Prince Tuan's attempt of 1900, with its appearance of regular warfare, the possession of the capital, and the support of the army, was hardly more than a riot on a tremendous scale; though it took the genius of Secretary Hay to see the reality under the show. Without the intervention of the Powers it is probable that the revolt would have smouldered out gradually. One may assume that the rising in Sze-Chuen will, no more than the Boxer rebellion in Pechili, assume revolutionary proportions. But it is an amazing state of things when a horde of 50,000 fanatics can swiftly be assembled and hurled against a capital city. And it is a striking reminder of the real weakness of the Imperial Government, that it should have no other means of securing public order in a province containing over 67,000,000 souls, than to change an old Viceroy for a new.

### *PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT AT CINCINNATI.*

On Saturday last three Republican statesmen of the highest rank made speeches on the relation between the tariff and the so-called Trusts. President Roosevelt spoke at Cincinnati, Secretary Shaw at Chicago, and Senator Fairbanks at Anderson, Ind. None of them threw much light on the subject, but all of them testified unconsciously to the significance of Speaker Henderson's withdrawal from Congress and of the reasons which he gave therefor. This sudden and simultaneous unlocking of tongues can be accounted for in no other way. We cannot say that any one of the three did himself much credit or helped the cause for which all of them profess to labor.

Protectionism was originally based upon the theory that American producers needed the shelter of a tariff for a certain time, in order to give them a start and enable them to compete with foreign producers. It has no other logical ground. It was a part of the theory also that the rate of duty should be no more than sufficient to balance the cost of production between American and foreign manufacturers, and that it should continue no longer than the time needed to bring about that condition. Its advocates always maintained that, although domestic consumers would be compelled for a time to pay higher prices for the protected articles, domestic competition would soon bring down the prices to the general level, so that the producers of them would receive no greater profits than other members of the community. This was a plausible doctrine, and it is quite certain that if the protectionist party in the early days, the days of Henry Clay, had said that it was a good thing *per se* and ought to last forever, it never would have gained a foothold at all. It would have been expelled from the halls of Congress with derision.

There is good reason for thinking that domestic competition would have brought down the prices of protected articles to the proper level if competition itself had not been throttled. As soon as the protected classes saw that their own prophecy was likely to come true, they took steps to neutralize it by combining together. This they accomplished by uniting all the producers in particular lines of industry into Trusts. The object was to control the home production, but that would have been of no avail unless importation could be limited also. This new and strange development took the leading Republicans of the country by surprise, and some of them, notably Senator Sherman of Ohio, declared that they would vote to repeal all duties on articles thus monopolized. Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson of the University of Pennsylvania, one of the foremost publicists on the protectionist side, took the same position, saying that protection had no ground to stand on if it became the shelter of monopoly.

President Roosevelt, although making a campaign against the Trusts, is opposed to this plan of dealing with them. In his speech at Cincinnati, he said:

> "The language commonly used by the advocates of the method implies that they mean all articles made by large corporations, and that the changes in tariff are to be made with punitive intent toward these large corporations. Of course, if the tariff is to be changed in order to punish them, it should be changed so as to punish those that do ill, not merely those that are prosperous. It would neither be just nor expedient to punish the big corporations as big corporations; what we wish to do is to protect the people from any evil that may grow out of their existence or maladministration."

The first thing to be noted here is that the tone of the speech is apologetic. The President has become in appearance a defender of the organizations that he has been arraigning as dangerous and oppressive to the community. The change of tone is noticed and welcomed by the *Sun*, which, a few days ago, was comparing Mr. Roosevelt to Eugene V. Debs and William J. Bryan. Victories are not won in the political field by occasionally espousing the side of the enemy.

The next thing that calls for criticism in the foregoing paragraph is the misuse of the word "punitive." Nobody desires to punish the Trusts for any wrongdoing in the past. Those who think with Senator Sherman and Professor Thompson that protection by tariff should be taken away from domestic monopolies, do not say that the Trusts do wrong in taking what the law gives them. The thought of punishment does not enter into their aims. They merely desire to change the law and prevent the continuance of the operation. The President, therefore, should have used the word preventive instead of punitive; but if he had done so, this part of his speech would have had no meaning whatever.

The President next says that "some of those corporations do well and others do ill. If, in any case, the tariff is found to foster a monopoly which does ill, why, of course, no protectionist would object to a modification of the tariff sufficient to remedy the evil." But this phrase is quite inconsistent with the remainder of his argument, in which he contends that "the Trusts can be damaged by depriving them of the effects of the protective tariff only on condition of damaging all their smaller competitors, and all the wage workers employed in the industry." If this is true, it applies with equal force to those which do ill and to those which do well. Any ill-doing Trust, if there is such a thing, could easily shelter itself by starting a few small concerns to represent the minority, and to create the semblance of competition.

If President Roosevelt has no better message than this for the Western people, his mission will bear no fruit. He is playing into the hands of the very men who are seeking his overthrow, and even now they believe that they have nothing to fear from him.

### *SPEAKER HENDERSON'S SURRENDER.*

Although it has been known for six months past that there was considerable fermentation among the Republicans of Iowa on the tariff question, nobody outside the State was prepared for Mr. Henderson's announcement of his intention to withdraw from public life. This not only discloses a schism in the party in the West, but brings this schism into the next House of Representatives. It necessitates the choice of a new Speaker, and in the selection of the Republican nominee for that office the issue of tariff reform will surely enter. Mr. Henderson says that he withdraws because he is opposed to any change whatever in duties on imports, but he rather inconsistently favors reciprocity with Cuba. "I do not agree with many of my people," he says, "that Trusts, to which I am and have been opposed, can be cured or the people benefited by free trade, in whole or in part." What free trade is in whole we can easily understand. It means the repeal of all protective duties—which nobody in Iowa, certainly no Iowa Republican, has ever dreamed of. Free trade in part would mean any reduction of any protective duty—as, for instance, a lowering of the duty on steel billets from six dollars per ton to five dollars per ton. Such a reduction would, according to Mr. Henderson's view, be ruinous to the country. Yet in another place he says that he has never been opposed to making "needed changes" in the tariff, but he extinguishes that gleam of light by adding:

> "I must say, and emphatically, that I do not believe that a single schedule of the Dingley tariff law can be so amended as to relieve the people from the oppression of Trusts or combinations of capital, however named, and that such action may involve the retarding of our expanding commerce and getting and holding of foreign markets. Indeed, I believe such a plan to be fraught with grave dangers to the people."

Mr. Henderson concludes his interview on this subject by saying that he is "opposed to unnecessary legislation which would plunge the country into panic and bring back the horrors of the last Democratic Administration." He refers to the panic of 1893, which was brought on by the Republican legislation of 1890, including the Sherman Silver Law and the McKinley tariff. The direful consequences of the former are now pretty well understood. It is quite generally conceded that the process of injecting the proceeds of 4,500,000 ounces of silver monthly into the currency in the form of new legal-tender notes, created distrust in financial circles at home and abroad—a distrust that grew with every monthly purchase of bullion. This alone would have produced a panic

in time, but it was accelerated by the McKinley tariff, whose declared purpose was "to reduce the revenue," and which accomplished its aims to such an extent that the outgoing Harrison Administration barely escaped a deficit, while the incoming Cleveland Administration had to face one immediately. These two measures made the panic of 1893 inevitable. Everybody could see that the gold reserve in the Treasury must be used to meet the current expenses of the Government; and how could the greenbacks and the Sherman notes be redeemed when the gold reserve was drained off for other purposes? Everybody knows, moreover, that the Wilson tariff bill was not passed till August 15, 1894. The last Democratic Administration simply fell heir to the mischievous legislation of the preceding Republican Administration, of which Mr. Henderson himself was no inconsiderable factor in the House.

The most probable explanation of Mr. Henderson's withdrawal is, that he feared that he would be beaten in the coming election. He must have known the state of feeling among his constituents, and he would hardly have yielded to the opposing forces in his own party if he had believed that he could be elected in spite of them. At all events, his withdrawal is the most striking demonstration possible of the strength of the tariff-reform sentiment among the Republicans of the Middle West. It must have tremendous influence in stiffening the purpose of the young and progressive element to burst the bonds of the high tariff. Hundreds of thousands of plain people—farmers in the West, and small shopkeepers, clerks, and laborers in the East—have felt with growing unrest the pressure of the tariff. They have seen the cost of living rise far faster than their earnings, and they have laid the blame largely at the door of the Dingley Act and of the Trusts that have flourished under it. When Senator Hanna and Speaker Henderson join in the sentiment that not "a single schedule of the Dingley Act can be so amended as to relieve the people from the oppression of the Trusts," then the Western farmer, who sells in an open market and buys in a protected one, who is therefore convinced that he pays toll both going and coming, begins to think of electing as Senator or Congressman some one who has the courage and independence to amend the preposterous Dingley Act.

This desire for revision is not a sudden outburst. Any one who is familiar with the temper of the West, as revealed in the newspapers or in common talk, knows that the fire has long been smouldering. Congressman Babcock knew it last winter, when he proposed to strike protection from every commodity controlled by a monopoly. The flames have been fanned, not merely by Democrats and Populists, but by the most conservative Republicans. The time has come, then, for the protected interests to stop playing about this volcano; to make timely concessions; to grant at least a little in order to save much. It has not been for the sake of providing entertaining reading that Republican conventions in Oregon, Idaho, Wisconsin, and Iowa have recently declared for revision. The Republicans are in such dead earnest about the matter that Speaker Henderson says their bitterness in his own district can hardly be imagined. They want reform, and sooner or later they will get it. If President Roosevelt does not lead in the fight, he will be superseded by some one who will.

### *THE RUMANIAN CIRCULAR.*

The condition of the Jews in Rumania forms the subject of an eloquent discourse on the part of Secretary Hay in the form of an official protest addressed to the Powers of Europe, the signatories of the Treaty of Berlin. The fact that we were not one of the parties to the treaty is acknowledged by Mr. Hay. He rests his appeal on broad principles of humanity and morality, and thus far he deserves the support of all men in all countries whose hearts are moved by the spectacle of suffering and injustice. "He takes my life who takes the means whereby I live," is what the persecuted Jew has been saying for a thousand years in all the countries of eastern Europe, and the saying is no less true now than it was at any other time in the world's history. The Jew is not subjected to the thumbscrew and the boot to compel him to disclose his treasures to needy princes. Modern cruelty takes another form. It begins at the bottom of the ladder instead of the top, and prevents the Jew from earning a living in fair competition with his fellows. This form of cruelty is apparently increasing in severity in the countries named. In Russia, not long since, the Jews were actually expelled from large districts where they had resided from time immemorial. Notwithstanding all these facts, we are not exactly the people to point the finger of scorn at other nations in this particular. It is open to Rumania to retort upon us that we have several millions of citizens who are excluded from a large range of employments, not on account of their religious belief, but on account of their complexion. Of the two reasons for discrimination, the one based upon color is the more unreasonable, since the Ethiopian cannot change his skin, whereas any man may change his religion. If the Rumanian Minister of Foreign Affairs spares us such retort, it will not be for want of sufficient material.

The semi-official *Vossische Zeitung* speaks of Secretary Hay's circular as "one of the most interesting documents in contemporary history," and as "one of the most remarkable political acts of the present day." This is the general opinion of the European press, and in many directions the humanitarian intention and skilful form of the American note find generous recognition. But all European comment, so far, concerns the spirit rather than the letter of this unique document, which diplomacy will, after all, judge very strictly by its letter. Accordingly, it would be as foolish to take the friendly comment of the press of England, France, and Germany to be indicative of the success of the note, as it would be to regard the raging of the anti-Semitic journals as a sign of its failure.

Secretary Hay's appeal to the signatories of the Treaty of Berlin is indeed extraordinary both in substance and in form. The protest against Rumanian oppression of the Jews is of two-fold character. First, Mr. Hay alleges a specific grievance—the forced emigration to the United States of an undesirable class of refugees; second, he avers that this oppression is of so extreme and inhumane a nature as to warrant intervention by the Powers. This double character—practical and humanitarian—of the protest should be kept clearly in mind, for it is evident that what might be excellent humanitarianism might or might not be good diplomacy. Any appeal against an unwelcome immigration at New York or maltreatment of the Jews on the Danube would naturally be made to the offending party, and it seems to be implied in the note that Secretary Hay has made tentative and unsuccessful efforts to open direct negotiations with Rumania. However that may be, he has chosen finally a method rarely used except against semi-civilized nations—that of an appeal for joint action by the Powers.

But, again, his initiative is of an unprecedented kind. Finding that under her terms of inauguration by the Treaty of Berlin, Rumania is forbidden to discriminate against any person on grounds of religion, Secretary Hay points out that this contract has been broken by Rumania to the detriment of the United States. For this reason he requests the signatory Powers to take measures to make Rumania keep faith. Now the United States is not a party to the Treaty of Berlin; and if that were the whole of our case, Mr. Hay would undoubtedly receive an identical note reminding him that in this matter neither the signatory Powers were under contract to the United States, nor was Rumania, with which direct negotiation was always practicable. But Mr. Hay is too fine a hand at the diplomatic game to lay himself open to so facile a rebuff. To provide against that contingency, he secured the support of the British Foreign Office. The terms of its circular to the signatory Powers have not been published, but they are

undoubtedly such as to require a distinct and formal reply. The United States becomes technically associated with the English note, and the plea for the Rumanian Jews can neither be ruled out of court nor answered by a curt identical note. Whatever the outcome of the case, it will remain as a signal instance of joint action by Great Britain and the United States in behalf of an oppressed race. Secretary Hay, too, will receive a certain credit for contriving to appear at a tribunal before which he really has no standing whatever.

As for the grievance: in the three years ending July 31 last some twenty-one thousand Rumanian immigrants, presumably Jews for the most part, have come to this country. Our immigration laws have provided for the deportation of all paupers, criminals, and diseased persons, so that those who have been passed are technically at least desirable immigrants. They have been in any case an inconsiderable fraction of our total immigration. If the remaining 400,000 Jews of Rumania constitute a menace to us, we have the remedy of making our immigration laws more rigid, even to excluding Rumanians as we do Chinese. Such a course we should not take, but it would be far more consonant with our traditions than is interference with the domestic concerns of a remote Balkan state.

Then it might fairly be maintained that Rumania has outlived her tutelage. Clearly, no treaty erecting a dependent into an independent state has indefinite duration. Sooner or later the new nation outgrows the conditions of its founding, and assumes all the dignities of an independent power. Rumania may hardly admit that dependence upon the signatory Powers which Mr. Hay assumes with such confidence. She is a valued adjunct to the Triple Alliance, to the members of which her obligations are more recent and vital than to the Powers at large. Her area of approximately 50,000 square miles far exceeds that of Portugal, or Greece, and is a third larger than the combined areas of Denmark, Holland, and Belgium. Her population of 5,912,000 souls is greater than that of Denmark, Greece, Holland, Portugal, Sweden, or Norway. Her annual revenue is nearly 9,000,000 pounds sterling, imports upwards of 13,000,000 pounds, war strength 168,000 men. This is a lusty state to be kept in nonage, and to be dealt with under a contract compulsory to begin with, and violated with impunity for twenty years past. We may safely surmise that the Triple Alliance will not give Mr. Hay any answer that can be construed as a rebuke of its new coadjutor, that Russia will do nothing to heighten the distrust in which Rumania already holds her, that the appeal to the Treaty of Berlin will be disallowed, and that England and the United States will remain benevolent voices crying aimlessly in the wilderness, and saved from ridicule only through the fact that there is a certain humane intention in their appeal, which, however, the next punitive expedition of England or disfranchising of an American negro population may strikingly belie.

### *INDIFFERENCE TO ART.*

Artists are, as a rule, convinced that the public is not only profoundly ignorant of art, but profoundly indifferent to it, and this conviction is by no means confined to artists who are materially unsuccessful. Even those whose work is bought and paid for on a fairly liberal scale, have a dissatisfied feeling that it is not really understood, but is admired and liked for what are, to them, inessential qualities. Perhaps they are, at times, a trifle unreasonable—they may even, conceivably, be mistaken in what they think essential. They are frequently accused of caring for nothing but technique, and the accusation is sometimes true. On the other hand, it seems to them that the public cares for nothing but subject. Our landscape painters are, perhaps, least out of harmony with their environment, but even they must sometimes feel that the interest in the thing depicted is out of proportion to the interest in what the artist has made of it: our figure-painters and our sculptors feel it much more.

Two of the most remarkable developments in art, of recent years, are in mural painting and in monumental sculpture. Building after building has been filled with decorations; some of our best artists have been kept constantly busy at such work, and have almost ceased to produce easel pictures; the people have thronged to the Library of Congress and the Boston Public Library to see the paintings. Monument after monument has been erected; our best sculptors have commissions three deep; no soldier or politician appears too unimportant to have his statue. All this seems, at first sight, to show a lively interest in art, but does it? Watch the people in the Boston Library, before Sargent's "History of Religion," consulting their guide-books and puzzling out the meaning of the figures, and you will conclude that the subject is all that interests them. The action of committees, the tone of criticism in the press, all point the same way. The first business of a work of art is to be beautiful; the first business of a decoration is to decorate. But let a painter spend his best energies on devising a scheme of beautiful and appropriate line and color which shall set off and complete the architecture of the room, and he is almost certain to be sneered at for his "meaningless figures," and to be scolded for "not telling anything." Let him make a clever illustration of history or legend, and he will be praised no matter how confused is his composition, or how full of holes his color-scheme. The true decorator has to pretend to be an illustrator to satisfy his patrons, and he has to fight committees to escape from utterly unmanageable "historical subjects," or to devise ingenious circumventions and allegories which shall allow him some beauty while nominally conforming to the demands made upon him. He does not give art because the public asks it of him; he gives as much art as he is allowed to give by a public which is interested in other things.

The case is much the same with sculpture. Our sculptors are kept busy, but they are kept busy modelling trousers and hats. How often does one of them have an opportunity to produce a really sculpturesque and ideal work—a figure, nude or draped, treated for its sculpturesque beauty alone? Our parks and squares are full of statues; how many of them have any real beauty or are really ornaments of the places in which they stand? It is not wholly the fault of the sculptors—they would do better if they were allowed. Of course, there are incompetents among them, but there are also great and true artists, who seize every chance for beauty and often achieve it, though sometimes in devious ways and by side issues. What the public wants is not a work of art, but a monument to this or that man, of whom, often on slight enough grounds, it has made a hero; and generally it insists on a portrait statue, no matter how unstatuesque the hero may have been, and resents, more or less, even the poor little accessory allegory by which the artist tries to escape, for a moment, from the hideous and the real. Our statues are ugly, in the main, because we like to have them so.

The newspaper press may be thought to give a fair reflection of the wants of its readers, and the newspaper reports of the unveiling of statues show a marked indifference to the question of art. Examples abound, and are to be drawn even from journals which habitually show interest in art. Such a one must print the news, sometimes, as it comes to it; and one such printed, the other day, a quarter of a column on the dedication of a statue to Governor Flower, in which the name of the sculptor was not so much as mentioned, though that sculptor happened to be our greatest master. The reporter may well have thought that art criticism was not his province, and that he was not called upon to attempt it; but he was so convinced of the indifference of the public to art that it did not occur to him that any one might like to know, merely as a matter of news, that the statue was by Saint Gaudens. But if the journal in question took one statue from Mr. Saint Gaudens, it made up for it by presenting him with another, for a few days afterward it spoke of the Channing statue, which is to be erected in the

Boston Public Garden, as "one of the best of Saint Gaudens's efforts." It is possible that the real author of the work in question, Mr. Herbert Adams, may be annoyed at this attribution, but he should consider the compliment to his skill implied in it. Besides, he is probably used to this sort of thing. The editor who should confuse the author of 'Captain Macklin' with the author of 'The Crisis' would never hear the end of it; but nobody cares about sculptors.

No, the public does not really care for art—that is the truth of it; and so art matters are carelessly reported or not reported at all, and silences and blunders which would hardly occur in the sporting column, escape the notice of the editors. They are symptoms of that indifference to art, as art, and that interest in art mainly for its subject-matter, of which we have been speaking. The reporter could not possibly have omitted the name of Governor Flower from his account; the paragrapher could not have confused Dr. Channing with, for instance, Deacon Chapin—these are the subjects of the works of art, and sure to be interesting. But he could forget the artist entirely, or negligently confuse him with another. There is some consolation, however, in the reflection that it has never been otherwise, and that good art has been produced just the same. At some epochs there has been a more sensitive and educated public than at others, but in the days of Pheidias, as in the days of Titian, it was, after all, the subject that was talked of; and then, as now, the art was something beside the bargain, which the artist gave because he wanted to, not because he was asked for it. The patron has always asked for history, or religion, or likeness, or anything but art; and the artist has always given as much of these as would gild the pill, or the pill has been refused and the artist has starved. Art has gone on because there are always some men born artists, and always some born appreciators of art. The many have been indifferent to art, but they have been tickled with the subject, and have consented that the artist should live; and the few appreciators have, by dint of iteration, convinced the many that the art of this or that artist is worthy of attention; so that, if he has but been dead long enough, we will take (or feign) an interest in his art, even when the subject does not please us. Those of our artists who deserve the name will go on putting into their work as much art as they can, if not as much as they might, and in the long run they will get due credit for it.

## *THE PASSING OF 'FESTUS.'*

There are books which fortunately outlive their authors. There are books which, perhaps still more happily, die before those who made them. But the once famous 'Festus'—the English embodiment of what the Transcendental period represented in America—has lived in the prolonged years of its author, has passed through eleven or more editions in England and thirty or more in this country, and has been growing, alas! bulkier and far heavier as years went on. Theology and metaphysics, which were at first the mere by-play or by-work of its youthful and romantic scenes, had gradually submerged its early attractiveness, and had made it at last unreadable to those who were the compeers and spectators of its early fame. The edition of 1839, which bore no author's name and which the author tried to call in for suppression, is now the only one which recalls to its first lovers the treasure they once thought they had found. The recent death of Philip James Bailey, at the ripe age of eighty-six, will produce for a month or two some added sales of 'Festus,' and it is altogether likely that the book itself will then pass away, like that once almost equally famous under the name of 'Proverbial Philosophy,' each slowly perishing with the period and atmosphere that gave it being. Nor is it in the least likely that either of these will come back, centuries hence, to establish what may be called a post-mortem fame, like William Blake's 'Songs of Innocence,' or like the Quatrains of Omar Khayyám.

Yet Margaret Fuller Ossoli, the keenest American critic of her time—she who announced in the *Dial* the arrival of Browning when even his own country had not discovered him—could commit the error of placing the author of 'Festus' in society where he did not quite belong; as when she criticised some other work of that day as "an interpretation of the spirit of the age far less penetrating than that of Faust or Festus." But it was a time of dreams and romance as essentially as this is a period of great mechanical discoveries; young people talked sentiment instead of business or slang, and were only too ready to be thrilled or inspired. The book itself, though long-winded, with feeble structure, imitative groups, and ineffectual endings, yet rose at unexpected moments into strong lines and even regal phrases—lines that, like the rhythm of Marlowe or Keats, uplifted life into glory. The author's very conception of literature was on its stateliest side:

"Homer is gone; and where is Jove, and where
The rival cities seven? His songs outlive
Time, tower, and god—all that then was, save
Heaven."

Or take this other passage, a quotation which often reappears with the name of some earlier author attached to it:

"Trifles like these make up the present time;
The Iliad and the Pyramids, the past."

Or this:

"We live in deeds, not words; in thoughts, not
breaths;
In feelings, not in figures like a dial;
We should count time by heart-throbs. He most
lives
Who thinks most, feels the noblest, acts the best;
And he whose heart beats quickest lives the
longest.

One generous feeling, one great thought; one deed
Of good, ere night, would make life longer seem
Than if each day might number a thousand days
Spent as is this by nations of mankind."

The gayety of 'Festus' was rather forced, its sentiment overstrained, its essential structure directly imitative, and even as imitation ineffectual. Goethe's Satan is always Satan, his hero human in strength, human in weakness; but Bailey's Lucifer is as young and fresh as Faust himself, and is as liable to say fine things; and his student, unlike Faust's fellow-student, is as wise as his teacher. But all of them are young, all have glimpses of life, all break into lines with a Keats-like variety and vigor of cadence; sometimes almost Shaksperian in their sweep:

"There are points from which we can command
our life;
When the soul sweeps the future like a glass;
And coming things, full freighted with our fate,
Jut out, dark, on the offing of the mind.
Let them come! Many will go down in sight;
In the billow's joyous dash of death go down."

In short, Festus represented youth, and was always at his best where youth was most in evidence:

"I speak unto the young, for I am of them
And alway shall be. What are years to me?
. . . . . .
Oh for the young heart like a fountain playing!
Flinging its bright fresh feelings up to the skies
It loves and strives to reach—strives, loves in
vain;
It is of earth and never meant for Heaven.
We laugh at love, and make a jest of Hell,
While we fear each, and seek. The sphinx-like
heart,
Consistent in its inconsistency,
Loathes life the moment that life's riddle is read;
The knot of our existence is untied
And we lie loose and useless. Life is had;
And then we sigh and say, Can this be all?
It is not what we thought—it is very well—
But we want something more—there is but death!
. . . . . .
And to die young is youth's divinest gift—
To pass from one world fresh into another
Ere change hath lost the charm of soft regret,
And feel the immortal impulse from within
Which makes the coming, life—cry alway, on!
And follow it while strong—is Heaven's last
mercy.
The firefly only shines when on the wing;
So is it with the mind; when once we rest,
We darken. On! said God unto the soul
As to the earth for ever. On it goes,
A rejoicing native of the infinite—
As is a bird of air—an orb of heaven."

Into how many albums of young people were such lines copied; in how many conversations were they quoted, one half-century ago! Their influence led some to suicide, some to lives of heroic self-devotion; but it has now well-nigh passed away and become untraceable. As for the book which represented the period, it must follow its long-lived author into oblivion; for fame itself, like all else that belongs to the human mind, when it once rests, is darkened.

## THE GENERAL STRIKE IN FLORENCE.

FLORENCE, September 2, 1902.

Cowper's dictum, "God made the country, and man made the town," came back to mind yesterday on my returning to Florence after six weeks of quiet sojourn in Panzano di Chianti, a village perched on the summit of one of the many hills nested at the foot of the mountains which shelter the province renowned for the most famous wine of Italy. There I found what I sought—fine air, comparative coolness, perfect peace. Here the métayer system prevails, as throughout the Tuscan provinces.

Though only twenty miles from Florence, with a steam tram thence to Greve, no tidings come from the city save on Friday, the market day, when some of the factors go down in their traps and by tram to learn the prices of wheat, wine, and, this year, of the famous root of the purple flag which furnishes the violet powder and essence once much used for ladies' toilettes, but which, owing to over-production and the growth of a coarser quality in Verona, has fallen from the price of 350 lire to 40 or 45. But last market day, though it was the 29th of August, they brought up no special news. On Saturday, however, the post-woman, instead of bringing in the *Nazione* (for which you must specially subscribe up there), brought a placard to the effect that, as the printers, despite their

pledges, had suddenly gone on strike, no paper could be printed. As the *Nazione* is especially obnoxious to the working classes —is, indeed, the organ of the Florentine clique to which was due the state of siege of 1898—this did not surprise me; but on Sunday night the Panzanians, who are early to bed and early to rise, while thronging the *sala* where the last lottery tickets were sold and the best prizes drawn, began to inquire how it was that the diligence which brings up the last post had not arrived even at eleven o'clock? Had it been assailed by bandits who near Greve have from time to time attacked and robbed unwary travellers? Just before midnight the diligence arrived, but no post. The last two trams had not reached Greve, had been stopped by the strikers, and the most exaggerated accounts spread—that the troops called out had fired on the populace; some declared that they had heard cannon-shots, etc. This was vexing, as I had decided to go down by Monday's tram, stopping at Gabbiano on the way; but if there were no trams, this would be impossible.

Monday I sent to see if trams ran. They left Greve (which is the terminus), but as to reaching Florence, that was by no means certain. After much persuasion, I induced a wizened old man to take me direct to Florence in a *bagher*, the most uncomfortable two-seated vehicle imaginable. The driver would not let us halt at Gabbiano, fearing to have to sleep in Florence; but till we got to the place where the trams meet and one goes off to San Casciano, the capital of the province, nothing unusual occurred. At Tavernuzzo, however, the population were in the street, the shops closed, and all the diligences which ply to and from Florence in the courtyards. All along the road the people looked gay enough; the men were in holiday attire, loafing about, the women and children plaiting straw and knitting with their usual diligence. Several men told the driver that he ought to be on strike, and that traps were not allowed in Florence. He seemed much bewildered, but evidently thought that if he set me down in the road he would lose his fare, and so proceeded to Galluzzo, a suburb of Florence much affected by workingmen, as house rent is cheap and the odious *dazio* (octroi) is not exacted. All evidently on strike, and seemingly enjoying it; but a regular hail and rain-storm came down in torrents, wetting us to the skin, and, finding the ordinary road to Porta Romana barricaded, I had to go round by the Poggio Imperiale down the Viale, where there was no sign of any tram arriving, though we had passed one going to Greve guarded by carbineers and soldiery all armed.

Once in Florence things looked serious: the shops all closed, the streets filled with military, no bread to be purchased save at three central markets where it was provided by the municipality, not a single newspaper to be had since Friday night. Little by little we pieced things together, though no person told the same tale. A strike had been threatened on and off for the last month at the iron and steel foundry of the Pignone, where about 200 men are usually employed. About a month since the director turned off twenty-two of the men, on pretext of slack work. The rest offered to work shorter time at the same wages, so that twenty-two families might not be left to starve, but the director refused. The men struck; he called in outsiders, refusing to treat with the secretary of the Chamber of Labor (Camera di Lavoro), who is the representative of the federated societies of the arts and trades of Florence. Here, according to general opinion, he was in the wrong; but the leading Socialists who seem to lord it over the Chamber of Labor out-heroded him. On the 27th of August they decided to call on all the arts and trades of Florence to demonstrate their "solidarity with the workmen of the Pignone by coming out on strike." On the 28th they issued a proclamation giving twenty-four hours to all the working classes to obey this order. Bear in mind that these gentlemen of "light hearts" not only had provided no funds to support the strikers during a period whose duration they could not decide, but had not even consulted the Chambers of Labor in other cities as to their willingness to second the movement by subscription; neither did they accede to the suggestion of some of the workers at the Pignone that they should wait until the board of managers of the foundry should arrive and decide whether or not to approve the conduct of the director. Had they really had at heart the assistance of the men on strike at the Pignone foundry, would it not have been more practical to call on all the arts and trades to continue work, and to contribute a fixed portion of their wages towards the maintenance of the families of the strikers?

After brief consultation in all the separate sections of the arts and trades, a mass meeting of the workingmen was held in the ex-barracks of the Carmine. Eighteen thousand at least were present. A general strike was proclaimed, the men being assured that their unanimous decision would compel the managers of the Pignone to accede to the demands of the workmen. The Government had made ample arrangements for the maintenance of order. The instructions to the prefect were not to take sides with masters or men, but to ensure public safety and the liberty of the workmen who should choose not to strike, or to those who should take the place of the strikers. Meanwhile, the board of managers of the Pignone held a meeting and decided that in no case would they dismiss the fifty men taken on to replace the strikers to avoid the closing of the foundry, but that they would take back at once one hundred of the strikers, including some of the twenty-two dismissed at the outset; the choice to be left to themselves. These one hundred would take rank after the newcomers, and so at any rate would lose long years of service time. The directors promised that, if the work should justify it, they would take on all who asked to be reëmployed, giving them progressive numbers; all bygones to be bygones, and the old labor contract to be respected.

These proposals were rejected unanimously, and the general strike began. The working bakers were the first to strike unanimously. The arrangements of the municipality were already made in anticipation, and bread poured in in exuberance from Prato, Pisa, Bologna, and other cities, the only inconvenience being that the breadsellers had to go to the depots to purchase it, and that no fancy bread could be obtained. All the other trades then went on strike, the printers refusing to print any newspaper; but (and this is curious) the *Unità Cattolica* obtained the Chamber of Labor's sanction to come out for one day only (the 29th). On the 30th the strike was really general, and the railway workingmen in the workshops declared their solidarity with their brethren, but many of their number did not see their way clear to break the agreement come to after the last strike, and not a single train was delayed for an instant. The cabmen struck one and all. The tramway men were divided. They were evidently against a strike, but the mass of strikers hindered the departure of the trams for one day only, and the directors, to prevent their being insulted, advised the rest to leave their uniforms at home and to dress in plain clothes.

Here be it noted that the police and the carbineers, considerably reinforced, did yeomen's service in securing the "liberty of work" by arresting any and every person who insulted or threatened another for not "coming out." The most serious affair was the strike of the gasworkers and lighters on the eve of the 30th. The municipality had counted on the firemen, who had promised to serve if protected from molestation. Warned that they were municipal servants and would be protected, their commander, ranging them in line, bid those who refused to serve to step out of the ranks. No one stirred. Here the action of Del Buono, Secretary of the Chamber of Labor, in nowise praiseworthy, seems to me as tactless as it was outrageous. He went in person, accompanied by some of the firemen, to the municipal offices, where the Executive Committee was in permanent session, to protest against the order given to the firemen to replace the gasmen; it not being their business to light and extinguish the city lamps. Asking ironically whether the programme of the workingmen's federation sanctioned the plunging a populous city into total darkness and exposing it to murder, robbery and incendiarism, the assessor, Niccolini, affirmed that the city would be lighted at any cost, and again the firemen signified their willingness and signed individually their pledge to light up. Meanwhile, an order of the prefect prohibited any gathering in the streets or squares of the city. The firemen assembled in their barracks, ready to obey the orders of their commandant, when an immense crowd gathered with threatening cries, only to be instantly dispersed by the troops. The three trumpet calls (corresponding to the reading of the Riot Act) sufficed. But the firemen, either frightened by the threatening cries of the crowd, or otherwise indisposed to fulfil their promise, refused to quit their barracks, despite the peremptory orders of their commander. The municipal guards declared themselves incompetent to light the lamps, but the gasworkers offered their services, and, guarded by the troops and police, the city was lighted more or less, no disorders occurring. Nevertheless, some 200 arrests were made of men who attempted to hinder the lighting of the gas, or who otherwise interfered with pacific workers. The arrests included a goodly number of loafers "known to the police." It should be said that the different sections of the arts and trades had formed a squad-

ron of guards to assist in the maintenance of order.

As the tramway men, the omnibus drivers, and conductors decided on a partial strike, all the office men and inspectors offered their services. Next the cooks and waiters of the hotels and restaurants and cafés struck. Some of the hotels were closed; in the restaurants the owners and their families managed to serve their not numerous customers. Then the carters and porters of the public transport service went out; the street-sweepers, the tailors, hat and cap-makers, and greengrocers joining. Another mass-meeting of about 20,000 strikers was held at the Carmine, the interior of the barracks occupied by the police and municipal guards; two squadrons of cavalry and three companies of infantry being drawn up in the square when the President, Signor Del Buono, announced exultingly that the strike was now general, as the masons and their helpers, the workmen of the military magazines, the peasants, had joined the ranks. A vote of thanks was sent to the firemen and municipal guards who had refused to light the lamps, and a vote of blame to the heads of works or shops who had declared that they would not take back the men on strike. The strikers of the Pignone proposed to withdraw their demand for the dismissal of the new men taken on, if the managers would agree to readmit all the original workers, including the twenty-two dismissed in the first instance; and Signor Rossi gave it as his well-founded belief that the managers, on that very evening, would accept this compromise. In this case the strike would cease, but only after all the arrested had been set at liberty.

During the night some miscreants cut numerous gas-tubes distributing some 6,000 cubic metres of gas, so that the city was only partially illuminated. The prefect, on the first of September, issued an order prohibiting any public meeting to be held in the open or in any building whatsoever. The interview between the workingmen's commission and the Director of the Pignone foundry, after an animated discussion which lasted far into the small hours (four municipal councillors present), ended as it began. Director Benini affirmed that the establishment could not take on more than one hundred of the original workmen, having already fifty new ones, as the work on hand did not justify an increase of hands; but he pledged his word that no new hands should be introduced save in the case of specialists or apprentices, and promised to take into consideration any suggestion for the modification of the new rules. The workmen's commission declined to accept these terms, as out of 210 workmen 110 would be left destitute by it, and it was impossible at this season of the year for them to find work in any other foundries. Many small groups assembled in the Piazza della Signoria (as the discussion was held in the municipal offices in the Palazzo Vecchio), waiting patiently throughout the night, but at two A. M. all hope of an adjustment vanished, as Signor Benini declined to submit the quarrel to arbitrators. The delegates did not feel their courage up to announcing their fiasco to their electors; so glided out of the palace by a side door, and the waiters understood that their hopes were to be disappointed only on seeing the lights extinguished in the Council Chamber.

On the morrow, it was clear to all that the general strike could not be maintained. The workmen of the foundry who decided to remain on strike, saw themselves that they were demanding useless sacrifice from their comrades. The mass of workmen, precluded from the Carmine, assembled at the hall of the Chamber of Labor in Via dei Tintori, but were advised to disperse and to meet and deliberate in their several sections. Even without waiting for this, most of the men returned to their work. The shops which on Sunday and Monday had nearly all been closed, partly through fear, partly from good nature and a desire to avoid collision with the employees, were all opened on Tuesday; the cabmen hastened to their station at the usual hour. In some sections the men voted for continuing the strike, but numbers prevailed for its immediate cessation. The printers all returned to their work, the bakers to the bake-houses, so that some 4,000 kilos of bread imported by the municipality were sold at low prices, or distributed to the poor. I omitted to note that among the strikers were all the female cigar-makers, who, with the men employed, now find themselves in a sorry plight, as only the leaf preparers can have work for some days.

The railway authorities suspend the strikers for three extra days, according to the regulations for punishing any workman who abandons his post without license. The company Ducco & Alessio, at the commencement of the strike, begged the Chamber of Labor to allow sixty of their men to remain, merely to keep the furnaces alight. At first this was conceded, whereupon other companies made the same demand, and the permission was withdrawn, and that company alone has 120 wagons of chemical preparations stagnant at the station. Their furnaces have to be relighted, and this is but one of the examples of the waste of money and of time engendered by this preposterous imposition of the caprice of two or three individuals on the too credulous multitude. The said Chamber of Labor, when the strike had virtually ceased by the good sense of the strikers, issued a ridiculous proclamation, thanking the Florentine proletariat for their "truly extraordinary demonstration, for the sublime example of solidarity and of civic virtue which will prove a severe warning to those who menace the progress and well-being of their class." The members of the Chamber of Labor here are already discredited, and Deputy Pescetti, the Socialist representative of the Third College, who took an active part in promoting the strike, comes in with Del Buono for his merited share of blame and discredit.

The speeches made by two "reforming" Socialists and members of Parliament—Todeschini and Barbato, the philanthropic doctor of Pian dei Greci in Sicily—have made a great impression here. Barbato explained to such of the men as he came in contact with, that a general strike cannot be justified, because it inflicts too much misery on all classes, their own especially; that it can never produce economic progress, strikes being legitimate only when the workers have some real grievance against their respective employers, whereas in this case they had none. Employers also will have learned a lesson. They were assured that, if they kept their works open, they and their men would be protected; but, save in one case, they made no effort to induce their men who had no grievances to be redressed to remain at their posts. The one exception was the porcelain manufactory (the famous Ginori, now Ginori & Richard), which has its works at La Doccia, its magnificent warehouse in the Via Ginori. Richard, the working partner, on hearing that his men were going out as a proof of their "solidarity," called them together, and warned them that they were at liberty to go, but they had better get their wages settled on the spot, as he was resolved to close the works, and that on reopening them he would not take back a single workman who had quitted his post on such an absurd pretext. Not one man left work, and the factory received no molestation. The same may be said of the owners of shops, hotels, and restaurants; but they made not even a show of resistance, let their workers go, and have now taken them all back without remonstrance. They were "afraid," believed the Chamber of Labor to be all-powerful, and the Government too indulgent or too weak to protect them; the populace too valiant to be put down by the police and the soldiery, without, at any rate, violence and bloodshed. How mistaken they were they now see. Not only has the Government "kept order"; with the exception of the cutting of the gas-tubes, whose authors have not yet been discovered, there has not been a single case of violence or damage done to property, not a case of theft or aggression.

The idea of a general strike as a solution of the social question has been anxiously fostered for the last ten years. Florence has made the experiment, the strikers have paid dearly for their whistle. The pledge-breaking firemen are to be proceeded against, though it is not certain whether the articles of the municipal code apply to municipal servants called on, in an emergency, to perform duties not stipulated in their contract; the leaders, the sole instigators of the strike, have covered themselves with ridicule and are blamed by all parties without distinction, and at the coming Socialist Congress at Imola, where the evolutionists and reformers with Turati at their head will be in full force, it is probable that they will be called on to give account of their stewardship. Assuredly they will not be reëlected by the Florentine Chamber of Labor. But many waters will flow into the sea before the workers of a large city will furnish another proof of their "sublime civic virtues," their "solidarity and universal brotherhood," by coming out in a general strike. J. W. M.

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## BISHOP TALLEYRAND.—II.

PARIS, September 10, 1902.

A dramatic author, justly forgotten, named Arnault, gives the following description of Talleyrand at the time when he entered the States-General. In his 'Souvenirs d'un Sexagénaire' Arnault says that in June, 1789, when he was walking in the Garden of Versailles, he saw a young man lying under a tree with a book in his hand.

"His face, which was not without charm, struck me, however, less by its features than by its expression, by a certain mixture of nonchalance and malignity which

gave it a special character—that of an angel's head animated by the spirit of a devil. It was evidently the face of a man of fashion, more used to occupy others with himself than to occupy himself with them; of a man who, though young, was already sated with the pleasures of the world. I should naturally have assigned that face to a page or to a fashionable colonel, if the hat and the *rabat* had not told me that it belonged to an ecclesiastic, and if the cross on his breast had not proved to me that this ecclesiastic was a prelate."

This prelate was the Bishop of Autun, and we can see the exactness of Arnault's description of him in the numerous portraits which were afterwards made of Talleyrand. M. Bernard de Lacombe makes a just remark when he says that "Talleyrand had this originality, that, alone perhaps of his kind, he met the Revolution without hatred; with his quick intellect and his easy conscience, he had the merit of being astonished by nothing and of feeling no indignation at anything."

On the 4th of May, 1789, the Court and the twelve hundred Deputies assembled at Versailles went in procession to the Church of Notre Dame, and heard the mass of the Holy Spirit. The next day the States-General were opened by the King in the Hôtel des Menus. An important question at once arose: would the powers of the Deputies be verified, as they had heretofore been, separately by each order, by the nobility, by the clergy, by the third estate, or would they be verified by the three orders assembled? As the verification in common would naturally be followed by deliberation in common, the answer to this question was to be of supreme importance. The clerical Deputies were divided on the question; the high dignitaries of the Church took the side of the Deputies of the nobility, who objected to the fusion with the *Tiers;* many curates, men of the people, were inclined to the fusion.

Talleyrand was at first opposed to the union of the orders; he was alarmed by the exaltation of the *Tiers*, and had several secret interviews with the Count d'Artois, advising him to speak to the King, to recommend him to show great firmness, and, if necessary, to pronounce the dissolution of the States-General. The Court was vacillating, and on the 17th of June the *Tiers* took the initiative and converted itself into a National Assembly. When Louis XVI. directed the three orders to retire separately to their respective places of meeting, the *Tiers* withdrew to the Jeu de Paume, and its members took the famous oath which may be considered as the beginning of the Revolution. On the 24th of June a hundred and fifty clerical Deputies, headed by some bishops and an archbishop, took their seats among the members of the *Tiers*. Two days afterwards, only, Talleyrand joined the Commons, without making any speech, and, the day after, Louis XVI. himself ordered the Deputies of the nobility and the dissident members of the clergy to unite with the representatives of the people.

In the National Assembly, Talleyrand played immediately a prominent part, and Malouet says in his Memoirs: "After Mirabeau, I place M. de Talleyrand, Bishop of Autun; not only as a man of distinguished mind, but as the member who, by a single motion, had the greatest influence on all the acts of the Assembly." This was a motion against the imperative mandates given to the Deputies by their electors. In thereupon rejecting the authority of the imperative mandates, the Assembly made itself *de facto* a Constituent Assembly.

On the 14th of July, Talleyrand was named member of a committee charged with making a constitution, together with the Abbé Sieyès, Mounier, Lally-Tollendal. He participated for the first time in a debate respecting the Church, on the 11th of August.

On the historical night of the 4th of August, the nobility spontaneously renounced its privileges, exemption from taxes, and tithes. A few days afterwards, a Deputy proposed that the ecclesiastical tithes should be suppressed as well. Mirabeau supported the proposition; a long debate followed. The Abbé Sieyès maintained that the ecclesiastical tithes were a necessity, and that their suppression would be spoliation. Talleyrand gave his opinion in favor of their suppression. The Archbishop of Paris pronounced the decisive words:

"In the name of my brethren, coadjutors, and all the members of the clergy belonging to this august Assembly, in my personal name, I remit all the ecclesiastical tithes to the hands of a just and generous nation. That the gospel be announced, the divine ceremonies be celebrated with decency and dignity, the churches be in the hands of virtuous and laborious priests, the poor among the people be supported—such is the destination of our tithes, such is the end of our ministry. We confide in the National Assembly, and we have no doubt that it will procure us the means of filling worthily objects so respectable and so sacred."

When the Assembly was preparing the Declaration of the Rights of Man, Talleyrand took a great part in drafting the articles. The definition of the law was his work:

"The law is the expression of the general will. All citizens have a right to assist personally or through their representatives in its formation. All citizens are equal in its eyes, are equally admissible to all dignities and public offices, according to their capacity, and without any other distinction than that of their virtues and their talents."

Gouverneur Morris used to meet Talleyrand almost daily at the house of a common friend, Madame Flahaut. Morris says that he had a hobby, "national education." Talleyrand was much interested in it, as well as in the national finances. Everybody at the time was proposing remedies for the deficit. The science of finance was in its infancy, and we may laugh now at the expedients which were proposed in the National Assembly, such as the melting of the gold and silver ornaments of the churches. What was more serious was a proposition made by a young Girondin, named Buzot, who afterwards became one of the leaders of the Gironde. He proposed that the ecclesiastical properties should revert to the nation. The revolutionary days of the 5th and 6th of October, during which the Tuileries were invaded by the people, gave a stimulus to those who advocated the confiscation of the ecclesiastical property. Talleyrand judged that the time had come, and on the 10th of October he developed from the tribune a complete plan of confiscation.

"He had no illusion," says M. de Lacombe, "about the enormity of his proposition. He invoked, at the outset of his remarks, the embarrassment of the State, the exceptional gravity of the circumstances, the impossibility of establishing new taxes in a country already impoverished, the urgency of taking proper care of those whom the abolition of tithes had left completely without help."

He made a distinction between lay and clerical property. "It seems evident to me," said he, "that the clergy does not own property in the same sense as other proprietors, since the properties of which it has the use, and of which it cannot dispose, were given to it, not in the interest of particular persons, but for the accomplishment of certain functions." He then presented a complete plan for the maintenance of the secular clergy, and the accomplishment of the obligations attaching to the ecclesiastical properties.

This proposition, emanating from the Bishop of Autun, excited great indignation in a large part of the Assembly; but it was adopted with great vehemence by Mirabeau, who even simplified it and made it more sweeping. After a stormy debate, the Assembly voted a law which changed the property of the Church into the property of the nation, and provided a salary for the regular clergy.

By his motion in the Assembly, Talleyrand enrolled himself in the party of the Revolution; he became at the same time an object of suspicion to the clergy, and the clergy of his own diocese remonstrated strongly against his conduct. The canons of Autun's cathedral sent him a protest against the motion which he had made in the National Assembly. From this moment, Talleyrand became, so to speak, a stranger to his diocese; he went no more to Autun. He was one of the founders of the club of the Friends of the Constitution, which afterwards became so famous as the Club of the Jacobins. He took a prominent part in all the festivities and ceremonies which savored of the revolutionary character. One of those great festivities is an historical landmark: the Feast of the Federation given in the Champ de Mars to the deputation of the National Guards sent from all parts of France. The King was present, having on his right side the President of the National Assembly. They were both sitting on chairs near each other. The Queen and the royal family had places prepared for them. Amid the noise of drums and of trumpets, the spectators saw Talleyrand, in his pontifical robe, assisted by two priests, celebrating mass on the "autel de la patrie." Talleyrand gave his benediction to the oriflamme and to the eighty-three banners of the newly created departments. Lafayette swore, in the name of the National Guard, to remain faithful to "the nation, the law, the King." Louis XVI. showed the young Dauphin to the people.

This feast of the 14th of July, 1790, is a curious episode in the drama of the Revolution; and the part played by Talleyrand is perhaps its strangest trait. A few months later Talleyrand adhered to the civil constitution of the clergy which had been voted by the Assembly. His example was followed by only six bishops. Open war was declared between the Revolution and the Catholic clergy. Talleyrand threw in his lot with the Revolution.

# Correspondence.

## THE CHARACTER OF TIBERIUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It would seem that the controversy about the character of Tiberius is amicably settled by the words of Seneca, *De Clementia*, i., 6. Seneca is flattering his pupil Nero by telling him that he need not think of looking outside himself for examples of good rule—"Sed ingens tibi onus imposuisti; nemo jam divum Augustum nec Tiberii Cæsaris prima tempora loquitur; nemo quod te imitari velit exemplar extra te quæret." The early part of the reign of Tiberius (*prima tempora*) was good, the latter part bad. If we say that the whole reign was good, what are we to make of Sejanus, Capreæ, and the letter from Capreæ to the Senate?

The political attitude of Tacitus was not that of indiscriminate hostility to the Empire. He was content with it so long as the Emperor was a Nerva who "res olim dissociabiles miscuit, principatum et libertatem." Nerva's reign was to him "beatissimi sæculi ortus."—Yours faithfully,

Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, Sept. 15, 1902.

## PROFESSOR SLEDD AND EMORY COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It was only a few days ago that I learned from the *Nation* that Prof. Andrew Sledd had been practically forced to resign his chair at Emory College, in consequence of his article, "The Negro—Another View," in the July *Atlantic*. I read the article on its first appearance, and thought, "That is plain talk, but it is, certainly in its main contentions, not only true but just, and will be tolerated and do good because the author is evidently a Southerner." Since hearing of the action of Emory College and of the criticism which led to it—none of which I have seen—I have twice reread Professor Sledd's paper, and see no reason to change my first opinion. Not only is the article, in all essential points, just, but it emanates from a proper source. Professor Sledd is a Virginian, an honor graduate of Randolph-Macon College, M. A. of Harvard University, and (till now) Professor of Latin in Emory College. Such a Southerner best knows the facts, can best understand the situation, and can, if necessary, most fittingly and effectively admonish his own people. Such a man had the right to speak his mind, on a grave and serious question, honestly and fearlessly; and if he seemed anywhere unnecessarily severe on Southern people, this might have been attributed to over-zeal in making his main points, and certainly merited no worse penalty than criticism.

But how was he treated? Some one raised a bitter clamor, recommending a coat of tar and feathers, and dismissal from the college; some papers then took up the cry; a few trustees and a timid president got scared; and a bare quorum of the Executive Committee met and accepted a resignation virtually forced from the Professor. The mob's bidding has been done, but unfortunately it is no longer the crowd but the college that stands committed to the policy of suppression of free speech.

I assume that this action does not represent the best sentiment in Georgia. I have too much respect for Georgia, know too many noble Georgians, to believe it does. Such people must realize that this brings reproach on the State and the whole South, and is detrimental to the best interests of education and of civilization. I am a Southerner, sprung from ancestors on both sides who have lived in Virginia and the Carolinas for at least a hundred and fifty years; and I have spent most of my life in the South. Because I love and believe in my native section, I insist that this action puts her to shame; and in the name of justice and fairness and honest conviction and free speech, I protest. I plead for the section rather than the man. A scholar of high character, who has the ability to express himself with such force and clearness, is not likely to suffer seriously in the long run, but he should have been allowed to stay at home and work where he can be most effective and is most needed.

I have naturally had opportunity to consult few Southerners on this matter, but the seven whom I have seen or heard from condemn the action of Emory College as strongly as I do. The most influential Georgian whom I know personally says: "While not agreeing *in toto* with the paper in the *Atlantic*, I hold its main contentions were correct and just. So thinking people here, who are right-minded, all agree. . . . It has grieved and humiliated me beyond measure. It discredits the college and the South." An eminent college president from another State, speaking for himself as well as for a distinguished preacher and a widely known business man—the three representing three different States—writes me: "We all agreed that the article was a strong presentation of an important subject, and that it contained nothing to warrant the criticisms of Mrs. Felton and others." These men represent the States of Georgia, South Carolina, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Missouri, and they all bear names known from one end of the South to the other.

Very respectfully,

Charles Forster Smith.

University of Wisconsin, Sept. 15, 1902.

## A SIGN OF THE TIMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As an instance of the activity with which the education of the young American girl is being carried forward, I have been much struck with the announcement, just made in the Springfield *Republican*, of the additions to be made this year to the faculty of Mount Holyoke College. When it is remembered that this is one of the less important of the women's colleges, and that the additions are among its younger teachers; and when it is also borne in mind that it is only a very few years since, in the men's colleges, a simple graduate was considered good enough to be put in at once as a tutor, it will certainly be admitted that this is a very remarkable sign of the times:

"The college faculty is somewhat changed and increased. Miss Nellie Neilsson, Ph.D., of Bryn Mawr, and reader in the English department there for three years, is to teach in the history department. Miss Mary E. Trueblood, A.M., of the University of Michigan and a student at the University of Göttingen, is to teach mathematics. Miss Bertha Young, A.B., of Vassar, who has taught at Wheaton Seminary, and has studied the past year at the University of Oxford, is the new member of the English Literature department. Mrs. Henrietta Fangel of New York is to be a reader in the English department. Mrs. Fangel has lived in Paris for seven or eight years, during a part of which time she devoted herself to art. . . . Miss Nathalie Wipplenger, Ph.D., of the University of Freiburg, will teach in the German department. Miss Minnie Graham, A.B., Mount Holyoke, 1900, will assist in chemistry. . . . Miss Alice Stevens will take Dr. Hinsdale's place as the head of the German department. Dr. Hinsdale is spending a year abroad. . . . Miss Effie Smith, head of the department of mathematics, and Miss Anne Young, head of the astronomy department, who studied last year at the University of Chicago, have returned to resume their work here."

And it is not forty years since the first well-equipped college for women was founded, and we discussed anxiously the question whether women were capable of taking the ordinary college course at all! Could Mrs. Willard and Mary Lyon—the pioneers in the work of women's education—see what results have followed from their early labors, they might well think that they had builded better than they knew. X.

## AS TO THE PRINTING OF DOCTOR DISSERTATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the official publications of the University of Chicago there has recently appeared a doctor dissertation so utterly devoid of true scientific spirit that one is tempted to take it for an intentional parody on learning. The author professes to discuss "The Treatment of Nature in German Literature from Günther to the Appearance of Goethe's Werther." Instead of studying the causes which account for the well-known fact of a gradual deliverance from artificial conceptions of natural scenery and outdoor life during the period mentioned, he simply strings together, through more than a hundred pages, random excerpts from poems, letters, descriptions of travel, belonging to that period, and, on the strength of such "material," traces a "development" some of whose features are thus stated:

"There is no full appreciation of day and night until after the first half of the century, when the literature (Klopstock, Herder, Hölty), letters (Herder, Mlle. Lucius), and travels (Uffenbach, Forster) show unmistakable signs of the new attitude, of which Goethe was to become the best exponent." . . . "Brockes discovered the charms of autumn and winter, and in due time they became the subject of song (Klopstock, Claudius, Stolberg), despite the Anacreontic poets, who persisted in seeing only their disagreeable features. A similar change occurs in the letters of this period. Frau von Gottsched prefers working at her desk to sleigh-riding (1735), but Klopstock enjoys skating from sunrise to sunset (1768)." . . . "It is quite remarkable that, as early as 1722, Elisabeth von Orléans expresses her delight in seeing the phenomenon of a thunder-storm. Not until many years later do we find an adequate appreciation of its majesty (Lichtenberg)." . . . "As regards some of the men, the Anacreontics and Klopstock, for example, it may be added that, unlike Rousseau, they enjoy country life and nature best in the company of friends—a view of nature characteristic of the transition stage."

Now, there may be a question as to whether this sort of thing should or should not

be accepted as a thesis for the degree of doctor of philosophy. But there can be no question that, if it should become the practice of our universities to *print* such matter, the cause of true learning would seriously be injured. Let us be careful not to imitate the hack work of the ordinary German doctor dissertation. The best safeguard against this danger seems to lie in the principle, now practically adopted at Harvard University, of making the printing of a doctor thesis not an obligation, but a distinction. KUNO FRANCKE.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., September 21, 1902.

# Notes.

Further announcements from G. P. Putnam's Sons are a "Hampshire Edition" of Jane Austen's Works; a third, revised, edition of Leslie Stephen's 'English Thought in the Eighteenth Century'; 'Songs of England's Glory,' compiled by William Canton and H. P. Robinson; 'A History of German Literature,' by John G. Robertson, Ph.D.; 'Mediæval India under Mohammedan Rule,' by Stanley Lane-Poole; 'The Administration of Dependencies,' by Alpheus H. Snow; 'Rhode Island: Its Making and Meaning,' by Irving Berdine Richman; 'Insurance and Crime,' by Alexander Colin Campbell; and 'The Lost Art of Reading,' by Gerald Stanley Lee.

'The Art of Success,' by J. T. Knowlton, will shortly be published by Frederick Warne & Co.

In John Lane's fall list we observe 'New Letters and Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle,' illustrated; 'Early Prose Writings of James Russell Lowell'; 'New Poems,' by Theodore Watts Dunton; 'With Napoleon at St. Helena,' translated from the memoirs of Dr. John Stokoe, as edited by Paul Frémaux; and 'A New Portrait of Shakspere,' by the author of 'The Elizabethan Hamlet.'

Frederick A. Stokes Co. have in hand 'Fairy Tales from the Swedish,' a novel collection, edited by Baron Gabriel Djurklon, and a Life of Mme. du Barry, by James L. Ford.

'The Private Soldier under Washington,' by Charles K. Bolton, and 'The Spirit in Man,' from the literary remains of Horace Bushnell, are to proceed from Messrs. Scribner.

Funk & Wagnalls Co. announce 'Kuloskap, the Master,' Algonkin legends and poems, by Charles Godfrey Leland and John Dyneley Prince; 'The Spirit of the Ghetto,' by Hutchins Hapgood; and 'Raymund Lull,' first missionary to the Moslems, by the Rev. S. M. Zwemer, D.D.

The author of 'Japanese Homes and their Surroundings,' Prof. Edward S. Morse, has composed a corresponding work, 'Glimpses of China and Chinese Homes,' illustrated from his note-books with facile pencil. Little, Brown & Co. will publish it.

An experienced worker in his chosen field, Mr. Archer Butler Hulbert, has prepared a series of fifteen monographs on 'The Historic Highways of America,' from mound-builders to canal-makers, which are now in process of issuance, at the rate of one every two months, by the Arthur H. Clark Co., Cleveland, Ohio.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s new edition of Thoreau's 'Walden' will satisfy lovers of that classic and its author. The second (rubricated) title-page is a well-balanced composition, and there are numerous portraits of the Concord group, photogravure views of Concord River, Walden Woods and Pond, White Pond and other natural features. The letterpress has the customary excellence of the Riverside Press.

It is seldom that a work even on art is deservedly treated to such a sumptuous dress as has been given to the second edition of Mr. Langton Douglass's 'Fra Angelico' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). We have nothing to add to our high praise of this admirable study rendered two years ago. It is not only the last but the weightiest word on its subject—authoritative and convincing. In its present form it is still not a dear book.

The associations with Fox How evoked by E. P. Arnold-Forster's name on the title-page of his 'Poems of Schiller' (Henry Holt & Co.) prove to connect themselves with the pedestrian side of Matthew Arnold's poetry. "I claim," says this translator, "no more for the following translations than that they are a tolerably faithful rendering of the original poems of Schiller." This is both modest and truthful: we get the content, but without the accuracy or style of a good prose version. The typography of this volume is open and attractive.

E. P. Dutton & Co. of this city are importing the excellent series of "Histories of the Colleges of Oxford" published in London two or three years ago by F. E. Robinson & Co. The volumes already received are 'Merton,' by Bernard W. Henderson; 'Balliol,' by H. W. Carless-Davis; 'Christ Church,' by Rev. Henry L. Thompson; and 'Oriel,' by David Watson Rannie. These books, taken together, exhibit very clearly certain prominent features in the history of English education. They show, for example, how various were the motives which inspired the founders of the different colleges—Merton being intended to counteract the influence of the friars, while Balliol was established as a school for the Franciscans. The important part which the colleges have played in the history of England is also plainly brought out. From the time of the Lollards down through the Renaissance and the Puritan period to the Tractarian movement, we see how closely Oxford has been in touch with the life of the nation. Such studies as those contained in this series are, therefore, of real value to the historian. It is interesting to note how the modern revolution in educational methods and ideals has left untouched many quaint survivals of past centuries. It would be possible to fill several columns with an account of curious usages taken from these four books alone. Another matter of interest to the general reader is the succession of remarkable personalities whom college life seems to have developed. In each of these volumes the sketches of heads of houses form quite a portrait gallery of character miniatures. Many of the particulars of the history of the college fabrics will, of course, appeal only to those who have associations with the buildings concerned, but this section occupies but a small proportion of the whole. The series may be heartily commended not only to the antiquarian and the historical investigator, but to the student of life and the friend of letters.

Mrs. Crawford's 'Raphael' (London: Catholic Truth Society) is the best monograph on that great artist that can be recommended to the general reader. He will find therein all that he need know, and the surest guidance to the appreciation and enjoyment of that sanest and noblest of old masters. We know no other work on the subject so balanced in judgment, so free from error, and so up to date. It sells for sixpence. With twenty illustrations, it would be more welcome at even four times the price.

The great merit of Prof. William C. Lawton's 'Introduction to the Study of American Literature' is its unconventional treatment. It is transfused with an ardent personality interested in its subject, and sure to carry the reader along. Seldom does the maker of such text-books bring himself upon the scene in such a human fashion as when Mr. Lawton speaks, apropos of Judd's 'Margaret,' of "my own vain struggles honestly to read this 'crude, careless, irrelevantly improbable' three-decker of a book." Others have had to struggle to lay it down except in its Utopian portion; but that is not the point. Mr. Lawton does not conclude dogmatically against the book, nor offer an opinion at second hand. It is precisely because his judgments are his own that we recommend his 'Introduction.' We will single out his portrayal of the Concord writers, and one might do worse than begin his reading here. It is odd to say that the fact of the "Threnody" being "actually in rhyme strengthens our belief that Emerson was at heart a poet." This is offset by Mr. Lawton putting side by side the prose germ of "Days" with the poem itself—a juxtaposition such as could be made, from the 'Vita Nuova,' of the sonnet "Tanto gentile" and Dante's introductory argument. Perhaps in either case, for pure effectiveness, one may still prefer the prose to the verse; but the verse was not needed to prove a "poet at heart."

If the way of him who would fit a Græco-Roman theme to modern moods is apt to be hard, the novelist who chooses Babylon as his field might expect his chariot-wheels to drive heavily. Mr. William Stearns Davis has gallantly attempted this feat in 'Belshazzar' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), and his equipment and success are all that could be looked for. If Babylonish manners have to be depicted mainly on general principles, and local color supplied in a measure by invocations of antique deities and large language from princes and prophets, at least buildings and the like are described after the best authorities, and a human element is supplied in the correct but troubled loves of Darius and Atossa, of Isaiah (second) and Daniel's daughter. Daniel himself supports his reputation as wise in counsel and firm in suffering; but in the younger seer, son of Shadrach of the furnace, athlete, conspirator, man eminently of resource and of affairs, one fails to recognize the unworldly idealist hitherto known only as the "Old Testament evangelist" and divinest of Hebrew poets. Darius is another spirited and indomitable figure; and if the exigencies of fiction make this hero twenty-five when by history he was barely ten, who shall blame the author? Jew and Persian are naturally friends, as worshipping the same God under different names. Belshazzar, though liar and scoundrel, can fight and die like a king. Cyrus is a potentate of another color: both these are

drawn from "careful study." The Book of Daniel is the basis of this work, and the famous writing on the wall its professed "background." The monarch's singular lenity in rewarding the old prophet (according to the Biblical narrative) for rating him like a schoolboy and announcing his coming fall, is made more plausible by the skilful interpolations of the romance.

'Rob and his Gun,' by William A. Linn (Scribners), aims to tell a good story and at the same time to give a pretty thorough course of elementary instruction in the use of the gun. Rob is a New York city boy, somewhat deficient in health, and is invited to make a long visit to a country cousin, when he gets his initiation into the ways of the sportsman. With the same cousin, a man of middle age, wide experience, and sportsmanlike tastes, he makes hunting trips to various parts of the country, picking up a bountiful store of information and experience by the way. The only fault to be found is that the supply of useful information is allowed to become somewhat burdensome to the story. The hunting expeditions described, the personal incidents related, etc., are vouched for as parts of the author's own experience.

The *Reader*, "an illustrated monthly magazine of literature," will appear next month in this city, and, as the engaging prospectus reads, "will stand out as the leading literary journal in America." This aim is to be attained by having books criticised, "not, except in special instances, by professional reviewers, but by enthusiastic, unprejudiced readers." Even this department will constitute but a single feature of the promised feast.

The first volume of "Annals of the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh," edited by Ralph Copeland, Astronomer Royal for Scotland, contains three papers, the original observations for which were made at Lord Crawford's observatory at Dun Echt before the outfit of that institution had been transferred to the Edinburgh Observatory. Two of these papers, by Prof. L. Becker, contain the results of an attempt to turn to account the relatively large aperture of the Dun Echt transit circle in determining the positions of nebulæ and certain small stars near the pole which are beyond the reach of smaller meridian instruments. The observations of 217 nebulæ embodied in the first of these articles afford material for a comparison between the personal equations of different observers; and the second, "Positions of stars within one degree from the north pole, and of three fundamental pole-stars," is valuable on account of its accurate determination of the position of the celestial pole at the epoch of the observations. Mr. J. Gerhard Lohse contributes a description of his new double-image micrometer, which consists of a small heliometer with a Barlow lens in front, attached to the eye-end of a refracting telescope. The loss of light in this instrument, in which the object-glass of the heliometer intercepts a broad cylinder of parallel rays, is much less than in Airy's micrometer, where the separation of images takes place near the apex of a cone; and the value of the scale is almost absolutely uniform in all parts of the field. In a fourth paper, "Contributions to the theory of the sun," Dr. J. Halm displays the principal results of his researches into the causes of the periodicity of solar phenomena, and deals with the application of an extremely simple principle to the explanation of some of the exhibitions of dynamical energy on the surface of the luminary.

The colossal fortunes that are now not uncommon inevitably suggest devices for their disintegration, one of which is explained by Mr. E. H. Farrar in an address delivered at the University of Virginia and published by the press of that institution. Residing in Louisiana, Mr. Farrar sees, in the limitations of testamentary disposition imposed by the Civil Law, the means of effecting a more equitable distribution of wealth. "Forced heirship," he is convinced, would ere this have resulted in the dispersion of both the Astor and the Vanderbilt fortunes. He would forbid all settlements, trusts, and life estates, and let every man's property pass on his death in equal shares to his children. It must be said that Mr. Farrar's apprehension that real property in the city of New York is "passing absolutely out of commerce," seems unnecessary, and his complaint that the general welfare is prejudiced by the concentration of wealth is rather indefinite. Mr. Carnegie's fortune is undergoing dispersion, and the same is true of the estates of many rich men. To introduce the French system of entail would certainly check the practice of making gifts for public uses in which our country is preëminent. The introduction of inheritance taxes, or death duties, seems more likely to lead to the results desired by Mr. Farrar than the measure which he proposes.

The need of direct steamship lines to Africa for the purpose of developing our commerce is strongly urged in the Consular Reports for September. New Zealand, Canada, and even Argentina have established, or are about to establish, a monthly service to South Africa, while we send only an occasional freight steamer. There is an interesting account, with diagrams, of the chain system of propelling steamers on the upper Elbe, where there is a rapid and strong current. By means of it "a steamer can tow four to six barges, containing 1,200 to 1,500 tons, at a speed not attainable by powerful side-wheel towboats, with about one-third the power and a corresponding saving in fuel." Our Consul-General at Rio contributes a statement as to what is being projected to provide an uninterrupted water-way from the country about the headwaters of the Amazon to the Atlantic. This is a region so rich in agricultural and mineral resources that Alexander von Humboldt said of it: "Here sooner or later the world's civilization will be concentrated." An unexpected gleam of light, as it were, comes from Turkey in the brief notice of the extensive Government system of agricultural banks to furnish small loans to farmers. At the close of the financial year 1899, for which the report has just been issued, they were 868 in number and had loaned over ten million dollars; 90,536 individuals having received nearly three millions during the year, "an average of $29 each loan." Lace-making as a home industry has had a remarkable development in Paraguay. "In one town of 8,000 or 9,000 inhabitants, almost all the women and children, and many of the men, make lace collarettes, handkerchiefs, and ladies' ties. Another town makes lace embroidery, and others drawn-thread work, such as centrepieces, tray mats, tea cloths, doilies, etc. The designs used in making the lace are taken from the curious webs of the semi-tropical spiders that are so numerous here. On this account it is called 'ñanduti,' an Indian name which means spider-web."

"A laboratory in which educational experiments are being tried on a great scale," is the term applied to this country by Sir Joshua G. Fitch, in his appreciative introduction to volumes x. and xi. of "Special Reports on Educational Subjects," presented by the Board of Education to Parliament (London: Wyman & Sons). And it must be admitted that the twenty-seven articles, covering over eleven hundred pages, may convey to our English cousins a very fair idea of the remarkable educational activity in which we are engaged. Only six or seven of the papers are by American contributors, the remainder being by English men and women especially fitted, by observation and study, to report on their respective subjects. Readers on this side cannot fail to be interested in, and enlightened by, these painstaking studies of intelligent outsiders; and the variety of subjects discussed is so great that every American teacher will find something of special concern to him. In spite of the good judgment and diligent care of the various writers, the "Reports," we are sorry to say, are not reliable in every detail. Among the appendixes to the paper on "The Training of Teachers in the United States," for instance, we notice an extract from the 'Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1898-99,' volume ii., where, unfortunately, the compilation is made from a "Register" of the institution in question of the year 1889-90. From this compilation, by an unhappy chance, the English writer chose a portion which, misleading even in its connection with other matter, becomes doubly so when taken independently. It thus happens that, instead of giving the actual curriculum of the institution, the extract quoted shows about one-third of the work done thirteen years ago. *Habent sua fata libelli.*

—Mr. Charles Francis Adams's 'Lee at Appomattox, and Other Papers' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) has been augmented, in a second edition, by his Chicago Phi Beta Kappa address, "Shall Cromwell [*i. e.*, Lee] have a Statue?" The independent issue of this address having been exhausted, resort must now be had to the new volume. In his preface, Mr. Adams reviews the reception which his title paper met with, and avows distinctly its design "to influence, if possible, the course of events then [October, 1901] taking place in South Africa, calling attention to the example of Lee, thirty-six years before, under not dissimilar circumstances." He has reason to think that this parallel had its effect as an argument for capitulation employed with the Boers by "influential members of the British Cabinet," through the medium of Lord Milner officially instructed. The design of the Cromwell address, on the other hand, was to test the abatement of our civil-war passions since Lee's surrender; and Mr. Adams is not discouraged by the result, which was "undeniably instructive," though he found him-

self misunderstood. He would, for himself, make the excuse for a monument to Lee at the Federal capital to be that, unlike Jeff Davis, Lee was "reconstructed," accepted with dignity the verdict of the appeal to arms, took a hand in the rebuilding—"went home; and, thenceforward, silently minded his own business." Statues, like books, have their fates, and there is no saying that the Lee memorial may not arise on Mr. Adams's pedestal. Action, and costume, and spectacular renown, however, besides being undeniably more favorable to the sculptor's art than the passive virtues, always tip the scale with the multitude in favor of the soldier as compared with the philanthropist or the plain good citizen. The chances are a thousand to one that a statue could be subscribed for to honor Bishop Leonidas Polk, fighting for the Christian right to own and wallop niggers, sooner than to commemorate the Rev. John G. Palfrey's demanding his inherited share of a Southern relative's estate in slaves in order that he might emancipate them.

—In May last we noticed No. IX. of 'The Georgian Period,' the excellent publication of the American Architect and Building News Company, of Boston. It was then announced that the work would run to twelve parts; and now, on the cover of No. X., there is a confirmation of that statement, followed by a table or analysis (though without references to pages or to numbers) of the principal contents of the whole work. The New York City Hall; Faneuil Hall and the State House in Boston; three well-known buildings in Philadelphia—with the statement following, "and others"—make up the list of public buildings. Eleven churches are named, seven "important houses" of dates between 1636 and 1743 are listed, though indeed there are many more than this; and, finally, there is mention of the details given with especial care—67 porches and doorways, 21 staircases, and so on. It is, indeed, a valuable work, for the historian, scholar, and reader of American literature as much as for the student of architecture. The present number contains four papers, occupying thirty-five of the small folio pages, but much intermingled with text-illustrations. This text consists of four essays, but all four deal with Charleston, and with "The South Carolina Homestead," or with Southern colonial work. It is a real study of the art of the Southeastern States at a time when there was an art of decoration really at home there—an art derived from Europe, to be sure, but deeply rooted in the Southern lands of the United States. There are, then, 47 plates, giving, perhaps, twice that number of separate illustrations. Of the hundred and twenty pictures, more or less, some are half-tones, as many are from carefully made drawings. Especially attractive are the numerous views, inside and outside, of Charleston houses, verandahs, porches, doorways, and three views of the "Picture Paper Room" of the house called Friendfield, at Georgetown. This is an amusing as well as a seriously meant number, and assuredly the work, changing more or less as it goes on toward the close, does not decline in interest.

—Mr. W. H. Duignan's 'Notes on Staffordshire Place-Names' (H. Frowde) is an excellent piece of work in a difficult field. The study of place-names requires, besides the rare quality of common sense, three special articles of equipment—minute knowledge of the infinitesimal topography of field, hill, farm, and manor; familiarity with the records; acquaintance with philological fact and method. Antiquaries and county historians are usually untamed philologists, and linguistic scholars are seldom well-furnished with local information. Mr. Duignan seems to be a remarkably good antiquarian, and his philological outfit is satisfactory. Besides, he has had the advantage of criticism from Professor Skeat, and from Mr. W. H. Stevenson, of Exeter College, Oxford, the highest authority on English names, whose ardently expected *Onomasticon* is only too long in coming. Modest as the volume is, and limited as is the field of investigation, we do not hesitate to say that it deserves a place among the reference books of every student of our language. Historians also will find it well-nigh indispensable. Of course, there must be errors among so many details, but they in nowise impair the general excellence of the work, and those persons best qualified to detect them will be least inclined to magnify their importance. Incidentally, the 'Notes' abound in curiosities of nomenclature and verbal corruption which will interest anybody in a leisure hour. The book is well-arranged and beautifully printed.

—Not long ago we reviewed the first volume of Mr. Oman's 'History of the Peninsular War.' In close connection with it may be mentioned another recent work, which deals with the campaigns of Wellington in Spain. This is the 'History of the Second Queen's Royal Regiment, now the Queen's (Royal West Surrey) Regiment,' by Colonel John Davis, the Honorary Colonel of the Third Battalion of the said regiment (E. & J. B. Young & Co.). It is a large and expensive book, printed on heavy paper and illustrated with many full-page plates. As belonging to the class of regimental annals (and the regimental annals of another country at that), it can hardly expect to secure a very wide circulation on this side of the water; but as being based on a wide range of state papers, it deserves at least to be known and used by students of the Peninsular War. The period covered by Colonel Davis in the present (fourth) volume is 1800-1837, a time when Great Britain was engaged in no great war save that with Napoleon. The Second Queen's Royal Regiment did not take part in the Waterloo campaign, but, besides helping to capture General Menou's army in Egypt, it saw active service during the whole six years of the Spanish War, and suffered from the horrors of the Walcheren expedition as well. Both by reason of its dimensions and its style, Colonel Davis's narrative belongs to the technical literature of warfare. It is apparently an accurate account of the regiment's movements throughout a period of great difficulty and danger, though one would have no means of checking its most important statements without spending three months at the Record Office. The eulogy of officers and men is not extreme, while the general histories of the struggle with Napoleon have been used to good advantage. The concluding volume of the work is specially planned to cover the reign of Queen Victoria.

—The Japanese in Formosa, and their success as colonizers, are treated with discriminating ability in a paper ("Formosa under the Japanese") read before the Royal Scottish Geographical Society by the Rev. W. Campbell, long resident on the island, and the author of several scholarly works. The contrasts between the old Chinese Administration, under which the author lived two decades, with what is seen to-day, suggest fairy tales rather than actual realities. Instead of "sick and wounded Chinese soldiers left to die like dogs by the roadside," are now public hospitals, schools, prisons, not only "thoroughly up to date" in science and cleanliness, but under "the operation of high intelligence, firmness, and even of mercy in grappling with evils which are found amongst people of every land." The reforms in land tenure, municipal hygiene, and penology are being steadily carried out in the three prefectures, and the resources of the island are so well exploited that the printed Government reports and the monthly and fortnightly and the daily newspapers published in Formosa "make up a far more valuable bibliography than anything which has been produced by Chinese and European writers." One hundred post-offices, 122 schools of all grades, three submarine cables, a railway from Kelung to Takow, and 800 miles of ordinary public roads made in one year, eleven light-houses and four meteorological stations show some of the returns on the 150,000,000 yen already invested. Formosa is now financially independent and supports itself. Despite frequent outbreaks, steady progress is made in reducing the head-hunting savages to obedience and order. Much of the mutinous spirit of the Chinese seems to be associated with the cult of the pirate-chief, Koxinga, who expelled the Dutch in the seventeenth century, and whose temple was erected by Chinese after the Japanese expedition of 1874. Whereas Luchmans were, of old, rarely seen in Formosa, now "their well-stocked shops are to be found in all the more important centres of population." As colonizers in Korea, the Japanese control two-thirds of the shipping, have seven consulates and eighty mercantile houses, besides banks, clubs, hospitals, municipal councils, chambers of commerce, etc. From this and from his long experience in Formosa, the author concludes that "the capabilities of the Japanese in their quest for adventure and wealth across the sea" are very high.

## TWO TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GREEK DRAMATISTS.—II.

*The Prometheus Bound of Aeschylus*, rendered into English verse by Edwyn Robert Bevan. London: David Nutt. 1902.

*The Comedies of Aristophanes.* Edited, translated, and explained by Benjamin Bickley Rogers. (IX., The Frogs. X., The Ecclesiazusae.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

The sense of failure which must beset the best-equipped translator of Aeschylus need not necessarily pursue the attempt to produce some faithful transcript of Aristophanes. Apart from his lofty thought and sovereign style, the diction of Aeschylus is often daring with strange constructions and new-minted words which recall the untranslatable audacities and felicities of Shakspere. But the dialogue of Aristo-

phanes, as must be expected in comedy, has descended to the level of pure prose, a style clear, sparkling, delicious, adequate for every flight of the poet's wit and fancy, but free from the eccentricities and tortuous euphuisms of our Elizabethan period.

Aristophanes, it is true, has the right to coin as many new words as he chooses, and license to let off verbal squibs and rockets to the top of his bent; but this right inheres in the genius of the language, it still inheres in that happy vehicle which Mr. Vikelas employed for his masterly renderings of Shakspere into modern Greek. And as this coinage is perfectly natural and intelligible, it is only in certain extreme and bizarre instances that the English need despair of reproducing the general effect.

In another respect the translator of the Greek comedian has his path made smooth for him. Aristophanes is a poet capable of the most graceful and captivating flights of fancy and imagination. He resembles Shakspere in the immense and unfailing exuberance of his thoughts and ideas, in his infinite jest, in his airy and gracious lyric gift; but all this is expressed in the simplest and most fluid manner, without the slightest tendency to that complex thought and pregnant expression which warns off the translator from "King Lear," for example, even more than from the "Agamemnon" or the "Choephoræ."

There is, therefore, nothing appalling or superhuman in the task which is offered by the range of ideas or of expression of Aristophanes. Among Englishmen, indeed, it has proved seductive to several genuine men of letters possessed of ideal qualifications for the undertaking. The wonder is that, after the extraordinary achievement of Frere, any other should be enticed into rivalry; the wonder is greater that another should, if that be possible, surpass him. But it is quite superfluous to make comparisons. Mr. Rogers's great work, of which this is only a single volume, stands entirely on its own remarkable merits. It is the kind of work which, in its thoroughness, its heartiness, its many-sidedness, could be undertaken only by the leisurely scholar and littérateur, in the most sympathetic spirit and *con amore*. We shall seem to exaggerate if we say roundly that we cannot conceive of its being better done. If the ghost of the great comedian could rise from his grave and speak English, he might well bow his acknowledgments for such a tribute and such an interpreter. The force and function of the translator can, indeed, no further go. It is hazardous to talk, with Mr. Bevan, of the "final and permanent translation"; but until the English tongue changes, and Mr. Rogers's manner becomes old-fashioned and quaint to readers of the next century or the century after, there will be no place for any successor, unless, indeed, he write for his own pleasure and amusement. Fielding's style and vocabulary are still sufficiently modern and new-fangled; and Mr. Rogers has drawn his style and vocabulary from the best patterns and sources. It is, indeed, itself a pattern of the most delicious conversational idiom, free and fluent, but never slangy nor slipshod.

This, of course, sounds like hyperbole. The proof of it must lie with the reader, and that reader should also be a scholar. None but the scholar will understand what difficulties Mr. Rogers has triumphed over, with what go and dash and ease and mastery. He is limited necessarily by the structure of his native language; but the limitations make no appearance. He sticks at nothing. Even the original metres are fairly represented in rhythms so flowing and natural that they seem to the manner born; and those mountainous compounds which Aristophanes piles up in his maddest frolics he jumps at lightly with the courage of a rider who has never met a fall. As a *tour de force* we quote this closing invitation from the Ecclesiazusae:

*Chor.* Then why so long keep lingering here, nor take.
These little ladies down? And as you go,
I'll sing a song, a Lay of Lay-the-dinner.

Now must the spindleshanks, lanky and lean,
Trip to the banquet, for soon will, I ween,
High on the table be smoking a dish
Brimming with game and with fowl and with fish,
All sorts of good things.
Plattero-filleto-mulleto-turboto-
-Cranio-morselo-pickleo-acido-
-Silphio-honeyo-pouredonthe-topothe-
-Ouzelo-throstleo-cushato-culvero-
-Cutleto-roastingo-marrowo-dippero-
-Leveret-syrupo-gibleto-wings.
So now you have heard these tidings true,
Lay hold of a plate and an omelet too,
And scurry away at your topmost speed,
And so you will have whereon to feed.

And, as a specimen of sprightly dialogue more fit for human nature's daily food, we add this gossip between two slaves, Aeacus and Xanthias, carried on behind their masters' backs:

*Aeac.* By Zeus the Saviour, quite the gentleman
Your master is.
*Xan.* Gentleman? I believe you.
He's all for wine and women, is my master.
*Aeac.* But not to have flogged you, when the truth came out
That you, the slave, were passing off as master!
*Xan.* He'd get the worst of that.
*Aeac.* Bravo! That's spoken
Like a true slave; that's what I love myself.
*Xan.* You love it, do you?
*Aeac.* Love it? I'm entranced
When I can curse my lord behind his back.
*Xan.* How about grumbling, when you have felt the stick
And scurry out of doors?
*Aeac.* That's jolly, too.
*Xan.* How about prying?
*Aeac.* That beats everything!
*Xan.* Great Kin-god Zeus! And what of overhearing your master's secrets?
*Aeac.* What? I'm mad with joy.
*Xan.* And blabbing them abroad?
*Aeac.* O heaven and earth!
When I do that, I can't contain myself.
*Xan.* Phœbus Apollo! clap your hand in mine,
Kiss and be kissed; and prithee tell me this,
Tell me by Zeus, our rascaldom's own god,
What's all that noise within? What means this hubbub and row?
*Aeac.* That's Aeschylus and Euripides.

Mr. Rogers's work differs from that of Mr. Bevan in that it furnishes a complete apparatus for the study of his poet, whether to the scholar, or to the man of leisure who still tastes his literary pleasures from the original fountains, and scorns the second-hand uncertainties of translations. Every necessary information and instruction is furnished in leisurely detail, in the introduction, the very full footnotes and the appendices. Questions of text are discussed, as well as questions of date and fact; and a complete furniture is given to elucidate the antiquities and the often hopelessly obscure allusions. No author needs this elucidation more than Aristophanes. Much that he has written is of that human and universal quality which will remain fresh and sparkling, with the perennial hues of genius and the surprises of wit, so long as man lives on the planet; much is now antiquated and dependent on the rush-light of the scholiast. To laugh by the aid of a commentator is a painful and fatiguing exercise. Mr. Rogers makes it as little fatiguing as possible by his learning, his insight, and his discrimination; he is the ideal cicerone through these obscure and forgotten byways. Wherever he presents a novel view it will be found worthy of attention. Two emendations of his own in the text of the "Frogs," τὸν θρῆνον ἀκούσας, l. 1028, and μελοφορεῖ πορνῳδικῶν, l. 1301, have the merit of offering a minimum of departure from the manuscript, and of yielding a perfectly satisfactory sense. There are several passages into which Mr. Rogers brings light and reason while previous editors have certainly multiplied difficulties.

Mr. Rogers has, of course, a word to say in his introduction to the "Frogs" as to the weight and meaning of the attack on Euripides. He quotes Professor Jebb's exposition of this discussion, and he quotes also in a footnote the remarks of Professor Butcher in his 'Aristotle's Theory of Poetry.' We are now happily a long way off from the day when Aristophanes was taken as a scientific guide to the history and social ideas of his time; but it is still possible to take him quite too seriously. It is well to remember that, when he lampoons a character, it will not do to trust him out of our sight; we may take him as a witness just so far as known facts support him, and no further. We know, for example, pretty clearly what sort of a personage Socrates was; we see what sort of a portrait Aristophanes draws of him. Knowing both, we must assume either that the comedian did not understand the philosopher, or did not care to understand him, or did not expect to be taken seriously in his representation. Why, indeed, should he be taken seriously? His primary business was to make fun—to hold up to nature the kind of tricksy mirror that is expressly designed to distort and to amuse by distorting. How much, then, do the attacks on Euripides amount to? Can we imagine that he had seriously weighed the ethical influence of that great poet upon women, for instance? When he inveighs against the Sthenobœas and the Canaces, whom we know only by hearsay, could we gather the slightest hint of that gallery of beautiful and noble portraits, the Macaria, the Alcestis, the Iphigeneia, which enshrined the highest ideal of the sex since the Iliad and the Odyssey? In short, from such a travesty we could never surmise the existence of the author of great plays like the "Medea," the "Alcestis," and the "Bacchantes."

There is one barrier set to an exact transcript of his author which Mr. Rogers himself cannot overcome, and that is the limits prescribed by decency and good manners. Fortunately for us, these prohibit a scientifically accurate reproduction of certain passages and even of whole plays, such as the "Lysistrata" and the "Thesmophoriazusæ." All the more must we admire the delicacy and dexterity with which he glides over slippery places and conveys the equivalent of a *risqué* situation without improper innuendo. Can we draw any inferences as to the real state of society which permitted and enjoyed such representations? In answering this question we must remember the inconsistencies and illogicalities which dwell comfortably side by side in the human breast, and permit its practice often to rise higher than its profession or its religions. In the first place, the license

of Greek comedy was a tradition—a survival of rude festivals at which religious custom sanctioned an indulgence in drunken frolic and a reversion toward the frank indecency of the cave-dweller, or the ape. The Athenians unquestionably liked their tragedy clean, and, as a matter of habit, apparently, they liked their comedy with a spice of dirt. Mr. Rogers thinks that under the régime of the old comedy they even insisted on their pound of dirt; and naturally they got what they demanded. He points out that when Aristophanes gave them the "Clouds," or the "Birds"—delightful and fascinating plays to the modern taste—the prize was withheld. This fact is rather significant, though to insist that it was withheld for this reason would be going too far; we cannot guess satisfactorily, for instance, why the greatest play of Sophocles was defeated by Philocles. At any rate, we find Aristophanes promptly retrieving his error and furnishing his due measure of grossness and buffoonery.

Mr. Rogers is positively of the opinion that women were not present at the representations of the Old Comedy. This conclusion he draws, not from *à priori* probability, but from a dispassionate and searching reëxamination of the evidence afforded by the plays themselves. They *might* have been present, he admits; nothing that shocks our modern notions in such matters should militate against the bald facts. The facts seem to be that while, in all the comedies, the personages on the stage make frequent appeals to the audience, and address many a "gag" to individuals, there is nowhere the slightest indication of the presence of a woman among the spectators. In Shakspere, as Mr. Rogers points out, the case is just the contrary. Seldom as he addresses his audience, he makes it quite clear that women as well as men were among the spectators.

Each of these books, in typography, margin and general makeup, appeals to the aristocratic tastes of the book-collector, and to the old-fashioned scholar who likes to preserve worthy matter in a worthy dress. Mr. Rogers's annotations may never be reproduced in a cheaper form; but his introductions and translation, as well as that of Mr. Bevan, will certainly prove useful to a large circle of readers, and will in time, without doubt, be reprinted in more accessible shape. If we are not mistaken, they will often be reprinted, and will remain a permanent addition to English literature, as well as to the multiplying aids for a better understanding of the ancient classics.

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*The Mid-Eighteenth Century.* By J. H. Millar. [Periods of European Literature.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

That portion of the eighteenth century which is the field of this book, from the death of Louis XIV. in 1715 to the death in 1778 of Voltaire, is, at first sight, an unpromising piece of territory for one who, to an enthusiasm for scholarship, unites the velleity, common to authors, of being read. It is a period alien to the sympathies of many, unrelieved by the Augustan survivals which distinguished the first decades of the century, and little stirred as yet by the romantic quickening which made memorable its close. Mr. Millar is to be congratulated upon producing a study of European Literature in those years which is at once sound in substance, genial in tone, and engaging in manner, fulfilling thus the tradition of an admirable series. If a considerable part of the ensuing comment be given up to friendly differing with Mr. Millar, it will be no detraction from the merit of an excellent book, but rather an assertion of the inalienable rights of individual judgment. This method of procedure may serve effectually to resume Mr. Millar's work, while it makes for that generous balance of impression nowhere more important than in the history of literature.

The first chapter is justly given up to the presiding genius of that age of reason and *éclaircissement*, Voltaire, and to his immediate circle of henchmen. Mr. Millar writes of him with unexceptionable discretion, doing full justice to his energy and lucidity of mind, ready to smile at his very obvious inconsistencies, yet prompt with wholesome admiration for his good sense and for that peculiar timeliness of talent which was, after all, the root of Voltaire's prodigious repute, As Mr. Millar says: "Progress for him meant neither anarchy nor a return to the backwoods. . . . So we part from Voltaire, his wise maxim, so well suited to an age of intellectual doubt and distraction, ringing in our ears, 'Il faut cultiver notre jardin.'"

In perusing the chapter upon "The Encyclopædia and the Reaction," some readers will surely be tempted to pause at one point and make play in behalf of a great and much maligned English writer. Mr. Millar remarks, with a fine air of casualness: "If Lord Macaulay's account of the Baconian philosophy happened to be correct, Diderot must be allowed to have caught the spirit as well as the form of his model with great success." Macaulay's famous characterization of Baconianism in opposition to Platonism may indeed be a little over emphatic, but we believe that its substance is strictly true. The core of the passage was in these sentences: "The aim of the Platonic philosophy was to exalt man into a god; the aim of the Baconian philosophy was to provide man with what he requires while he continues to be man. . . . The former aim was noble, but the latter was attainable." It is often in the conception of his near followers that the true and efficient "spirit" of a man's philosophy is most apparent. In the minds of the fervent Baconians of the seventeenth century, who founded the Royal Society in the endeavor to realize their master's Atlantian dream of "Solomon's House," tangible, sublunary service was the aim and ideal, precisely as it was the informing spirit of Diderot's labors.

We may pass the remainder of this chapter, with its deep British antipathy to Rousseau, without remark, and come to the section upon philosophy and theology in England, which is notable for its excellent appreciation of Dr. Johnson. We are among those to whom, as Mr. Millar says, "Johnson's mode of thinking appears infinitely less depressing than the heedless optimism of many of his contemporaries, or the more pretentious optimism of a later age, which professes to make the most cheerful deductions as to the condition of the universe from the circumstance that the lark is on high, or the blade dew-pearled." We are grateful for this defence of the sombre, but sincere and unaffected outlook of the Leviathan upon life, and for the timely exposition of the virtues of his manly prose. We may query in passing whether 'Rasselas' is, as Mr. Millar affirms, "the only really successful experiment in the *conte philosophique* in English." What is 'Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde'? What is 'Vathek'? But the most important and novel point in this appreciation of Johnson is the suggestive notion that he was the father of the best modern belletristic criticism. As our author says pregnantly: "This great moralist committed himself to the proposition that the primary business of poetry is, not to edify, nor to propagate sound moral or political doctrines, but to please."

With Mr. Millar's chapter on Prose Fiction we have no general quarrel. He goes about in that mimic world of boisterous doings, facile tears, and delicious shudders, with very commendable poise and a certain appreciative reserve. In reading the section on Le Sage one wonders if "cruel, callous, and cynical" is quite the most fitting characterization of "the true picaresque strain." A little further along, some readers will surely feel that Mr. Millar has been none too accessible to the merits of Smollett and Sterne. With all his indelicacy and lack of moral sense, Smollett was the best writer, the surest craftsman, among the novelists of his age. More than that, he was, at his best, the most searching and convincing creative artist of them all. In the death of Commodore Trunnion, for example, there is a perfectly fusing heat of imagination, a kind of large rhythm, that make it one of the great death scenes of all literature, unparalleled and unequalled by anything in its age. It seems, therefore, a little unfair to portray Smollett as merely an effective reporter of squalid and unlovely lives. He was that, indeed, but he was something more. As far as Sterne is concerned, it is, perhaps, enough to say that Mr. Millar is no Shandean.

It is true that the mid-eighteenth century was essentially a prosaic age, yet, in view of the great amount of verse that was produced and the excellent market that prevailed for it, one is somewhat surprised to get half-way through the book before he hears any mention of poetry. Although somewhat belated, the chapter, when it does come, is admirable. At a single point it provokes dissent: surely it is uncritical to class that noble English poem, Blair's 'Grave,' with Young's 'Night Thoughts' as "not despicable," but still unsuccessful pieces of sentimentalizing in the *macabre* vein. The judgment is true of Young, but Blair was of different metal. He was no sentimentalist, but an earnest student of nature, blessed with a rich and true poetic faculty which, but for his early death, would have led him far. The 'Grave' seems to us quite apart from the eighteenth-century tradition, which produced the 'Night Thoughts' and the 'Meditations among the Tombs.' It has a solemn reality of tone, a grim, sad-eyed humor, a sweep of imagination, a rude power of style, which sharply distinguish it. In short, it is a *meditatio mortis* of a type perennial in literature, and Blair is to be classed not with Young and Hervey, but

with Jorge Manrique, Sir Thomas Browne, and Leopardi.

We must hurry over the well-considered chapters devoted to the Drama, History, and Political Economy, Memoirs and Correspondence, and Journalism and Criticism, only pausing to concur in Mr. Millar's amiable exhortation: "Instead of vilipending Walpole because his temperament differed in certain important respects from that of the seventh Earl of Shaftsbury or of the late Mr. Gladstone, let us rather take him as he is and be thankful for him."

A brief final chapter upon "The Rest of Europe" is quite adequate to state the inconsiderable additions made to belles-lettres in this period by Germany, Holland, Italy, and Spain. In a Postscript, Mr. Millar writes very intelligently of the general tone of his period, with its acquiescence in the order of things, its cleverness, its circumscribed sanity, disturbed only by the hot earnestness of the few like Rousseau. In conclusion, he wisely advances certain considerations which it is well to keep in mind in studying any temporal section of literature, but which are particularly appropriate to the mid-eighteenth century:

"We are now in all conscience sufficiently far removed in time to take a cool and impartial survey of the age whose proudest distinction it was once thought to have been to herald the advent of the wonderful nineteenth century. The men and women who flourished during its course are interesting, not because of the peculiarity or richness of their costume, but because they were men and women like ourselves. If they were not the perfect and enlightened beings that they sometimes imagined, neither were they the blockheads and the scamps, the humbugs and the *poseurs*, which their descendants have sometimes professed to esteem them."

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*Ten Thousand Miles in Persia*, or Eight Years in Iran. By Major Percy Molesworth Sykes (Queen's Bays), H.M. Consul, Kerman and Beluchistan. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. xvi., 482; maps and illustrations.

*Persian Children of the Royal Family:* The Narrative of an English Tutor at the Court of H. I. H. Zillu's-Sultan, G.C.S.I. By Wilfrid Sparroy. John Lane. 1902. Pp. xii., 352; illustrations.

There can be little doubt of the substantial truth of Major Sykes's claim to have travelled further and seen more in southern and eastern Persia than any other European of this generation. Looking at his map, crossed and recrossed by route lines, the time limit, to all appearance, might be safely extended. Apart from mere entrances and exits through Resht and Astrabad, Maskat and Karachi, his line has gone out from the Karun River with its concessions and complications (international and fanatical) to the fertile sands of Sistan—land of romance and reality, rich with memories of Rustum and the 'Shah-nama,' and with possibilities as a granary of Persia—and from Yezd, with its silk-looms of Marco Polo's time and earlier, to Makran and the track of Alexander. To and fro through the land Major Sykes has gone, an indefatigable wanderer of the English army type which begins in sport and the desire to go where no one else has been, and is gradually caught by the lures of geography and history and drawn into paths of scholarship. A scholar, in the exact sense, he probably would not profess to be. He quotes his Virgil and Horace and Aeschylus, and in the valley of the Rion remembers the *Argo*, but it is in the self-respecting English fashion which requires of an educated gentleman such signs of the *literæ humaniores*. Yet when once the fascination of tracing the steps of Alexander and of Marco Polo had seized him, it is easy to see how the instincts of research awoke. He took his Greek texts and his Colonel Yule, and worked out his own conception, definite and clear. Now it is laid down in his book, and the scholars who sit at home at ease have to take or leave it.

At such definite topographical questions it would probably have been well if he had stopped. But it is intelligible enough how, from these beginnings, a general interest in the origins of the places which he felt that he knew better than most should have been aroused. So we find scattered through his book a series of little town and tribal histories, interesting and probably accurate enough, but done with insufficient means and better left to the men in libraries. Major Sykes, unfortunately, is still at the stage of the mediæval chroniclers, and must begin at the very beginning of things. It is true that, instead of Moses, he takes Maspero and Rawlinson, and instead of Virgil and Ovid he takes Firdawsi, but these appear to have led him straight into such unhappy equations as Baluch=Belus and Kussun=Cush. Further, when historical times are reached, there are too few references to authorities, and we are left in the dark as to the basis and trustworthiness of much. Blank remarks about having gathered information from some MS. histories of Yezd, for example, do not help. Yet against this, too, is to be balanced that Major Sykes has evidently worked hard and carefully at Persian and its literature, and has not trusted, as do so many travellers, to the second-hand. He entered the country—fortunately, he thinks, and probably rightly—with a very slight knowledge of Persian as taught in India. He discovered at once the gulf which had spread between that survival of mediæval Persian and the Iranian tongue of to-day. Then he set to work to Persianize himself, and has plainly had a full success. Sadi, Hafiz, and Firdawsi have become his companions, and the elaborate language of diplomacy is easy to him. The reproach that so few Englishmen really learn Persian so as to be decently courteous in it is lighter for his labors.

And so, too, in the same queer, casual, sporting, English fashion he fell into his consular work. When shall we be able to find men who will give themselves unpaid to the service of their country, and take it all as being perfectly natural? Cranks, religious and otherwise, we have had, and men with various axes to grind, but public work for the fun of it seems to be a product only of the English upper classes and British imperialism—think what we may of either. As consul his duties again carried him over the country, and again everywhere a white spot on the map was a red rag to him. More of these he has filled in than can be indicated here. Outstanding are the frontier of Beluchistan, the Lake of Helmund in Sistan, the limits and conditions of the Lut, or great Persian desert, and the mountainous country south of Kirman, especially the volcanic district in Sarhad. It is a pity that in this volume he does not give more exact details of these explorations, but contents himself with generalities, presumedly more popular, and a sketch-map. Still more unfortunate it is that his results have not been incorporated in the new "Stieler," although its map of "Iran und Turan" is dated of this year.

On Persian politics and conditions, internal and international, Major Sykes speaks with the caution due to his official position. Yet it is evident that he thinks more highly of the Persian Government, and has more hope of reform under it than do most. Also, that he stands for "the open door" in Persia, and against any "deals" on the part of England with either Germany or Russia. Persia must be given a chance for itself, and it will use that chance rightly. Even now, if the Government is not ideal, it is improving: the odd test of steady immigration into Persia from without is sufficient. And, in spite of everything (and there is very much to which there is and could be no allusion here), the Persian race is the finest and most gifted in western Asia. Courteously and sympathetically treated, without browbeating and mailed fists, it responds with courtesy and hospitality. So, at least, Major Sykes; who evidently had no difficulty in getting along with all classes, from clerics to camelmen. Polo, probably, had much to do with this. The singular honor has fallen to him of restoring this, the game of kings, to its original soil. At Teheran, Shiraz, and Kirman he organized clubs, and one of his breeziest chapters is devoted to its history.

Mr. Sparroy's book is at almost every point the exact opposite of that of Major Sykes. The one makes no pretension to literary art; the other is written in fairly good Blackwoodese, light, striking, picturesque and impudently gentlemanly. The gentlemanliness is very conscious; the impudence is very neat. Again, Major Sykes is careful to excess not to say anything to prejudice his official standing; no indiscretion slips his pen. Mr. Sparroy knows nothing of discretion. Certainly any tutor who wrote so freely of his some-time European employers—whether royalties or not—would be regarded at least strangely. Towards Orientals, apparently, the rules of good breeding lapse. In this case the personalities—appreciative, it is true, but personal often in the most precise sense—will tax even so humorous a prince as the Zillu's-Sultan is reported to be. He will learn to see himself and his children and his court with the most utter nakedness as his tutor saw them. And yet, there precisely is the difficulty. With Major Sykes no question can arise of what he saw, and little that he saw the thing as it was. If we could have any security that Mr. Sparroy, in turning the court of Isfahan into more or less literary copy, has been as faithful a relator, his book, personalities, and all, would rank even 'Hajji-Baba.' But that can hardly be, and Mr. Sparroy must be content as an entertainer. There he does excellently. His reader will learn how he sang "Rule, Britannia!" and his countenance was suffused with patriotic joy; how he and the court physician took upon themselves the shame of wine together, and how the physician held his tongue much better; how he spent fifteen-and-nine-pence in se-

curing the adhesion of the British lion, and what a remarkably good investment that excellent beast was; how, for the glossiness of his silk hat, he almost secured the order of the Lion and the Sun—and many other pleasant tales. Undoubtedly, for one reader of Major Sykes, Mr. Sparroy will have a dozen.

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*Principles of Sanitary Science and the Public Health.* By William T. Sedgwick, Ph.D. The Macmillan Co.

Nothing is more satisfactory than the increasing range over which particular branches of applied science draw to themselves both instructors and students. It is no longer necessary, for instance, that a sanitarian should be a physician, nor that laymen generally should know no more sanitary science than such special lessons as may be imparted under the exigency of immediate danger. This extension does not imply vulgarization, but that, from wider cultivation, the community gathers more and better fruit. It also means, so far as sanitation is concerned, that through the allied sciences, which really supply the physician with most of his facts, those who are not clinicians may reach conclusions identical with his, and that the routes of sanitary engineering and bacteriology lead to the end which practical medicine desires.

As the conception of disease as a demoniac possession has ceased, so the notion of material possession is passing; and there is great gain when the popular mind appreciates that disease is not an entity which invades the body, in the sense that it may be seized and ejected, but is rather the imperfect working of vital machinery, sometimes due to natural unsoundness or to environment, but oftener to an intruder, not to be expelled as such, which modifies the functions of its involuntary host. We instinctively long for personal vigor, and from selfish as well as benevolent motives we pray for our neighbor's health. The complete reign of hygienic conditions would mean the ultimate disappearance of avoidable disease; and, in its ultimate rendering, "avoidable" covers nearly every form. To imagine a nation in absolute health may seem Utopian. But is the beneficent glory of Utopia to remain always and only a dream? Too much physical discomfort has been abolished, indeed too many moral evils have been abated, not to encourage both hope and progress. To use familiar examples in civilized lands, smallpox has been suppressed except as the penalty of vicious neglect, leprosy has passed away, plague belongs to the past, diphtheria may be warded off from the exposed, and brilliant and latest is to-day's practical control of yellow fever. We know how tuberculosis is propagated, and the work for to-morrow is to eradicate in the world, as has been done in communities, the disease which destroys one-seventh of mankind. However distant its attainment may be, the aim is laudable, nor will anything be accomplished by those who fold their hands in despair at the magnitude of the undertaking.

The volume before us is a happy exposition of some of the underlying principles of sanitary science whose application in detail is practical hygiene. It fairly describes the status of bacteriology in relation to disease; it discusses infection and contagion and their adjectives, preferring "zymotic" as descriptive of effects; it gives a couple of chapters to asepsis, antisepsis, and disinfection; and devotes many pages to the part played by water, liquid and solid, and milk. All this is well done, and the reader has before him an excellent résumé of the dangers to be apprehended from many preventable conditions, and of methods for their control. Ventilation, clothing, food, and allied topics are not discussed, because "not as yet reducible in their relation to human life to simple scientific terms." We think that a New Englander might draw closer attention to the vital relations of the soil, especially to its contained ground-moisture and ground-air, for in Massachusetts was first shown the direct significance of the one in tuberculosis, and Boston affords occasional examples of subterranean poisoning by the other. The volume breathes with peculiar life where it is inspired by the author's experience while serving the Board of Health of the Commonwealth, and it is an incidental testimonial to the high service that Board renders not only to the State, but to the nation, on the admirable lines laid down more than thirty years ago by Henry I. Bowditch and George Derby. A Massachusetts philosopher contends that the seventy-year limit of the Psalmist is to be interpreted as the average, not the extreme, length of normal human life. When sanitary law exerts its legitimate control so that the race is born healthy and remains healthy, man should, accidents excepted, wear out, not break down, and longevity be his natural portion.

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*Estetica*, come Scienza dell' Espressione e Linguistica generale. I. Teoria. II. Storia. Da Benedetto Croce. Milan: Remo Sandron. 8vo, pp. xx., 550.

Fragments of this important work have already appeared in print, and have from time to time been called to the attention of our readers. In its final form, the book consists of two parts; the first, which occupies about a quarter of the volume, dealing with the author's own system of thought, and the second tracing in a clear and forceful manner the history of æsthetic theory from the Greeks to the present day. To the majority of scholars this second part will make the largest appeal, but the two portions are mutually interpretative, and whatever we may think of Signor Croce's own system, each helps in a certain manner to illuminate the other.

The title itself indicates both the author's theory of æsthetics and the standpoint from which he views its scientific progression of ideas. At the very outset he identifies art with the intuitive as opposed to the intellectual processes of mind, and then identifies intuition with expression. In this sense, æsthetics is the science of expression, and its history is the gradual unfolding of this idea, in opposition to those other forms of thought which are its *eidola*—the hedonistic theory, which regards mere pleasure as the end of art; the moralistic theory, which ascribes to art a didactic aim; and the mystical theory, with its various vague and unscientific deductions. In this evolution of æsthetic history, if we may judge from a passage in the appendix (p. 515), the great landmarks are Aristotle's 'Poetics,' Vico's 'Scienza Nuova,' Kant's third 'Kritik,' and Schleiermacher's 'Vorlesungen über Aesthetik.' Schleiermacher the author may, in a certain sense, be said to have "discovered," and it is part of his thesis that Vico is the real founder of the modern science of æsthetics.

The Greeks understood in part the problem of æsthetics, but failed to solve it. The moralistic theory was the prevailing (or rather the popular) one, but the hedonistic and mystic theories were represented, the latter by the School of Plotinus; and in Aristotle there is some conception of art as a science of expression, though entirely separated in its treatment from the theory of beauty. Poetry is by Aristotle identified with the universal or possible, but its universality is not distinguished from that of science. With the recovery of the 'Poetics' in the Renaissance. Aristotelianism was fused with the mediæval formulæ inherited from the rhetorical schools, and this point of view distinguishes all the theorists of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The great fermentation of thought that followed the close of the Renaissance period resulted in the creation and elaboration of new critical ideals, and the terminology of modern æsthetics came into being with the coinage and reshaping of such terms as imagination, fancy, taste, sentiment, and the like. Of all these Signore Croce gives a detailed history, and this is not the least interesting portion of his work.

It is impossible to follow our author through the intricacies of his presentation of modern thought, but his claims for Vico and Schleiermacher deserve special attention. It was Vico who purged æsthetics of the vague residua of the old rhetorics and poetics, and who, by "distinguishing æsthetics from Homeric civilization," laid the foundations for a new science. It was Schleiermacher, however, who freed the science from the "imperativistic" character given to it by the school of Kant and from the mysticism of Hegel and the romantic idealists. He gave to æsthetics a character not metaphysical but simply anthropological; he distinguished a form of thought diverse from logical thought; he superseded the idea of beauty by that of "artistic perfection." These are the directions which the science has taken since his day, and they indicate in like manner the starting-point of Signor Croce's own system.

The historic portion of the work, then, while naturally colored by the author's own ideas, is a most lucid account of the successive phases of human thought on the subject of art. Its scholarship is exact and broad; its facts are reinforced by the excellent bibliographical material in the appendix; and it is in every way worthy of that wider American audience which would come to it in an English dress. There is everywhere a refreshing contempt for vague abstractions and sham culture. Much of Signor Croce's own theory is fascinating and highly original—at times, perhaps, idiosyncratic. Special attention might be called to the treatment of genres (p. 38 *sq.*, p. 465 *sq.*), in which the distinctions of literary kinds, and their historic evolution as a subject of study, are dismissed as wholly unreal and unscientific. The author's prepossessions, as the title itself implies, are on the side of linguistic expression; his field is, therefore, in a sense limited; and to this,

perhaps, must be ascribed some of the book's deficiencies. Æsthetics is to him a science of expression in which art is made the producer of individual, not universal, forms of knowledge. The universalizing power of art is, therefore, not fully felt, nor is it vitally connected with the highest strivings of the human mind.

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*Papers from a Viceroy's Yamen.* By Ku Hung-Ming, M. A. Shanghai *Mercury* Office.

The secretary-interpreter to the Viceroy of Hu-kuang has gathered into a comely volume four of the papers which he contributed to the *Japan Mail*, and to these has added a fifth paper and a preface. The most coherent and luminous of the five is the chapter entitled *Moriamur pro rege, regina!* It is "a statement of the true feelings of the Chinese people towards the person and authority of H. I. M. the Empress-Dowager," whom many aliens call "the only man in China." The second chapter, *Defensio populi ad populos*, written in 1891 during the Yangtse riots, considers the modern missionaries in relation to these popular outbreaks. The third paper, entitled "For the Cause of Good Government in China," is a sharp and penetrating exposure of recent foreign diplomacy in China—in-territoriality as well as ex-territoriality. "Latter-day Notes on the Chinese Question" gives a survey of the state of government and civilization in the world at large, and especially in Great Britain, Germany, France, and the United States. The final chapter discusses "Civilization and Anarchy: or, The Moral Problem of the Far Eastern Question."

In tone and spirit this book is the passionate defence of his country and rulers by a scholarly Chinese, who, having studied the civilization of Europe, prefers his own. He believes that the Empress-Dowager of reality and she of the heated imagination of the Shanghai press are two and antipodally different. In his eyes she is the true "mother of the nation," wise, benignant, able; and the masses sincerely reverence her. It was by the "intrigue and charlatanry of progressive ideas" that Kang Yu Wei and his adherents tried to take advantage of the national discontent after the Japanese war to push themselves into power. Her firm and good government made them "newspaper martyrs."

For the missionaries—"the unemployed professional persons from Europe and America with a *comitatus* of the Chinese outcasts, their converts," the author has no use. He considers these "hired converters" responsible for "the only two deep causes of hatred of foreigners among the Chinese."

Defiant as he is in the face of foreign force, and believing as he does that no amount of shot and shell will ever cure the Chinaman of his contempt for the foreign bullies who delight in giving China a "lesson," the author is coldly sarcastic when analyzing "the Jesuit nature of the intellectual man of modern Europe," who laughs in the face of a Chinaman because he attributes rain to a live dragon, even while by the ear of faith he hears Balaam's ass speaking. Nevertheless, he makes a clear distinction between the true Christian, the sneak, and the cad, the last being the "Jesuit," "who does not very much believe in Heaven, angels, or hell-fire, but who wants other people to believe in these things—to be a Christian for his benefit!" The missionary, he thinks, talks "Joss" to some people at home to get subscriptions for his mission, and to others he talks "patriotism and prestige" in order to get the Jingo press to support and not abuse him; but when he gets to China, he talks "Progress and Civilization." With a great show of Chinese wit and learning, the author tries to prove that real anarchy is rampant in Europe and America. In China there is better ground for lasting good government. It was the knowledge and ideas brought to Europe from China by the Roman Catholic missionaries that broke up the mediæval civilization of Europe. The effects of the new modern culture of the Occident will be that which is already characteristic of the Chinese—"self-reliance on the part of the people as regards the State."

In its aim and spirit, this book is a prayer to the nations using force to use right reason, and to try to understand the people they expect to hold down by the cannon's mouth. In its literary character it is a Chinese essay in English. It is stuffed with quotations, allusions, and literary bric-à-brac of all sorts gathered from the French, German, Scotch, Irish, and what-not. The wits and ways of a Chinese aspirant for office, working through the ultra-literary civil-service examinations, are everywhere noticeable, and there is a tremendous amount of that indirect working of the mind which, in place of true logic and direct argument, seeks to accomplish its end by literary embellishment or more or less apposite quotation.

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*Regeneration.* By Thomas Hunt Morgan, Ph.D., Professor of Biology, Bryn Mawr College. Macmillan Co. Large 8vo, pp. xii., 316. Illustrated.

Regeneration of animal or plant, as defined in this book, means replacement of lost parts, renewal of organs, completion of an organism from a part; and is made to include development of isolated cells or blastomeres. The presentation is thorough and comprehensive; besides original researches of the author, it involves a great deal of recapitulation and verification of experiments performed by others, with analyses and criticisms of the conclusions drawn from the phenomena or of theories advanced in explanation. Dr. Morgan is fortunate in possessing experience, depth of insight, and a judicial habit of mind that give him special fitness for his task. Among the topics for consideration are external and internal factors; the relations between regeneration and liability to injury; the inadequacy of natural selection as a means of accounting for existence of the phenomena of regeneration, hypertrophy, atrophy, autotomy, grafting, origin of new cells and tissues, regeneration in egg and embryo of animals low in the scale of life; the part played by the germ-layers; and the supposed repetition of phylogenetic and ontogenetic processes in regeneration. There is much dissection and weighing of hypotheses propounded in accounting for various phenomena; in the main, the balance is fairly held.

A principal object of the essay is to account for the regenerative process itself. Like most naturalists really possessed of a spirit of investigation and experimentation, the author doubts the efficacy of natural selection. In his mind the question is not so much that organisms are adapted, as that organisms respond adaptively to changes to which they can never have been subjected before. The regenerative changes for the good of the organism (the problem not being one of life and death or even of leaving more descendants) are not built up by accumulation of small advances in useful directions, and cannot be accounted for by the survival of those individuals in which the changes take place better than in their fellows; the selective agency of environment does not explain the regenerative process; and usefulness cannot be made to account for the presence of the process of regeneration in the organism. This process is probably one of the fundamental attributes of living things, a growth phenomenon, and as such characteristic of organisms.

From a course of five lectures the work has expanded into a very creditable volume.

---

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbot, F. L. Faith Built on Reason. Boston: James H. West Co. 50 cents.
Bacon, Alice M. Japanese Girls and Women. New ed. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Baldwin, C. S. A College Manual of Rhetoric. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.35.
Clark, Annie M. L. The Alcotts in Harvard. Lancaster (Mass.): J. C. L. Clark.
Cole, S. V. In Scipio's Garden, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Deshon, George. Sermons for All the Sundays of the Ecclesiastical Year and the Principal Festivals. The Catholic Book Exchange. $1.
Devonshire, Mrs. R. L. Life and Letters of H. Taine. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Earle, Mary T. The Flag on the Hilltop. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 90 cents.
Eastman, C. A. Indian Boyhood. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.60.
Frothingham, Jessie P. Sea Fighters from Drake to Farragut. Scribners. $1.20.
Fuller, Edward. John Malcolm. Providence: Snow & Farnham. $1.50.
Gairdner, James. The English Church in the Sixteenth Century from the Accession of Henry VIII. to the Death of Mary. Macmillan. $2.
Geddes, J., jr., and Josselyn, F. M. Il Vero Amico di Carlo Goldoni. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Halstead, Murat. The Life of President Theodore Roosevelt. The Saalfield Pub. Co.
Harper, Andrew. The Song of Solomon. (The Cambridge Bible.) London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1s. 6d.
Hubbard, Sara A. Catch Words of Cheer. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Jackson, Helen H. Glimpses of California and the Missions. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Jacob, Violet. The Sheep-Stealers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20.
Kent, Elizabeth. The House Opposite. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
King, H. C. Theology and the Social Consciousness. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kingsley, Florence M. The Needle's Eye. Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Lewis, E. H. A Text-Book of Applied English Grammar. Macmillan. 50c.
MacDonald, Robert. The Herr Doctor. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 90c.
Mason, C. A. The Little Green God. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Nichols, E. L., and Franklin, W. S. The Elements of Physics. Vol. I.: Mechanics and Heat. New ed. Macmillan. $1.50.
Papers of the British School at Rome, Vol. I. Macmillan.
Rhymes and Roundelays from "Life." Life Pub. Co.
Rouse, W. H. D. Greek Votive Offerings. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $4.50.
Sangster, Margaret E. Janet Ward. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Seabury, J. B. Lord Chesterfield's Letters to his Son. Silver, Burdett & Co. 35 cents.
Segall, J. B. Corneille's Le Menteur. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Sharp, F. C. Shakespeare's Portrayal of the Moral Life. Scribners. $1.25.
Singleton, Esther. Famous Paintings, As Seen and Described by Great Writers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.60.
Sixth Annual Report of the Forest, Fish, and Game Commission of the State of New York. Published for the State.
Slosson, Annie T. Aunt Abbie's Neighbors. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Smith, Alexander, and Hall, E. H. The Teaching of Chemistry and Physics in the Secondary School. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Smith, F. Hopkinson. Novels, Stories, and Sketches: (1) Tom Grogan, (2) Gondola Days. Scribners.
Smith, O. J. Eternalism: A Theory of Infinite Justice. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Songs of England's Glory. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Stephenson, Nathaniel. The Beautiful Mrs. Moulton. John Lane.

Thackeray, W. M. The Paris Sketch Book of Mr. M. A. Titmarsh, and the Irish Sketch Book. Macmillan. $1.

Walpole, G. H. S. Vital Religion; or the Personal Knowledge of Christ. London: Elliot Stock; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.

Zwemer, Samuel and Amy E. Topsy-Turvy Land: Arabia Pictured for Children. New ed. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 2, 1902.

## The Week.

If the civil war in the anthracite coal region continues, schools must close, factories and mills must shut down, gas and electric companies must curtail their output, transportation be impeded —in short, in every direction the activities of the country will be hampered or brought to a cessation. The present situation, in every aspect, is impossible and intolerable. The State of Pennsylvania maintains it. From the very first, Gov. Stone has lacked firmness and force. A Quay henchman of the familiar type, he has, with his master, tried to play politics. The fortunes of Senator Quay and of Senator Quay's party have weighed far more with him than the good name of his State or the country. Not until recently has he shown a proper appreciation of the gravity of the situation. Every soldier in the State of Pennsylvania should be under arms and in the coal regions. If the National Guard does not suffice, the entire regular army is at the Governor's disposal. In none of the other Pennsylvania strikes has the Executive been so slow to act, so disinclined to rouse public sentiment on behalf of law and order. Meanwhile, the moral intervention at least of the President is being earnestly sought.

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The Secretary of the Treasury has made two new rulings for the purpose of relieving the stringency in Wall Street. One of these is, that the national bank depositories need not keep any cash reserve against Government deposits; the other is, that the Treasury will accept other security for Government deposits than United States bonds. Under the former ruling, about $30,000,000 of cash held (or supposed to be held) as reserve against existing deposits in the banks would become available as active cash, and might ordinarily be used as the basis of loans and discounts to the extent of three or four times that sum. Under the latter ruling, all the money in the Treasury over and above the usual working balance might be deposited in banks against such collateral security as is usually taken by savings banks, trust companies, and by national banks themselves. These rulings have to be looked at in two different aspects, one relating to their legality and the other to their expediency. That they are unwarranted by law seems to be sufficiently plain. The law, which requires a fixed reserve to be held against deposits, makes no exception in respect of Government deposits. It is true that these are secured by sufficient collateral. Originally the banks were required to keep the specified reserve against circulation and deposits, both of these liabilities being secured by United States bonds. Congress saw fit to repeal this law as regards circulation, but did not change it as to deposits. It is said that Secretary Sherman, when engaged in refunding the national debt, relaxed this rule, but if he did so he exceeded his authority. His infraction of law, if he committed one, does not excuse any of his successors.

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If Government officers are to assume the right to overrule statutes when the occasion, in their view, requires it, where is the policy to end? We know where it ended in the panic of 1873, when a frightened Secretary threw on the market a batch of fiat money legally marked for retirement. The crisis was made rather worse than better by that move of reckless desperation, and the Administration responsible for it incurred the unchanging and unsparing censure of its own and later times. Mr. Richardson's stretching of the powers of his office occurred at a time of genuine panic, helplessness, and depression; this is hardly the case with Secretary Shaw. It is also true that the Secretary's moves are but partly warranted by absorption of currency by the Treasury. The daily surplus revenue is at present moderately large; but the surplus revenue for the fiscal year has been barely $8,000,000. It must be obvious, then, that the Government's powers are being strained, not to correct a situation brought about arbitrarily by the Treasury, but to help the money market out of a difficulty into which it had brought itself. But this is a wholly new function for the United States Treasury, and it is certainly, in our judgment, a step for which our system of government is not prepared. If a Secretary has the right to overstep strict construction of the law to relieve a temporary strain in money, what is to hinder similar action merely to foster speculation? This is a pregnant question, which will be asked in many quarters of the United States to-day.

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It is hard to believe that President Roosevelt has declined to accede to President Palma's request for the withdrawal of the United States troops from Cuba. Yet the fact is announced, and the solemn pretence is made that the refusal is in Cuba's interest, as she has only a couple of hundred artillerymen to uphold the Government and keep the peace. If the island has not more troops, the fault at first hand is ours, for Gov. Wood raised the existing two companies, and had them drilled, and if 2,000 are needed he certainly should have provided them before turning over the Government. He could have had 20,000 men if he had called for them. But, waiving all this, the dangers which the War Department conjures up are purely imaginary, as the conduct of the Cubans since 1898 clearly shows. If the Administration wishes to increase the friction between the United States and Cuba it is on the right track. The United States uniform will now be more than ever disliked when it appears on the streets of Havana, Cienfuegos, and Santiago.

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Secretary Root undertook on September 17 a defence of the Philippine army in a stump speech at Peoria, Ill. At the same time there was received at the War Department a careful analysis of Secretary Root's attitude towards the outrages committed by American soldiers. This is from the pen of Mr. Moorfield Storey, the counsel for the Anti-Imperialist Committee, whose standing as a clear-headed and able lawyer is second to none. As a result of his study, Mr. Storey declares that "Secretary Root is the real defendant in this case," and that "the responsibility for what has disgraced the American name lies at his door." Mr. Storey finds Mr. Root "conspicuously the person to be investigated," and demands on behalf of the committee that the records of the War Department be laid bare, for the information of the public. Mr. Root's present duty, therefore, is a defence of himself, not of the army. That Mr. Root never voluntarily made any attempt to stop the barbarous practices in the islands, we firmly believe. Not until President Roosevelt insisted that the guilty men be adequately punished did Mr. Root act in the premises, and there is reason to believe that the President never knew the extent of the wrongdoing until it was forced upon his attention by public-spirited outsiders.

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The first two volunteer officers to disgrace themselves, for instance, Capt. G. W. Brandle and Second Lieut. A. S. Perkins of the Twenty-seventh Volunteer Infantry, were found guilty, in 1900, of torturing Filipino prisoners by hanging them by the neck for ten seconds each. The sole punishment inflicted was a mild reprimand from the verbose and grandiloquent Gen. MacArthur, who gravely informed these uniformed torturers that they must practise "dignity and decorum" (!) hereafter. "In carrying out this unpleasant duty [of reprimanding the officers]," remarked the Philadelphia

*North American* at the time, "Major-Gen. MacArthur does what he can not to wound unnecessarily the sensibilities of the offending officers." This thoughtfulness is characteristic of Mr. Root's attitude. It is true that Gen. MacArthur was the final reviewing authority, but the Secretary could very readily have served notice to the army by a general order, or otherwise, that such barbarity would not be tolerated anywhere. But the army got the impression that as long as the war was ended somehow, it mattered little what was done in the Philippine jungles, and so we had the long list of offenders, both volunteer and regular officers. To this deliberate blindness of the War Department is also due the failure to try Lieut. Conger, Eighteenth Infantry, and Capt. P. H. Lyon, Assistant Surgeon, who were implicated with Major Glenn, and whose trial was promised by President Roosevelt's order regarding the outrages.

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Mr. Hay, when he issued the Rumanian circular, must have known that, so far as political fair-dealing was at issue, the United States lay open to a vigorous *tu quoque*. The retort discourteous has in fact been made simultaneously in many quarters. A Berlin and a St. Petersburg paper urge Rumania to intervene in behalf of the Filipinos. Prince Chika of Rumania, writing to the *Tribuna*, asks:

"Supposing that Europe accepts Mr. Hay's interference and consents to act in behalf of the Rumanian Jews, what will Mr. Hay say if Rumania requests the Powers to intervene and stop the persecution of negroes in the United States, and demands explanation in regard to the treatment of Filipino prisoners?"

The Jews of Rumania are deprived of the ordinary civil rights by just such a fiction as the "grandfather clause" which disfranchises so many of our Southern negroes. The Jews are held to be "aliens," and thus the treaty provision which requires civic equality of all religious confessions is evaded. It is as logical to declare a man an alien as it is to disfranchise him because his forebears could not have voted before 1863. Grievous as are the disabilities under which the Jews suffer in Rumania, there has been no such record of real persecution as could be cast up against ourselves in the matter of negro lynchings. As for our actual grievance and sole ground of the circular note—forced emigration of Rumanian Jews—M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu, in *L'Économiste Français* for September 13, discusses European emigration from 1882 to 1901, without so much as mentioning Rumania.

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The platform adopted at Saratoga on Wednesday of last week is very long, mostly insincere, and extremely feeble. It may be fitly styled "a weak, wishy-washy, everlasting flood." The parts to which one naturally turns first are those about which there has been so much stir lately in the conferences of party leaders and in the public prints—those relating to President Roosevelt and his anti-Trust campaign. It was the intention of the leaders at first to ignore the President altogether, lest the promoters and managers of industrial monopolies should cut off the supplies of cash from the campaign fund. But when they perceived that his utterances had made a great impression on the public mind, and that the action of conventions in other States nominating him for the Presidency in 1904 could not be overlooked, they reluctantly changed their plan. Accordingly the platform adopted at Saratoga contains a plank which "recognizes the fidelity" of President Roosevelt in carrying out the policy of his lamented predecessor, and the rare capacity he has shown in meeting his new responsibilities. It "looks forward with confidence" to his reëlection in 1904, and pledges the earnest efforts of the party thereto "so far as this convention has the power." Of course, this convention has no power to pledge the convention of next year. No fault is to be found with this saving clause, yet the reader will notice in the entire phraseology of the plank the same evidence of constraint and reluctance that was shown in the previous manœuvres of Platt and Quigg when they were trying to avoid any committal to Roosevelt. No such reluctance existed among the delegates to the convention. Their endorsement of Roosevelt was altogether enthusiastic, but they were obliged to vote for the tame resolution which the leaders prepared for them.

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To endorse Roosevelt for nomination in 1904 without any reference to his recent public utterances was also the intention of the party leaders, and this purpose was changed only at the last moment. So the committee gave birth to the following resolution:

"While we would encourage business enterprises which have for their object the extension of trade and the upbuilding of our State, we condemn all combinations and monopolies, in whatever form, having for their purpose the destruction of competition in legitimate enterprise, the limitation of production in any field of labor, or the increase of cost to the consumer of the necessaries of life, and we pledge the party to the support of such legislation as will suppress and prevent the organization of such illegal combinations."

The language employed excludes the method of Constitutional amendment, which the President has proposed for the efficient control of monopolies. This choice of words could not have been due to inadvertence. In the resolution on Cuban reciprocity there is a similar failure to support the President. Effective relief is to be granted to Cuba, so far as it may be done "without harm to any American industry." This enables any New York Congressman who votes against Cuban reciprocity to say that since, in his belief, it would harm some American industry, he could not support it consistently with the platform of his party.

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While the Connecticut Democrats did well in turning down Bryanism and silver, they were very weak in their attitude on what is the most important issue in the State to-day—that of reform in legislative representation. When the Constitutional Convention last spring failed to do the work for which it was created, and when its makeshift plan of representation was rejected by the indignant voters, it was naturally supposed that the Democrats would push that issue to the front and wage an aggressive campaign on it. No adequate reform is expected from the Republicans. They profit too much from the present injustice, which gives 400 residents in one town as much legislative power as 100,000 in others. No surprise was felt, therefore, when their State Convention declared its "faith in the historic town system," and its belief that the populous towns could be given "reasonable" representation without changing the fundamental features of the town-representation idea. The declaration meant nothing, as its framers well knew that the town-unit idea cannot be retained in any system which even approaches popular representation, without the creation of a legislative body so large that it would overflow the Capitol building. More was expected of the Connecticut Democrats, however, than an aping of their political opponents. In their Constitutional reform plank, placed at the end instead of at the front of the platform, they also declare their "faith in the historic system of town government," and pledge themselves to give the populous communities "adequate representation," while retaining the town-representation plan. Such a cowardly attitude can evoke no enthusiasm, and little will be heard of the chief issue in Connecticut to-day unless the Democratic nominee for Governor, Melbert B. Cary, one of the foremost advocates in the State of representative reform, should force the fighting on that line.

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The Republican primaries in the Eleventh Congressional District of Massachusetts, which is a part of the city of Boston, have resulted in the selection of delegates a majority of whom are favorable to the nomination of Eugene N. Foss for Congress—a fact sure to cause further disquietude among those who oppose any "meddling" with the schedules of the Dingley tariff. Mr. Foss made his canvass for the nomination squarely on the issue of free iron and free hides, which he favored. He was opposed by all the influences of the State and city Republican machine, which looked

askance at his doctrines and favored the candidacy of another. While a business man of excellent reputation, Mr. Foss was not well enough known to have been nominated in spite of these influences but for his platform. Under these circumstances, it seems fair to assume that the verdict of the Eleventh Congressional District of Massachusetts is in favor of revising the tariff along certain lines. There is nothing surprising in this, but, together with the other signs of the times, it has its significance.

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Some important hints were thrown out by Mr. A. B. Hepburn in his recent address to the Bankers' Association of Pennsylvania, touching the defects of our currency system. He gave an account of the German system of "emergency circulation," by means of which the banks are allowed to issue notes in excess of ordinary requirements on condition of paying a tax at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum on the excess. Mr. Hepburn thought that it would be safe to allow national banks, in emergencies, of the gravity of which the Secretary of the Treasury should be the judge, to issue notes not exceeding in amount one-half of their capital stock, on condition of paying a tax of 6 per cent. per annum on such circulation. It was his opinion that such issues not only would be safe, but would relieve the banks of the necessity of issuing Clearing-house loan certificates in times of panic. The latter system, although, under our present methods, indispensable at times, tends to weaken confidence in the banks which resort to it. It should, therefore, be superseded by a better method of meeting such emergencies. Mr. Hepburn called attention to the fact that ordinarily banks in Germany are allowed to count the notes of other specie-paying banks as a part of their cash reserve against circulating notes, but he did not recommend that they be used as reserve against deposits here. On the contrary, he said:

> "I cannot persuade myself that a banknote, as that term is generally understood, ought ever to be counted as reserve; but our national banknotes, secured as they are, are as good for reserve or for any other purpose as any obligation in this country can be."

That is quite true, but no "obligation" should ever be counted as a bank reserve, except the demand obligations of the Government, and the latter should be dispensed with as soon as possible. Under an ideal system, the bank reserves would consist only of gold coin and bullion.

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What constitutes proper supervision of life-insurance companies was ably set forth in the remarks of John A. McCall before the insurance officials of twenty-four different States, in session at Columbus, O., last week. Mr. McCall contended that the motive for most of the restrictions was a legitimate desire on the part of the State to protect the public from irresponsible concerns which wrought such havoc in this country twenty years ago. This point Mr. McCall was peculiarly well qualified to bring out, since the crusade inaugurated against fraudulent insurance companies during his administration as head of the New York Insurance Department was of incalculable advantage to policy-holders of this State. Not satisfied with sending the chief impostors to State prison, Mr. McCall promulgated a series of rules governing the regulation of insurance companies that have since formed the basis for the most intelligent and rigorous supervision in force anywhere. While Massachusetts and New York have usually taken the lead in such reforms, most of the important States have corrected the old abuses which sprang from an improper conception of the real function of such companies. Chief among these reforms has been the abandonment of the movement against corporations of foreign countries doing business in certain Western States. This warfare was waged for years in the form of discriminating taxation, until the business public became aroused by the folly of restricting the supply of available insurance by forcing some of the strongest underwriting corporations out of the field. Mr. McCall's utterances, on the whole, form a valuable contribution to the literature of State insurance supervision. They should exert an important influence in correcting the abuses of a necessarily complicated system.

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Professor Cattell of Columbia University points out, in *Science*, certain difficulties in the way of administering the funds of the Carnegie Institution, and makes some interesting, practical suggestions. He discerns, in the plan of subsidizing individual investigators or departments of research in the present universities, the danger that the university may reduce correspondingly the funds allotted to these purposes, while private givers will be inclined to withdraw their support. A similar disadvantage accompanies the purchase of existing laboratories or experiment stations. In the case of the Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole, which the Carnegie Institution is said to have marked for its own, the change of ownership would reduce greatly and perhaps cut off the stated contributions which that admirable institution receives from scores of colleges. It would also nullify whatever prospective benefactions the laboratory may have in store. Accordingly, Professor Cattell lays down the general principle, "Should the Carnegie Institution make an appropriation on condition that it be duplicated locally, its funds would be spent to advantage." This, be it observed, is both good sense and sound Carnegie doctrine.

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Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's criticism of the Balfour Ministry is worth more to the Liberals than the winning of a handful of by-elections. The late Chancellor of the Exchequer practically accuses the Government of inefficiency in the War Office and recklessness in the Treasury. It is hard to see how the condemnation of a "khaki" Ministry could be more complete. In other directions also the Government has aroused deep discontent. If the Education Bill began a year ago as a colossal bore, it has become a political issue of the first magnitude. By an inconsiderate application of the Crimes Act in Ireland Mr. Balfour has presumably alienated his Nationalist supporters of the bill, while, if he pushes it through by a nominal majority, its passage will be the signal for thousands of Nonconformists and Liberals to refuse to pay the rates. No Ministry could survive in the face of wholesale arrests of usually law-abiding citizens who had chosen to enter so drastic a protest against Episcopal control of the public schools. Mr. Balfour and others have been deploring the lack of a vigorous opposition. It looks as though the Irish question and the school question would quickly supply this need. In spite of his large paper majority, the Premier will reënter the Commons with prestige so greatly diminished that it is hard to see how an appeal to the country can be long deferred.

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Germany is reaping the full fruits of "protection" in the high price and absolute scarcity of meat. The Government insists on keeping the food tariff—particularly that on animal products—at a point which will permit the negotiation of pending reciprocity treaties. The Agrarians insist upon the original excessive schedules of the new tariff bill. The Government can better afford to be beaten on the bill than to yield, and the Agrarians will not give way; so the deadlock is complete. But it appears that the protest of a country cruelly mulcted for the benefit of the farming class is making itself heard. There are indications that the Agrarians are losing strength, and there is some attempt to unite the Liberal and Social-Democratic parties into a genuine Left. Such a fusion of the liberal forces in Germany is most devoutly to be desired. Once effected, stranger things might happen than that the Government should seek support from the Left, thus repeating more sensationally in an Empire the recent parliamentary history of the Republic of France and the Kingdom of Italy, in both of which the Government has ruled with the aid of the Socialists.

### *COAL-MINING BY RECEIVERS.*

"The Coal Mines and the Public" is the title of a pamphlet of sixty-three pages, in which the writer, Mr. Heman W. Chaplin, seeks to show how the mining of anthracite coal may be resumed by judicial process. A suit has already been instituted in Boston for a receivership of the principal coal-carrying and coal-mining companies, in order to accomplish this end.

Mr. Chaplin sets out with the proposition that real estate is never held by a private owner by an absolute title, but is subject to the right of the public, which may either restrict the use of it or require from the owner affirmative action in respect of it. About one-half of his argument rests upon the rulings of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Munn case, where the owners of a grain elevator in Chicago were required to submit to a law passed by the Legislature of Illinois which required all such elevators to conduct their business in a certain way and to take out licenses which should be revocable for misconduct, and which fixed a maximum sum for the storage and handling of grain. The owners of the elevator, which had been built and put in operation before the passage of the law, refused to comply with it. They were prosecuted, convicted and fined. They took an appeal, but the judgment of the lower court was sustained, both in the Supreme Court of Illinois and in that of the United States. There are probably some lawyers who still think that the decision in the Munn case is unsound, but there are none who expect ever to see it reversed.

Mr. Chaplin seeks to fit this decision upon the corpus of the coal-carrying and coal-mining companies of Pennsylvania. The offence for which Munn was punished was that of disobeying a statute which the State of Illinois was competent to pass. There is no statute of Pennsylvania requiring a railroad to carry coal which has not been offered to it. If there is one which requires a mining company to mine coal at all, we have never heard of it. Nor do we believe that a law will ever be passed requiring an owner of coal property to mine more coal than he can. Certainly no court will ever seek to compel him to do so in the absence of such a statute. The law does not require impossibilities. The decision in the Munn case does not fit the *corpus delicti*. Whether the mine owners are to blame or not, they are not blamable in that way. Therefore, the first half of Mr. Chaplin's argument is wide of the mark.

If the second half has any better foundation than the first, it tells against the striking miners rather than against the mine owners. "Where a trust right in the real estate of another exists," he says, "a court of equity, in the absence of a statute, can enforce that right." No such trust right in coal lands having been established or being fairly inferred from the Munn elevator case, there is nothing for a court of equity to do, adversely to the possessors of the legal title. Then Mr. Chaplin goes on to say:

> "Where a claimant's right is a right to active operations, a court of equity will, where it is necessary, protect him in the exercise of his right by injunction against interference with him, or will, if more convenient, exercise the right in his behalf by appointing a receiver of the property and putting such receiver in charge of the property and having him operate it for the benefit of all concerned."

The first clause above quoted describes the mine owner exactly. He is the claimant who has a right to active operations and to protection in carrying them on. He is the one who may properly ask for an injunction against interference. If a receivership is needed in the anthracite region, it is needed as a shield and guard against lawless individuals and mobs who are stopping trains, dynamiting railroad bridges, and murdering men who are trying to earn an honest living as miners and to relieve society from the terror of a coal famine on the eve of winter. Mr. Chaplin apparently would put the coal carriers and operators in the hands of a receiver in order to coerce them; but if this is a case for coercion it should be applied to the neck of the other party.

An important witness to this purport is Bishop Talbot of the Episcopal Church of central Pennsylvania, whose diocese embraces the entire anthracite region, and who feels moved by the gravity of the situation to issue a signed statement. Although his sympathies are strongly enlisted for the miners and their families, he says that the strikers went out when no real grievances existed which could not have been peaceably adjusted. "It is now well known," he adds, "and is even expressed by their leaders, that the *crux* of the whole matter is the recognition of the organization known as the Miners' Union." This is exactly what Mr. Hewitt said and what Mr. Mitchell denied when, referring to Mr. Hewitt's statement, he said there had been "no formal demand" for recognition; by which he wished the public to understand that that was not one of the issues at stake. Now Bishop Talbot says that it is the *crux* of the whole matter, and we believe him. We agree with him also that to accede to this demand is to pass the ownership of the property over to the miners' organization. The power to dictate who shall work in the mines includes everything else. Bishop Talbot passes judgment upon Mitchell himself in his concluding sentence, where he says that the miner "has been wofully duped and unwittingly sacrificed to the overweening and selfish ambitions of his imaginary friends."

This statement helps us to form an opinion of the value of a receivership of the coal-carrying and coal-mining companies by an order of court. Such an order would put upon the judge granting it the immediate responsibility for conducting a business of infinite detail and complexity, which has crushed and disabled the most experienced men in the world in times past, and has gone more than once through bankruptcy. In the event of a receivership the public would at once look to the judge to supply them with coal "at a reasonable price"—this is one of the demands most strongly insisted upon by Mr. Chaplin. Of course, this could not be done for a long time to come—probably never under that system of management. But the miners would construe the receivership as a decision of all disputed points in their favor, and would strike against the receiver if they were not granted. That way of settling the difficulty is No Thoroughfare. The right way to begin is by restoring the reign of law in the coal region, and this, Bishop Talbot says, should be done in twenty-four hours.

### *THE ALASKA BOUNDARY.*

A process of myth-making by reiteration has for several years been in progress in Canada regarding the question of the Alaskan boundary, and bids fair to produce, sooner or later, serious consequences. The subject is one on which very few persons are well informed; it is difficult to obtain accurate information about it, and partisan spirit may expend itself on it under the mask of patriotism with little fear of discovery. It is unquestionable that the public in Canada, including many of the more intelligent and influential classes, has been for several years assiduously supplied with articles on the boundary which, notwithstanding their essential falsity, have created a body of opinion with which, mistaken as it is, it will be difficult to deal. A somewhat similar state of mind, exhibited by a less well-informed body of Americans, was noticeable in southeastern Alaska in 1899, when the temporary boundaries of the *modus vivendi* were laid out near the head of Lynn Canal. Such subjects offer gold mines for the sensational press in either country, and so the evil grows. On the whole, the press of the United States has been indifferent, occupied with more timely matters, and the reiteration of the Canadian myth across the border has passed unheeded here. Congress, also, in ignoring for session after session the settlement of a question which was bound to produce international irritation as the Alaskan country became better populated, has incurred a grave responsibility. Our Canadian cousins have a just right to complain of this, however wrong they may be in some other matters.

An excellent example of the literature above alluded to is a recent publication,

in the *Canadian Law Review* for September, of an article by Thomas Hodgins, K.C., of Toronto, which is also printed in the *Contemporary Review*. It is well written, gives evidence of much familiarity with international law, and of just enough acquaintance with the facts not to disturb the flow of a grave and apparently weighty argument. Regarded as the effort of counsel to represent the case of his client, it is admirable, and, with the intelligent public who cannot hear the argument for the other side, it will necessarily be influential. Believing that in the interests of truth, of the international relations of the two countries, and of the speedy settlement of this vexed question, it is eminently desirable that both sides should be heard, we propose to point out certain facts which Mr. Hodgins passes without mention; to challenge certain assumptions on which his whole argument rests, and which we believe to be erroneous; and to say a few words on the subject of arbitration, with which the latter part of his article deals.

When the treaty of 1825 was made between Russia and Great Britain (of which our treaty of 1867 is a replica in its essentials) the Russian-American Company maintained a fishery for sea-otters in the archipelago of southeastern Alaska which was the chief source of the Company's revenue. Members of the Imperial family and their court were among the stockholders. The Hudson Bay Company at that time had no posts west of the Rocky Mountains and north of the southern boundary of Alaska. The country was regarded as a worthless wilderness, valuable only for fur animals. The only official maps of the region were those of Vancouver, which represented a non-existent solitary chain of mountains extending continuously in a general parallelism with the continental coast. This was the map-maker's conventional sign for a mountainous country, but the diplomats took it for an actual range, as appears in the British instructions cited by Mr. Hodgins among the preliminaries to the treaty. This hypothetical range was taken to carry the boundary line in the treaty as agreed upon, except that, when its summit proved to be more than ten marine leagues from the coast, the boundary should be formed by a line parallel to the coast and ten marine leagues therefrom.

The Russian Company and the court desired to safeguard their sea-otters from the Hudson Bay Company, which was engaged in extending its trading-posts into the interior; and, while they were willing to permit navigation of the rivers by which the interior could be reached, they determined to make themselves secure against trading-posts on the coast by which the sea-otter trade of Russia might be depleted. This they effected by obtaining a continuous strip of coast *(lisière)* which they held for years, later leased for a time to the Hudson Bay Company, and finally sold to the United States. Great Britain had the free navigation of the rivers *(fleuves*, which Mr. Hodgins mistranslates "waters"), and for *a period of ten years* was also allowed to navigate the inlets. The limitation of time in the latter case disposes at once and for ever of the lengthy arguments about territorial waters to which Mr. Hodgins and other Canadian advocates devote so much space. All the argument about "ocean" and "*mer*," and territorial jurisdiction, and boundary lines skipping across navigable arms of the sea, sinks into ineptitude when confronted with the fact that Great Britain accepted a limitation of the right of navigation of the inlets to ten years, and the Hudson Bay Company afterwards paid an annual rent for many years for the privilege. These facts are sedulously ignored and left unmentioned by Mr. Hodgins and other Canadian writers, who do not even quote the part of the treaty in which the first is set forth.

In the absence of a definite "summit of the mountains," the United States has a right to fall back on the "ten marine-league" line as a boundary. In the geographical uncertainty which obscured the characteristics of the *lisière* until very recent surveys, the line was drawn on our charts at ten marine leagues from the sea. At only one known place in Alaska is there a definite "summit" which may be utilized in the sense of the treaty, and that is at the head of Lynn Canal. Here the summit of the White and other passes clearly should be regarded as so defined, and has been adopted in the line laid down in 1899 as a *modus vivendi*. Mr. Hodgins is therefore mistaken when, in this place, he draws from an old chart the ten marine-league line and states that here it is "claimed by the United States." That expression should be used only when a diplomatic claim to that effect has been made, and none has been made of the sort stated. To charge the United States or Canada with claiming all the absurdities which have appeared on maps in either country, is fair to neither.

Mr. Hodgins makes a strong appeal for arbitration of the question, and it is certain that, if the case should be determined on its merits, as in law courts, this would be best for the interests of both parties. Certain phases of the case are adapted for arbitration, others are not. Unfortunately for international peace, in three very important recent arbitrations the arbitrators have seemed to regard themselves as partisans, and not impartial judges; and absolute failure of the proceedings has been averted only by a decision which was privately, if not publicly, admitted to be not based on the merits of the case, but merely a compromise to avoid war, in which the weaker party was given the least that would shut its mouth. In one case, that of the Delagoa Bay arbitration, it is acknowledged that the result was a scandalous miscarriage of justice, where the outraged plaintiffs submitted on the principle that a crust is better than nothing.

The United States will not submit the Alaskan boundary to such a court. When a little experience has been had of the workings of the Hague Tribunal, it may prove that justice, and not political influence, will be the guide of that body. An international supreme court is sadly needed, and this one, as yet untried in any really momentous question, may fill the rôle. If so, the boundary question may be carried there with general approval. Until then a masterly inactivity may be more prudent. At any rate, some means should be taken of informing the general public of the ascertained facts without exception; a knowledge of which in this, as in many other cases, would do much to abate the bitterness of argument.

## *THE NEW MEDICAL EDUCATION.*

If any department of applied science has in recent years appeared to show rapid and healthy growth, it is the department of medicine. The triumphs of medical experts, particularly in such lines as surgery, bacteriology, and sanitary science, are familiar wonders, while the gifts of large endowments for such institutions as the Harvard Medical School and the Johns Hopkins Hospital have seemed to stamp with approval both the methods and the results of modern medical work. It is somewhat startling, therefore, to find Professor Barker, head of the department of anatomy in the University of Chicago, seriously questioning both the wisdom and the propriety of much of the prevailing course of medical instruction, and urging instead the adoption of methods which will doubtless seem to many members of the profession not only revolutionary, but chimerical. Professor Barker's standing, however, as one of the most eminent American anatomists entitles his opinions to great respect, and his paper on "Medicine and the Universities," reprinted in pamphlet form, with some changes, from a recent issue of *American Medicine*, has already begun to provoke discussion.

The history of medical education in this country shows several types of schools. The first, and the earliest in point of time, is what Professor Barker calls the "proprietary" medical school. This is a school formed, usually, by a group of medical men for the double purpose of educating physicians and improving their own professional standing. The curriculum, limited at first to a single course of lectures, gradually expanded, until now, in most schools, it covers four years. For financial sup-

port, dependence was had on the fees of students, the surplus being divided among the instructors at the end of the term, while professional connection with the school came to have so great financial value that practitioners were glad not only to obtain appointments to which no compensation was attached, but even to pay a large price for the sake of getting them. For clinical opportunities, resort was had to the charity hospitals and such minor clinics as the resources of the school allowed to be held.

The growth of laboratory methods of instruction in science, however, forced the proprietary schools to a change of method. The great cost of laboratory work in physiology, histology, pathology, and bacteriology could not be met from fees, nor could the new instruction itself be given with the comparatively small expenditure of time required under the old system. The larger number of schools, accordingly, have formed connections more or less close with neighboring colleges or universities. Rarely, indeed, has the university assumed any financial responsibility under the new arrangement beyond providing additional facilities for laboratory instruction, but the gain to medical education from the introduction of scientific methods in the early part of the curriculum has been, on the whole, very great.

Useful as has been the work of the proprietary schools, however, their day, in Professor Barker's judgment, is past. What is now demanded is medical training fully on a par, in its methods, aims, and conditions, with the best university work in other lines. The nearest approximation to what is required is found in the six or eight principal medical schools in the United States, to which Professor Barker gives the suggestive name of "semi-university" schools. In these schools the subjects of the first two years are taught under the best scientific conditions by instructors who do not engage in private practice, and whose only aim is to do the best possible scientific work and give the best possible scientific training. But this is as far as the reform has gone. The subjects of the last two years are taught by men in active practice, not always of broad training, and appointed primarily because of their success as practitioners. Further, few universities own or control hospitals, but must rely upon the charity institutions, the majority of which are still, as we all know, subject to political or personal influence.

The weakness of present-day instruction in medicine, in Professor Barker's opinion, is the preponderating combination of teaching and private practice in the personnel of our medical faculties. What he would have is a real university school of medicine, in which the same views of the professor's functions which obtain in other departments shall hold also for the medical faculty. It is generally understood that the professor of mathematics, or chemistry, or political economy shall give his whole time to the business of instruction and research, and not half of it to the university and half to some commercial or manufacturing enterprise.

"Imagine," says Professor Barker, "the condition which would exist if the university said to its professor of economics, 'We shall be glad to have you as our professor of this subject provided you are willing to do the teaching we ask of you without direct remuneration. Your position in the university will make you so well and favorably known that you will be able to secure financial responsibilities in the city which will give you a far larger income than we could afford to pay you,' or, if the President and trustees made a proposition to the professor of chemistry that he be paid $1,500 per year to take charge of the teaching and investigation in the chemical laboratories, it being pointed out to him that the prestige of a university professorship would enable him to secure lucrative positions as commercial chemist to four or five manufacturing concerns in the city in which he lives, or as analyst to baking-powder companies and manufacturers of pure-food preparations; some of the trustees taking the stand that the intimate contact thus gained with chemistry as practically applied in the business world is not only desirable for the professor, but absolutely essential in order that his influence upon his students may not be too academic. . . . What, think you, would be the rate of progress in original work in the sciences of political economy and chemistry in a university so constituted? And yet, there is not a medical faculty in a university anywhere in America where this plan is not followed, at least for some of the chairs."

Professor Barker writes throughout with perfect courtesy and with cordial recognition of the high aims and unselfishness which characterize teaching physicians as a class, but his paper is nevertheless a strong indictment of American medical education as a whole. Whether his contention is sound, or not, is a question which no layman is competent to decide. That the reform for which he contends will not be brought about without much discussion is self-evident, but if the course of scientific instruction in other departments is any criterion, he has pointed the way along which the medical education of the future will proceed. The enormous cost of a true university medical school, with its highly paid staff and series of observational hospitals, is not the least obstacle in the way. Most serious, however, will be the opposition of the medical profession to a surrender of the time-honored notion that the best preparation for teaching is a large private practice.

## *ÉMILE ZOLA.*

A very bitter but a very sincere spirit has passed away. A great and indefatigable talent vanishes, leaving behind it the memory of a discredited theory of literature and the better remembrance of a battle for truth and justice conducted with that same impressive fanaticism which gave the world the sordid epic of the Rougon-Macquart family. It was characteristic that Zola's first book of criticism should have been called 'My Hatreds' *(Mes Haines);* it was not without significance that he who later condemned his country for its cruelty to Alfred Dreyfus, should have been the ardent defender of that great but unappreciated genius, Éduard Manet. No one who has seen the man near at hand, has marked the abruptness of his movements and the settled gloom of his expression, has heard him speak tender words to a body of mourners—as we recall him at the burial of Alphonse Daudet—with the air of berating a hostile audience, could doubt that his heart was torn with the *sæva indignatio* of a Swift—could fail to perceive all the qualities and defects of a temperament essentially fanatical.

Zola's activity may fairly be divided into three periods: first, that of the human document, most signally represented by the Rougon-Macquart series of no less than twenty volumes, written from 1871 to 1893; second, that of growing idealism, exemplified in the three cities, 'Lourdes,' 'Rome,' 'Paris' (1894-1898), and culminating in the colossal idyll, 'Fécondité,' 1899; third, the great episode of 1898, the appeal to the conscience of France, and the agitation which resulted in the retrial of Alfred Dreyfus and the rout of the army cabal.

Zola's theory of the "experimental novel," as set forth in the book of that name and as illustrated by the greater part of his literary work, has had its day and passed into the limbo of suspended doctrines. Zola was never quite consistently faithful to his own theory of naturalism and the human document, and in his later years he repudiated it by his practice. He chose to speak of himself as a "naturalist" rather than a realist, because his plan was larger than that of reproducing with minute fidelity the details of life as observed. He desired rather to make his books "cross-sections of reality," in which the environment, heredity, individual prepossessions, personal, political, and industrial relations of a group, and the deeds which sprung from these causes, should all be contained. "I could wish to imbed all humanity in my page, all beings, all things—to create a work which should be one vast repository." Of the greatness of this enterprise there can be no doubt. Its accomplishment in the Rougon-Macquart series, however, hardly corresponds to the amplitude of the design. To study in a selected group the entire course of modern French society, to lay bare the symptoms of the fever that led from the installation of the Second Empire to Sedan—this was his plan in pursuing to the impurest depths the fortunes of the Rougons and Macquarts. But Émile Zola was no Balzac, to plan a *Comédie Humaine* of which the minutest part should be an unending source of intellectual enjoyment and

of interpretation of life. Zola's single novels rarely sustain the nervous and compelling style of the little masterpiece, "L'Attaque au Moulin." nor did he more than once sum up the agony of a nation at grips with disaster with the continued force and vividness of 'La Débâcle.' His novels, in the main, are human documents which are dull for us and will be dull for posterity. They have had the great misfortune to be read for their incidental filth, and to place M. Zola, who was trying in his own way to vie with Taine and write 'The Origins of Contemporary France,' in the position of a universal purveyor of the impure. To such a misconception his preference for the baser manifestations of human nature lent only too much color.

But since the naturalistic theory went bankrupt long ago, and Zola's disciples, most of whom have gone before the master, all drifted away from him in various directions—the most faithful, Maupassant, into finer reticence and selective art; Daudet into a very personal sentimentalism; the surviving Huysmans into sheer mysticism—we may more fittingly dwell upon the novels written after he had passed fifty, and upon the heroism with which he braved all France in behalf of the forgotten martyr of Devil's Island. These later novels show a new idealism struggling to express itself in the terms of naturalism. 'Lourdes' is a vast allegory of the emotion of piety, 'Rome' of religious authority, 'Paris' of social regeneration. These books are imbued with a finer spirit than the author had previously shown. But they are still inchoate as art and intemperate as thinking. They show, however, a broad humanity, which in the still later volume, 'Fécondité,' treating of the blessing that attends fruitfulness, and the curse that falls upon barrenness, often finds grave and noble expression. It is curious to recall that Zola was working upon this great idyll at the time when his general accusation of the military cabal that condemned Alfred Dreyfus made him the most hated man in Paris. As he shaped his patriarchal dreams of marital felicity, he could hear the cries of *À bas Zola! À bas les Juifs!*

His mind had wrought inquiringly upon the evidence in the Dreyfus case, had detected a great injustice and taken fire, and the whole force of will and ferocity of temperament of the man imbedded itself upon the page that was addressed to the President of the Republic, but fell upon France and the world as the summons to do justice. This human document was conceived in hate—savage indignation at a national injustice, not compassion for Alfred Dreyfus, moved Zola; but his *j'accuse* stung an entire people, as in old days Peter the Hermit's rapt "God wills it" had called them to the holy war. Zola's deed begot hatreds that are hardly diminished to-day, and the entire episode, though it will be his worthiest memorial, shows that his temper was destructive rather than constructive. And yet since Swift there has not been a more notable instance of scorn of human nature accompanied by rare literary talent and complete personal probity. His last great work will bear the title 'Truth.' But it is doubtful if Truth ever fully takes as her own so stormy a spirit as was Émile Zola's.

## PEKIN TWO YEARS AFTER THE SIEGE.

PEKIN, August 14, 1902.

Two years ago to-day, the armies of the allied Powers, hurrying to the rescue, forced their entrance into the capital of China, and relieved the hard-pressed Legations. This city was visited with fire and sword, and the old Pekin can never be itself again. Yet, to the newly arrived stranger there is little at first sight that recalls violent destruction. It is not always easy to distinguish a wall that has been battered by bullets from one that has decayed through age and neglect. The quarters of the town that were burned over have grown up again, as crowded as ever, the British Legation does not necessarily suggest any particular historical interest, and the new Peitang Cathedral seems peaceful enough until one notices the bullet holes in the organ. In the centre of centres, behind the mysterious walls of the Forbidden City, the life of the Court goes on much as of old.

Closer observation, however, aided by a few explanations, reveals many things. The traveller coming by train from Tientsin no longer has to alight outside the town and to ride five miles in a cart or sedan chair before arriving at his destination. To-day, the railway passes calmly through a breach in the wall, it skirts for some time the outer edge of the Chinese city, and then, running along below the great wall of the Tartar city, it ends at the Water Gate. The freight terminus, reached through another breach, is right by the entrance to the "Temple of Heaven." It was through a passage under the Water Gate that the British relief force made their way and thus won the glory of being the first to get to the Legations. At the station, now, order is maintained by Sikhs, while there descend from the train throngs of bustling Chinamen, and officers and soldiers of many distant lands.

Three minutes' walk from the station brings one to the Legation quarter, where one finds a state of things unique in the modern world. After the siege and the restoration of order, the representatives of the Powers had to set to work to provide for the future. In some ways they had a *tabula rasa*, for most of the region had been burned over and it was easy to expropriate land, leaving to the helpless, as well as undeserving, Chinese Government the charge of indemnifying any former owners that happened to be still alive. The ministers were thus fettered only by the instructions of their home Governments, and by the conflicting claims of their various interests. It is evident that the prevailing idea in the work of reconstruction was the likelihood of another outbreak, and the consequent necessity of providing therefor as efficiently as possible. In the reserved territory no Chinese dwellings or establishments could be allowed. All the room is in the hands of the Legations—their barracks, the post-offices, the banks, and a few stores. Each took what he wanted and could get, and those who, like the Portuguese, were too late in obtaining a share, are likely to have to live outside. One plot belongs to a hotel, yet to be built by the energetic Belgian company of the "Wagons-lits."

The limits of the district are clear enough. On one side it is bounded by the Tartar wall between two of the Great Gates, the Chien Men and the Hata Men, a stretch of some half a mile under the control of the Americans and Germans. Along the top of it there is a pleasant if rough walk, from which, especially at the two ends, one can watch the interesting life of the great city beneath. The importance of holding this piece is obvious, as it looks down upon and commands the ground below; if during the siege our soldiers, who clung to it with such obstinate bravery, had lost it, the American Legation would have become untenable immediately. Under these circumstances the Germans have fortified their end with a massive stone tower, an example our Government has not seen fit to follow; and the Germans have shown their opinion of our action or inaction by putting up a strong iron fence between their section and ours, both above and at the foot of the wall. On the other three sides the Legation quarter is marked off by a broad boulevard so that no enemy may find near cover for an attack. The end of the American barracks, however, projects beyond the general line; and the new Catholic hospital and the Methodist buildings, being in the ground that is supposed to be kept open, would probably have to be destroyed at the outbreak of hostilities. The preparations along the outer line vary according to the ideas of the different Powers holding territory. Everywhere we find high brick walls, usually with places for embrasures, and sometimes with a ditch. The German defences are evidently the most formidable, the American the least so. We also do not keep any cannon.

Inside the quarter the great lines of division are made by the broad "Legation Street," running parallel to the Tartar wall, and by the canal at right angles to it. Of all the nations, the English have the most land, as they have added to their former and already spacious grounds until they now hold over thirty acres. It must be remembered, in this connection, that, in Pekin, foreign governments have to provide not only for the offices of their ministers, but also for their homes, as well as those of the secretaries and interpreters, for the barracks of the guards, stables, etc. Thus, for perhaps the first time, an American representative abroad will live in a building belonging to the United States. Unfortunately, as yet, our new Legation is not even begun; and before it can be finished, our representatives are threatened with eviction at the hands of Korea, which has bought our present quarters. Our new barracks, on the other hand, look very satisfactory; indeed, we have land enough, if only it were not broken up into fragments by the intervening possessions of Korea, Holland, and the Russo-Chinese Bank. Our guard is a little less than one hundred and fifty men, with two officers, one of whom is also military attaché. Most of the other

great Powers have from two hundred and fifty to three hundred men; smaller ones, like the Dutch, some half-a-dozen warriors. The Germans have twenty-six officers, in ample quarters, and much occupied with the study of Chinese. English, Americans, and Germans are dressed in khaki; the soldiers of other nationalities usually in white. As may be imagined, it is an interesting occupation to watch and compare the characteristics of the specimens of so many different armies brought here into such curiously close contact.

Both during and before the siege large districts of Pekin were burned by the Chinese themselves. Of this there is little trace to the eye of the casual visitor. The tower with painted cannon over the Chien Men has not been rebuilt, but the quarter below, which was swept by fire, shows no sign of devastation except in the fact that the shops look new and the paint fresh. The large central street running out through it, past the Temples of Heaven and of Agriculture, can hardly have been busier than now; and though we are assured that in general Pekin is cleaner than of yore, this would scarcely occur to the stranger lacking a knowledge of the past for comparison. After all that has happened, it is inconceivable that the people of at least this portion of the empire should feel anything but the deepest hostility to their victorious enemies, yet in the behavior of the inhabitants, if there has been any change, it cannot be for the worse, as there is nothing to complain of at present. Of course it is a commonplace that the Chinese know how to conceal their feelings, and they are not supposed to be a demonstrative people. Still, one cannot help being struck by the absence of open dislike. The children do not, to any extent, cry out after one in the streets, and the general appearance of the crowds is not noticeably sullen. On the contrary, their attitude might rather be taken for indifference. They do not seem to pay any great attention to the foreigner, although they have plenty to remind them of his humiliating presence. For instance, a self-respecting Chinese naturally avoids the Legation quarter, where he is liable to be treated like a coolie by any stray soldier he meets; in fact, the whole existence of this quarter must be intensely galling to the pride of a nation whose contempt for outsiders is proverbial. In the heart of the Tartar city, too, across the street leading from the Hata Men, will stand the great stone arch built by the Chinese in expiation of the murder, at this spot, of the German Minister, Baron von Ketteler. It will take more than the marvellous skill of the Chinese in useful fiction for the Government to save its "face" with the people who look at such a monument.

Of the Ministers besieged in the Legations two years ago, Mr. Conger now alone remains in Pekin. A walk under his guidance along the Tartar wall, or a visit to Mgr. Fabvier and the rebuilt Peitang Cathedral, while one listens to the stories of heroism and suffering, told in both cases without a trace of vainglory or of bitterness, is an experience not soon to be forgotten. The stirring events are still so recent, so real, their lasting effect still so uncertain, that they appeal powerfully to the imagination. The Peitang, miles away from the European quarter, is a wonderful example of an *ecclesia militans*. After standing a siege more terrible than that of the Legations, it still towers proudly aloft as the headquarters of Roman Catholic Christianity and missionary enterprise in this empire of four hundred million heathen. And the short stroll from the Hata Men to the Chien Men, along the wall now in the hands of foreigners, but from which they were fired at for weeks, except from the small bit, the key of the whole, desperately held by the Americans—it seems one of the great walks of the world. Below, on the one side is the Chinese City, with the Temple of Heaven rising in the distance; the railway is at one's feet. On the other are the Legations, where such thrilling history has just been made, now a fortified camp of Europe in Farthest Asia. Soldiers of many nations roam about the streets, and everywhere buildings are going up. A little beyond are the series of roofs covered with the imperial yellow tile, consecutive entrances into the courts of the Forbidden City, which is still closed to the profane, though not so closely since it has been desecrated by the foot of the conquering "barbarians." In every direction the great city stretches out for miles, with its trees and its temples, its countless streets and alleys, reeking with filth and swarming with the busy life of hundreds of thousands of human beings. To the north and west, twenty miles away, rise the mountains; along them the Great Wall runs for hundreds of miles its unequalled course; behind them the sun is now setting on the capital of this, the oldest and most populous, as well as the strangest empire in the world.

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

## FLEMISH PAINTING: PRIMITIVE AND MODERN.

BRUGES, September, 1902.

I consider it a happy chance that delayed my visit to the Exhibition of Flemish Primitives at Bruges until it is on the point of closing. Otherwise, I could not have come to it fresh from the Exhibition of Modern Art at Ghent, which did not open until the very end of August. If, as Fromentin says, all Belgium is a magnificent "art-book," to which the work of the Primitives is the preface, then the work of the men of to-day is the last chapter completed up to the present; and often a preface is best understood after the book has been read to the end.

The Exhibition at Ghent is the one which is held there by a Society of Artists every three years. This autumn, its opening had the further interest of inaugurating the new Museum built for the town by the Government and the Municipality, whose patronage of art in Belgium is something more than an empty form. Artists cannot in reason complain of authorities who appropriate money for the purchase of their pictures and lend them galleries for their exhibitions. The new building is admirably adapted to the purpose: the rooms well-proportioned, well-lighted, and decorated with a sobriety and restraint I scarcely ventured to look for in a country where the encouragement of the now almost worn-out fashion of "L'Art Nouveau" has been most active. The collection is ordered on broad international lines, but, naturally, Belgian artists are in the majority, and there could be no better opportunity for the study of modern Belgian art. For this reason, and also because I have already written of many of the pictures from foreign artists when these were shown at home, I shall say nothing of the foreign sections, except that they illustrate one of the most promising tendencies of the day: the tendency, that is, in international exhibitions, to honor, not work that bears the official hallmark, but work that reveals a distinct personality or character. At Ghent, the preference has been less for the approved Academician than for the various groups of independents—the men who belong to the New Salon in Paris, the Secession in Munich, the International Society in London. The present all but universal revolt against the academical is the more hopeful because it is leading to a general appreciation of individuality rather than to fanatical "movements" and self-conscious "schools."

When it comes to Belgian artists as they are seen at Ghent, I should say that the chief characteristic of their work is its realism. There are men, like M. Claus and M. Buysse, who accept this realism frankly; others, like M. Khnopff, who struggle against it, plunge into depths of mysticism, and—remain realists in spite of themselves. M. Claus is a painter of world-wide reputation, and his methods are well known. He has been influenced by M. Monet and French Impressionism; he seeks instinctively the more brilliant, almost brutal effects in nature, and he evidently thinks that respect for nature demands that the painter should accept her as she is. If the landscape before him compose, well and good; if not, it is not his business to make up for nature's shortcomings. One of his pictures here, "Verger en Flandres," shows at once his strength and his weakness. It is designed on a large scale, adapted to exhibition walls. In a pleasant orchard two peasants are gathering apples; the low sun shines full on their faces, and on the pink wall of a house beyond, seen between the trees. Nothing could be more uncompromising than the fierce glow of the sunlight on the autumn afternoon when the painter sat down resolutely to transfer it to his canvas, except perhaps his own attitude towards it. He has not attempted to supply the emotion which the special effect before him did not provide, nor the grace of line, the harmony of masses that did not happen to exist in this corner of the orchard. He is the impartial reporter, summing up with vigor and ability, but quite dispassionately, the facts as he sees them; and the result is a brilliant record which may astound and dazzle you by its brilliancy, but at which you can look no longer than you would at the orchard itself under the same conditions. And, as a rule, it is in just such effects, which, if the most daring, are the least emotional, that he is interested. But so conscientious is he in his realism that, if he does find himself face to face with nature in her softer moods, he softens in his turn. I have never seen a better picture by him than the much smaller "Canards au Couchant," also here, in which he is all tenderness simply because he chanced upon the tender hour when the last pale gold of evening fades from the sky, and, in all its subtle gradation, reflects itself in the quiet stream where the ducks

are swimming homeward. I had not thought M. Claus could express sentiment so delicately.

It is the same with M. Buysse. He also aims at an accurate report; he also seems to prefer instinctively the more brilliant aspects of the country he loves, though his very accuracy at times forces him into an unlooked-for betrayal of emotion. The contrast is as striking between two of his pictures: one, of a straight stretch of tree-lined canal in a glare of sunlight, a red sail and its reflection filling the centre of the canvas with a sudden violence of color that leaves you cold and indifferent; the other, of apparently the same canal, but now silent and deserted, its waters vague and mysterious in their dim blueness under the twilight sky. To both these men, as to M. Monet, nature is sometimes kind, and lavishes upon them the beauty of composition and tone and feeling they might think it an infidelity to invent. They have many followers, to describe whose work would be but to repeat what I have just said of theirs—painters who are realists, if the word means anything at all, or who, probably, in the art slang of a few years ago, would call themselves naturalists.

M. Khnopff's realism is much less obvious, enveloped as it is in a cloak of symbolism. The subjects of his two pictures here are characteristic. In one, "L'Encens," a lady with pale draperies and paler face that you feel are charged with mysticism, holds in her long gloved hands what seems to be a sacramental vessel. In the other, "L'Isolement" (a triptych), a youth in armor, the flame and lily and bubble (M. Khnopff's favorite symbols) at his feet, stands between two vague, enigmatic figures, which, to so unmystical a person as myself, mean nothing but the more easily understood beauty of drawing and color and detail which M. Khnopff always manages to bring to his most mystical designs. And it is just because M. Khnopff cannot quite repress his joy in the actual—in the draperies, the jewels, the flowers—that his pictures have such charm. One of the most typical examples of this contradiction in him is a picture he was showing in London last spring. There were in it two divisions. The upper and larger was so overladen with symbolism that it has completely faded from my memory; the lower contained an exquisite but literal rendering of architecture and water, a bit of old Bruges, gray and sad, as impossible to forget as the little landscape seen through an open window in a picture by Memlinc. M. Khnopff, as well as M. Claus and M. Buysse, has his followers; but what I have said of him is true, in a lesser degree, of them, so that there is no need just now to examine their work separately. Indeed, the only two other Belgians who seemed to me to have something to express, beside the prevailing formulas of the day, are M. Mersens, who paints peasants and peasant life with an exaggeration of truth that borders on caricature, but with rare keenness of observation, and M. Delaunois, whose landscapes, though he travels to the "Pays Monastique" for a popular peg to hang them on, depend for their beauty on their light and atmosphere. Both of these men will do still better things—or, at least, they ought to.

It may at first seem paradoxical when I say that M. Khnopff and M. Claus, the two most representative modern Belgians conspicuous at Ghent, are in absolute sympathy with Van Eyck and Memlinc, the two most representative Primitive Flemings conspicuous at Bruges, though, because of technical conditions and passing modes, they differ so entirely in their manner of expression. Most people, struck by the difference, overlook the underlying sympathy. Certainly, the opportunity for study has been as ample at Bruges as at Ghent. A collection could not well be more exhaustive. Innumerable public and private galleries, not only in Belgium, but in England, France, Germany, and even so remote a country as Transylvania, have lent their treasures. Bruges itself, for the interval, has stripped the Museum and the old Hospital of St. John of the masterpieces that have made them famous. Perhaps the one notable omission is the "Miraculous Lamb" at Ghent, the picture by both the Van Eycks that Dürer described as "a most precious and important painting." Of it nothing is shown but the Adam and Eve panels that were separated out of prudery from the central design and long since found an asylum at Brussels. Altogether some four hundred examples of primitive art cover the walls.

I must admit that the first effect of all these "cock-eyed Madonnas" and angular saints hanging together is appalling. No pictures gain by being seen in a gallery, but those by the Primitives suffer most acutely. In their days, artists were forced to paint the same subjects, and, what is worse, to paint them in the same way. It has been argued lately by an ingenious critic that this was an advantage to them; that their imagination, instead of spending itself in the search for motives, was concentrated on the interpretation in line and color and form of a limited number of given themes. But at Bruges I was convinced—if I needed conviction—that they were hampered by the conventions imposed upon them. In every picture of genuine, and not merely historical, merit, I found passages that seemed to me so many protests against the limits set by the exacting patron. The most distinguished masters, no less than the most second-rate craftsmen, were made to paint the Virgin enthroned, Christ on the Cross, angels in glory, saints in the agony of martyrdom—in a word, the heaven and hell they had never known—when what they wanted was to paint the people about them and the country they did know. For you cannot look at their pictures and not see that they themselves were as vowed to realism as M. Claus, though they were driven into the struggle against it which M. Khnopff has accepted voluntarily. Take one after the other, beginning with the Van Eycks (though the collection begins with the still more archaic Primitives). Turn to Jan Van Eyck's altar-piece from the Bruges Museum, a Virgin and Child with saints and the donor, Canon van de Paele, grouped on either side in the approved manner of the day; Virgin and saints are but lay models, posed symmetrically, compared to that old man, kneeling piously, who no doubt had given Van Eyck all the sittings he asked for, and who could be portrayed faithfully, without idealization, and yet the painter not be reproached with coarseness and earthliness for his pains. What character in the broad, ugly face, clean-shaven, furrowed and lined, intelligent in its heaviness—a face you still see often in Belgium, even under the cap and above the blue blouse of the discontented Belgian workman! And again, what character, what beauty in the portrait of the painter's wife, with her prim head-dress and demurely folded hands! Van Eyck was most at home, not in the heavenly company to which the Church would have confined him, but with just such men and women as these. Did he ever give to any Madonna the splendor of that little group of man and wife in the London National Gallery?

The Van Eycks are comparatively few, but it will be long, if ever, before such a series by Memlinc is brought together in one gallery again. It makes you marvel the more that so great a master should have been for years forgotten, even if it explains that his greatness depends less upon the sincerity of faith, the earnestness, the mysticism, with which the Primitives are so liberally endowed by their admirers, than upon the honesty of his realism. He never seems happier, never more wholly himself, than when he escapes from the incense-laden church or shrine into the open country, if only for a momentary glimpse, as in the diptych from the Hospital of St. John, where the window beyond the kneeling donor frames a haunting little vision of green fields, winding road, and blue hills; or when he leaves his Virgin and Saints to study a human face like that which looks out at you from the amazingly painted white veil in the "Sibylla Sambetha." Had Memlinc had his way, the world would not have waited for Claude to create the art of landscape painting, or for Velasquez to make the men and women in a portrait stand upon their legs.

From Roger van der Weyden I received much the same impression. The very altar-pieces that have been praised for their emotional quality showed, I thought, something very like lassitude when compared to the alert interest manifested in three or four little portraits, the figures so well placed in the design, the observation so just and sympathetic. And so with Gerard David, a painter whose list of pictures, though hardly his reputation, is fast growing with the present trade in "attributions." Two of his most important are the well-known "Baptism of Christ" from the Bruges, and the "Blessed Virgin Surrounded by Angels" from the Rouen, Museum. It is in the first that he is most satisfactory, with its groups of the donor and the donor's two wives and children, arranged, it is true, according to the usual formula, but the character of each member of the large family so well realized, and the amusing detail of costume rendered with such obvious pleasure, that it would help you to understand, if you did not already, why these old painters were ready to make a prominent place for the donor, any and everywhere, in the very holy of holies if necessary. In the Rouen picture, the Virgin and her attendants, who fill the foreground, are overshadowed by the painter and his wife who stand respectfully behind them, but in whose faces is the breath of life. With Mabuse, also, what charm there is must be sought in his portraits, welcome relief as they are after his mannered Virgins and Saints. And I might go on through the catalogue, until the struggle for realism culminates in Peter Breughel and the picture, painted with something of humor, but something of reverence as well, of a

Flemish Bethlehem, where little Flemish children are sliding on the ice-bound canals, and hustling Flemish villagers are busy about many things, while Mary and Joseph seek their lodgings for the night.

It is this aspect of their work that has most interested me in the exhibition of Primitives. I know there are many other ways of considering the collection. For the historian of Flemish art, it affords a chance that would have gone far to lighten the labors of Crowe and Cavalcaselle. To the scientific critic, it is a challenge which already he has accepted with enthusiasm, and pictures are changing masters with the bewildering rapidity and damaging results that make you wonder the more at the generosity of owners in lending them to exhibitions where they are exposed to such risks. But art does not depend for its value on history or science. True, the collection teaches nothing new of individual works from this standpoint. Indeed, many are not seen to such advantage as in the church or on the walls where the artist meant they should be seen—the reason why not one tells so well as the St. Ursula series on the shrine for which Memlinc designed it. But, on the other hand, certain qualities which all these painters shared, certain points upon which they differed, are emphasized, and early Flemish art, as a whole, is better understood. This is why I, at least, have come away with a heightened sense of their inborn realism, regretting the loss which the restraint put upon them has meant to the world. They would have envied, these old masters, the freedom in the choice of subject allowed to their modern successors. The real triumph of Belgian or Flemish art has been to maintain its independence in spite of the chains and claims of religion and fashion.

N. N.

# Correspondence.

## THE ETHICS OF THE WILDERNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue, No. 1941, is an article entitled "The Law of Forest and Mountain." The theme will no doubt be new to nearly all your readers; still, it is one deserving serious attention, suggesting, as it does, an ethical principle not commonly recognized.

My reason for addressing you is to point out a very interesting example of the same "law" that came to notice in Sweden, where I travelled a good deal previous to 1882, and found that in railway restaurants, on passenger steamers and elsewhere, there were no means of checking customers, who were taken at their word altogether. On the steamers that ply in the Göta Canal, between Gothenburg and Stockholm, there were placed in the cabins books for the use of the passengers, each of whom selected a page and kept his own accounts for food and refreshments. At the end of the journey, which required about three days, the "mam'selle" in charge took this book and settled with the passengers on their own reckoning.

I mention this as one example. There were many more that could be named. I have discussed the subject with different people in Sweden, asking if they did not fear being cheated. The answer was, "Oh, no! Why should they want to cheat?" Here comes the problem: Are people honest by law or honest by nature? And will people in an honest environment lose their propensity to steal and cheat? In Sweden at that day no one thought of being cheated, and the greatest rogue, once there and having caught the spirit of honesty, as it were, never thought of acting otherwise than honestly. I have lived there, know the language and customs, and shall never forget that, in coming away, as soon as I had landed in another country the horrid idea and care of "bargaining" began. It was like Christian assuming anew his load that had fallen away during the Swedish sojourn. This "law of the forest" is a neglected factor in our natures, and indicates a white spot amidst the enveloping black-wash of modern customs. Let us hope you will return to the theme.

J. Richards.

Sansalito, Cal., September 17, 1902.

## ELLSWORTH'S ZOUAVES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My memory confirms the statement of Colonel Burt (*Nation*, No. 1942, p. 225) that Ellsworth's Zouaves were known as the Fire Zouaves, while Wilson's Zouaves did not have that designation. I think the contemporary New York papers will show that Ellsworth's regiment was more commonly referred to as the Fire Zouaves than anything else until after Ellsworth's tragic death, when, because of that, his name became more constantly associated with the regiment.

Fox's 'Regimental Losses in the Civil War' twice refers to the Eleventh New York under the alternative designation of Fire Zouaves (pp. 477, 481). Tenney's 'Military and Naval History of the Rebellion' (Appleton, 1865) thus refers to Ellsworth's death: "The only disastrous event occurring was the death of Col. Ellsworth, commander of the Fire Zouave regiment of New York."

A detailed acccunt of the origin of the name is given in Nicolay's 'Outbreak of the Rebellion' (pp. 112, 113):

"Then came Sumter and the call for volunteers, and Ellsworth saw his opportunity. Hastening to the city of New York, he called together and harangued the fire companies of the metropolis; in three days he had 2,200 names inscribed on his recruiting lists. Out of these he carefully selected a regiment of 1,100 men, who chose him their colonel."

Very respectfully yours,

James J. Dow.

Faribault, September 20, 1902.

## QUESTIONING SUSPECTED CRIMINALS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of August 28, Margaret Irving Hamilton condemns the practice of police officers in questioning persons who are suspected of crime, for the reason that the Constitution provides that no person shall be obliged to criminate himself.

It would seem to be more to the purpose to protest against this absurd Constitutional provision, which is a relic of a barbarous age. It is a protection to rogues only. Any honest person will be glad to answer all questions which will be helpful in discovering criminals. There is no good reason why a person suspected of crime should not be required by law to explain all suspicious circumstances. It is only in courts that the failure of an accused person to deny the charge against him raises no presumption against his innocence. It is everywhere else good evidence of guilt.

Respectfully yours,

Frank W. Proctor.

Fairhaven, Mass., September 22, 1902.

## PAULSEN'S MISREPRESENTATIONS OF KANT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A reviewer in your issue of September 11 points out certain errors of exegesis in Paulsen's highly readable but occasionally misleading volume on Kant. It is perhaps worth while to improve the occasion, in the interest of historical accuracy, by calling attention to another rather serious misrepresentation in the same volume, upon a point of some consequence.

Professor Paulsen treats the essay 'On the Possibility of Introducing the Notion of Negative Magnitude into Philosophy' as one of the more significant of Kant's so-called "pre-critical" writings; but he contrives, in his exposition of it, to attribute to Kant a doctrine which is pretty precisely the opposite to the doctrine which the essay really sets forth. In this essay, says Paulsen (Tr., p. 83),

"one sees that Kant has abandoned the rationalistic method of equating conceptual and actual reality. No contradiction can obtain between realities, Baumgarten teaches; *ergo omnes realitates sunt in ente compossibiles.* Yes, says Kant, that holds in the realm of concepts. It is different, however, in the world of actual fact. Here it may very well happen that two positive determinations exclude each other, as when they are related as positive and negative magnitudes in mathematics."

From this one would certainly gather that, in the essay in question, Kant had controverted Baumgarten's maxim, and had maintained that "in the world of actual fact" contradictions may obtain between realities. In point of fact, however, the essay nowhere asserts that what is necessarily true in the realm of concepts can be false in the world of facts; it repeatedly declares that nothing that is self-contradictory can be real; and it consistently adheres to the Leibnitzian principle of "compossibility"—*i. e.*, the principle that reality must be free from logical inconsistency.

Kant is endeavoring to introduce, beside the notion of logical opposition (*i. e.*, contradiction), the notion of a sort of "real" or dynamic opposition (*Realentgegensetzung*). A simple concrete instance of the latter is the case where A owes B ten dollars, and B owes A the same. In such a case, the debt of either equals zero; but this zero is not merely negative—it is the result of the existence of two very positive facts, and of a certain relation of reciprocality between them. This sort of *Entgegensetzung*, which strikes Kant as having a peculiar logical interest, is obviously both possible and frequently actual; but, Kant constantly insists, it is possible only because it does not in any sense involve logical contradiction. "Es kann eine der opponirten Bestimmungen bei einer Real-

entgegensetzung nicht das contradictorische Gegentheil der anderen sein; denn alsdann wäre der Widerstreit logisch, und, wie oben gewiesen worden, unmöglich."

The point is worth noting, because it brings out the fact—which Paulsen seems to overlook throughout—that, so far as the principle of contradiction is concerned, Kant never "abandoned the rationalistic method of equating conceptual and actual reality." At the beginning and at the end of his career, he remained sure that we know, in advance of experience, at least one important truth about all real entities, even about things-in-themselves; namely, that they cannot involve contradiction, either of one another or of the facts of sense-experience. It is true that Kant did not very clearly understand just what he meant by the principle of contradiction; and he therefore failed to see that, by admitting its validity as a criterion of the nature of reality, he had left open a door for a vast amount of possible metaphysical construction. But to the principle in the abstract, he remained always loyal. He was here, at least, wholly a man of the eighteenth-century enlightenment; he had no sympathy with the romanticist's love of paradox, and would hardly have subscribed to Goethe's sentiment:

"Wo die Widersprüche schwirren
Ich mag am liebsten wandern."

Least of all would he have sympathized with that modern combination of agnosticism with realism in metaphysics, which declares that we must conceive to be real that which we have previously declared not to be logically conceivable at all. Professor Paulsen's exposition, however, would, I think, lead the unsuspecting reader to suppose just the contrary of all this.—I am,

Yours very truly,

ARTHUR O. LOVEJOY.

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY, ST. LOUIS,
September 23, 1902.

## HAMLET'S SOLILOQUY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: What commentators I can find on Hamlet's most notable soliloquy seem to regard suicide as its theme. I would suggest, however, that the speech beginning "To be, or not to be" is not concerned as a whole with a contemplation or consideration of suicide.

When last on the stage, Hamlet had shown impatience with himself as a coward, or at least lacking "gall to make oppression bitter." The pretext of using the play to make sure of his "father's foul and most unnatural murther" has not altogether reconciled Hamlet to his procrastination. And now, in the third act, he comes on still chafing at his own irresolution, rather than in a contemplative mood. "Is my enterprise ever to be, or *not?* Is it nobler to endure this disgraceful situation, or, facing about on the flood-tide of my own and the time's troubles, to be overwhelmed in at any rate opposing it?" The sarcastic "nobler" implies Hamlet's answer to the question. He is for the moment, I think, viewing his death in the attempt to "set right the time" as practically assured, just as drowning would be certain were he to turn and rush upon the rising tide. How can the idea of suicide be made out of "take arms . . . end them"? Is there any point in "by *opposing* end them," unless it implies ending one's life in manfully meeting, not running away from, the swelling flood of evil?

After this opening burst of impatience at his irresolution, Hamlet passes, as frequently (*e. g.*, i. 4, "The King doth . . . take his rouse . . . a custom more honored in the breach than in the observance"), from a present, particular matter to a general reflection. The prospect of his own death in the adventure laid upon him by "cursed spite" suggests a consideration of death in general. His impatient tone dies down into reverie. "Death is only a sleep, and it ends a thousand sufferings. But if that sleep has dreams? Yes; if it were not for that thought, how many men in trouble of love or law or anything would end it even by self-slaughter! But all men shrink from death and the unknown ills of negation. And so, such fearful enterprises as mine, many of great pith and moment, may lose, even in hands of native resolution, the name of effected action." Here suicide, only incidentally and only objectively, does enter momentarily into the course of Hamlet's meditation, not as a recourse for himself, but as a general possibility. "The native hue of resolution" and "enterprises . . . moment" have surely nothing to do with suicide, either for Hamlet or anybody. He comes back at this point to his subject proper, the danger of his enterprise—to what he calls his "craven scruple of thinking too precisely on the event." Hamlet, brave as he really is, has a delicate conscience, which blanches his "native hue." The danger of the event is heightened for him by the sense of his own unworthiness, by uncertainty as to fundamental principles of right and wrong, by conscience that "makes cowards of us all."

Yours very truly,

W. F. TAMBLYN.

WESTERN UNIVERSITY, LONDON, ONT.,
September 20, 1902.

# Notes.

Still further publications by Messrs. Scribner are 'Through Hidden Shensi,' by Francis H. Nichols, and 'Cross Country with Horse and Hound,' by Frank Sherman Peer.

'Pictorial Scotland and Ireland,' illustrated, and 'Lays for Little Chaps,' by Alfred J. Waterhouse, are in the press of the New Amsterdam Co.

William R. Jenkins will publish directly a 'Comprehensive French-English Dictionary.'

The next volume of the "Oxford History of Music" to be issued will be 'The Music of the Seventeenth Century,' by Sir C. Hubert H. Parry, and this may be expected immediately from Henry Frowde.

The season of reprints has set in, and a high standard is raised in Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s revised and enlarged edition of Mrs. Alice Mabel Bacon's classic 'Japanese Girls and Women.' The additions are considerable, being two chapters or 64 pages. The interest of that entitled "Within the Home" culminates in the account of the burdensome funeral rites. "Ten Years of Progress" deals with the movement for the advancement of women—in education at home, in study and travel abroad; Japan being to-day in this respect "where England and America were in the first half of the nineteenth century." A revolutionary book by the late eminent reformer, Fukuzawa, in refutation of Kaibara's 'Great Learning of Women,' is summarized in this chapter. The illustrations, by a native artist, Keishū Takenouchi, some in color, are a capital adornment to this instructive volume. The frontispiece shows us a "cherry-viewing."

Little, Brown & Co. find in illustrations by Henry Sandham a pretext for reissuing Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson's 'Glimpses of California and the Missions.' These drawings are of both scenery and people, and certainly enhance the reader's interest in the narrative.

Macmillan's new Thackeray proceeds with the 'Paris Sketch-Book' and 'The Irish Sketch-Book' in one volume, with the writer's own illustrations, including a caricature of O'Connell as Lord Mayor.

Though Helen M. Winslow, in compiling her 'Literary Boston of To-day' (L. C. Page & Co.), takes leave in her dedication to rate herself "a small fraction" of that Boston, she does not actually celebrate herself in the succeeding biographical sketches. Mrs. Julia Ward Howe's portrait serving as frontispiece is a frank reminder that a large and the weightiest part of the "Literary Boston of To-day" is the "Literary Boston of Yesterday." The face of the new editor of the *Atlantic*, Mr. Bliss Perry, fitly closes this portrait gallery, of which the text is written with sobriety if (as a matter of course) "genially" and in the journalistic vein.

Mrs. Lucia Ames Mead's book on 'Milton's England' (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.) shows a pleasant commingling of literary and antiquarian interests, with just a flavor of the summer holiday. It may be commended as a satisfactory pilgrim's guide-book to the places in which Milton lived; and its picture of the life of his time will practically assist the imagination of the tourist who has not made a special study of that period. Mrs. Mead also takes note, in passing, of the local associations connecting some of the towns and buildings she describes with famous Americans, such as Penn, Franklin, and Roger Williams. The illustrations, which are mainly reproduced from old engravings, represent many churches and houses as Milton must have seen them.

When the publishers of Esther Singleton's 'London, as Seen and Described by Famous Writers' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) announce that it "will appeal to the thoughtful reader as well as to the tourist," they draw a distinction which is not flattering to those of our compatriots who crowd the Atlantic steamers every summer. But a book which lays under tribute the work of such a variety of writers as Charles Dickens, G. W. Steevens, Augustus Hare, Charles Lamb, Théophile Gautier, Austin Dobson, and Washington Irving might safely challenge the attention of many more than two classes. It is arranged topographically: after a few chapters on London as a whole, we begin at the docks and work our way westward as far as a charitable bazaar in the Albert Hall. Perhaps this order was better than the chronological, but such transitions as that from Justin McCarthy to Leigh Hunt are somewhat

jerky. Even a flying leap from the Monument to Whitehall would scarcely have put a greater strain upon the imagination. Whatever the arrangement, the extracts should certainly have been dated, for it is important to know, in the case of any particular article, whether it is the London of the Crimean War or of the Diamond Jubilee that one is reading about. Except for this oversight, the compilation has been well made. The photographs with which it is accompanied are excellent.

A reader for school use has been compiled by Katharine Lee Bates and Katharine Coman under the title, 'English History Told by English Poets' (Macmillan). These editors frankly admit that to save the incident—or stage of national evolution and reform—they have had to compromise sometimes on indifferent poetry; but in such cases it is hard to see why there is any gain over the prose item which precedes each piece and fixes the chronology. William Morris's "poet's dream," "The Day is Coming," introduced towards the end, is scarcely in place in an historical selection. James Lincoln's closing sonnet, "England," might well have been supplemented by Professor Woodberry's better yet kindred Gibraltar sonnets.

J. C. L. Clark, Lancaster, Mass., publishes a little book, 'The Alcotts in Harvard,' written by Annie M. L. Clark. It does not contain much in substantial addition to its avowed sources, Sanborn's 'Life of Alcott,' Mrs. Cheney's 'Life of Louisa M. Alcott,' and Miss Alcott's 'Transcendental Wild Oats.' The last-named account of Fruitlands was so delightfully absurd that Mrs. Clark's is bound to suffer in comparison. But to her written sources she adds a modicum of personal recollection touching the Alcotts after they had left Fruitlands for the house called "Brick-Ends" in the village of Still River, one of the several parts into which the township of Harvard is divided. The author's tone is the now hackneyed one of depreciation of Mr. Alcott, and sympathy with his much-enduring wife and children. But that was not all failure which bore such fruit as Alcott's comment on his Harvard experiment: "That is failure when a man's idea ruins him, when he is dwarfed and killed by it; but when he is ever growing by it, ever true to it, and does not lose it by any partial or immediate failures—that is success whatever it seems to the world." Young people who delight in Miss Alcott's stories will be grateful for the facsimile of her rollicking letter of 1844. Several photographs are Mrs. Clark's best excuse for the publication of her brochure. That of the house at Fruitlands shows it to have been bare and ugly to a degree that could not be surpassed.

From the press of Macmillan & Co. we have received a volume of attractive appearance, dealing with the 'Experimental Study of Gases.' The author, Prof. Morris W. Travers, has been associated with Professor Ramsay in the investigation of argon and the other gases of the helium group, and is thus eminently qualified for the task which he has undertaken. As a complete treatment of the subject would demand more than a single volume, Professor Travers has confined himself to descriptions of such methods as may find application in research, and of investigations which involve new principles or lead to important results. The methods developed during the study of the gases of the helium group naturally occupy a considerable portion of the book, and the description of the apparatus employed—sometimes omitted from the original papers—is fully given.

The first part of the chemistry volume in the first annual issue of the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, published by the Royal Society, contains an author-catalogue of 112 pages, a subject-catalogue of 284 pages, and a 17-page index to organic substances. The scheme of the International Catalogue, we may remind our readers, is the development of three international conferences. It involves the publication of seventeen annual volumes covering the literature of as many branches of science, under the immediate responsibility of an international council, with the coöperation of regional bureaus, twenty-nine of which are already established. The details of classification, cross-references, etc., have been worked out with admirable success. The prompt and complete cataloguing of scientific literature which is thus assured will be of inestimable value to scientific research. At present, financial considerations restrict the number of subject-entries, and forbid the issue of a card catalogue as originally contemplated. This is a pity, and it is to be hoped that the necessary funds may be speedily provided. It would seem to be an object which might properly be cared for by the Carnegie Research Fund. The only criticism of the work we have to make, is the repetition of the schedule of classification, and the index in four languages. In a publication of this character this seems quite unnecessary.

A 'Dictionary of Dyes, Mordants, and other Compounds used in Dyeing and Calico Printing' is published by Griffin of London and Lippincott of Philadelphia. The authors are Christopher Rawson, Walter M. Gardner, and W. F. Laycock, who have prepared it as a companion volume to 'A Manual of Dyeing' issued by the same publishers. The 372 double-column pages of rather small type contain a general description of the many substances employed in dyeing, with their properties and uses and the methods for their examination and assay. Some of the longer articles, with the number of pages given to each, are: Cotton 9, Silk 5, Wool 11, Indigo 30, Logwood 5, Madder 5, Soap 12, Analysis of Textile Fabrics 6, Action of Light on Dyes 10, Water 12, Analysis and Recognition of the Coal-Tar Colors 13. The task which the authors set themselves appears to have been performed carefully and creditably, and the book will be an acceptable reference volume to all engaged or interested in the industry of dyeing.

The Commercial Press, Bombay, has published a curious and interesting volume of 352 pages on 'Reporters and Reporting,' by an Indian admirer of Sir Isaac Pitman, whose portrait faces the titlepage. Mr. D. E. Wacha, the well-known Parsee publicist, at present Chairman of the Bombay municipality, contributes a preface (one-fifth of the volume) on the requirements of effective reporting, and the dignity of the profession. The bulk of the work is made up of extracts—grave and gay—from various authors bearing upon the subject. To those not engaged in reporting, the volume will be found amusing as a collection of anecdotes upon the subject treated.

"The largest and most varied body of Irish Folk Music in existence was gradually got together by George Petrie, the famous Irish antiquary, with whom its collection had been a passion from his seventeenth till after his seventieth year." The entire collection numbered about 1,800 airs. Only about one-tenth part of these had seen the light at the period of Petrie's decease in 1866. The Irish Literary Society of London has undertaken their publication, and Part I., containing 500 airs, edited by C. V. Stanford, has just been issued by Boosey & Co., London and New York. It will be welcomed by all lovers of Irish music.

Lovers of Dante may be glad to have their attention called to a series of reproductions from paintings, bronzes, and masks, accompanying the article by Dr. Ingo Krauss on "Das Dantebildniss vom Beginn des Quattrocento bis Raphael," in *Monatsberichte über Kunstwissenschaft*, Heft 9.

Municipal socialism, according to Mr. H. D. Lloyd's account in the *National Geographic Magazine* for September, has reached its highest development in New Zealand. Its success is, in his opinion, complete. Here is "the most homogeneous, the most compact, the most energetic, and the most manageable democracy in the world." The picture of the economic conditions, however, must be received with caution. Take, for instance, this assertion that, of a loan of fifteen million dollars made in 1893, "not one dollar of principal or interest remains unpaid." This is Mr. Lloyd's only reference to the public debt of the colony, which amounts to the enormous sum of $320 per head of population, or relatively more than twenty times as great as our national and State debts combined, and far greater than the public debt per head of Great Britain, France, or Italy. The debt has increased twenty-five million dollars in the last five years, while the increase of the population has been only 69,359. The fact is, that the growth of municipal socialism, as the experience of England also shows, means an alarming addition to the public indebtedness. Brief abstracts are given of the papers read at the recent meeting of the American Forestry Association at Lansing, Mich.

A letter from Washington to Geo. Wm. Fairfax, dated September 29, 1763, is the most interesting of the historical manuscripts printed in the Boston Public Library Bulletin for September. It is mainly a request that Fairfax would sign certain articles in case he had examined "our Mississipi [*sic*] Scheme," and is "Inclined to be an adventurer." There are also letters from business houses in London to John Hancock, in 1770, which throw light on the foreign trade of that day and the difficulties attending it; and a long letter from the Rev. Isaac Backus, giving some account of the religious conditions of New England in 1764.

—The October *Century* has a few pages of highly interesting recollections of American poets, by Wyatt Eaton, who, after returning from his studies in France, made portraits for the *Century* of Bryant, Longfellow, Whittier, Emerson, Holmes, and Holland. Bryant came to his studio on Monday mornings, walking from there to the *Evening Post* building, forty or fifty blocks away, when the sitting was over. The artist found his presence so overpow-

ering that he was obliged to have a friend present to engage him in conversation. The two were not adapted to sympathetic companionship; as the artist says, "I felt myself as much a stranger to him at the end of the sittings as at the time of my first meeting him." With Longfellow, he felt the necessity of a certain reserve, fearing, for instance, to take off his coat while at work, although the weather was excessively hot. While Bryant seemed old, even two or three hundred years, Longfellow gave him the constant impression of youth. Whittier was rather hard to approach, and wished Eaton to make his portrait from an exceptionally bad photograph, almost unrecognizable. The poet himself seemed to possess at the start "a general look of commonplaceness and lack of character," but he improved on acquaintance, and the sittings became quite enjoyable. Emerson was rather indifferent at first, and hurried the artist along. "You must get through with this work as quickly as possible, for I am very old; I have but a little longer to live, and so much to do." As the work proceeded, however, Emerson became so talkative and interesting that progress was practically impossible without the presence of some third party. A short sketch of the artist and his work, by Charlotte Eaton, precedes the recollections, and his portrait, from one of his own drawings, comes at the close. The notorious Mr. Dowie of Zion City is "analyzed and classified" by Dr. Buckley, who finds him most probably first a sincere Christian, and then a fanatic, making extravagant claims which he himself believed, and driven by failures into sophisticating his reason and conscience in search of explanations for these failures. Lured by self-confidence and ambition into schemes requiring large sums of money, he found it necessary to manipulate men, and his natural shrewdness soon developed into cunning. Intoxicated by prosperity in these schemes he has actually come to regard himself as the special messenger of God. John Swain gives a study of Dowie and his work from another point of view, indicated by the title, "The Prophet and his Profits."

—The almost simultaneous publication of the second and fourth volumes of the "Indo-Iranian Series" draws especial attention to this meritorious undertaking on the part of Columbia University. The general editor of the series, Prof. A. V. W. Jackson, has in preparation volume i., 'A Sanskrit Grammar for Beginners,' and Mr. Montgomery Schuyler, jr., according to the announcement made by the Columbia University Press, will shortly bring out his completed 'Bibliography of the Sanskrit Drama,' some chapters of which, as preparatory studies, have already appeared in the *American Oriental Journal*. The latter scholar has now published, as the fourth volume of the series, an 'Index Verborum of the Fragments of the Avesta' (1901), a complete and useful contribution, which will be appreciated by all specialists in this department of research. Volume ii., which has just appeared (1902), is also a technical work, but more ambitious in design, being an 'Indo-Iranian Phonology' (with special reference to the middle and new Indo-Iranian languages). The author, Dr. Louis H. Gray, has devoted himself for some years to the collection of material, which has been so sifted in the pages of this book as to show at a glance which phonetic changes occurring in Indian dialects have their counterpart in Iran, and which are peculiar to only one of the two groups of languages.

—As will be seen by the Sanskrit and Iranian scholar, the chief contribution made by this book is in the phonology of the middle and the new dialects, which hitherto have not received their due share of attention in this regard. And as this is the chief contribution, so it is the main aim of Dr. Gray "to prove that the later Indo-Iranian dialects are still closely akin, and have had in many cases analogous developments." Previous works have been freely drawn upon, but with due citation of authority. The body of material here presented is of the utmost value to the Indo-Iranian phonologist, but it has also a wider importance. The general student of Aryan phonetics cannot but be impressed with the numerous analogies between the changes here recorded and those in other related fields, some of which, such as the loss of an internal *g* in Indian and Iranian compared with ἐγών = Bœotian ἰών, Latin *regem*, Old French *rei*, are widespread. Under section 360, where the change of *l* to *n* is recorded, it might have been said that, when initial, this change is almost universal. Throughout India to-day every gamin who has heard of Lucknow calls it Nuklo. Dr. Gray's volume certainly augurs well for the scholarly tone of the new series, which will apparently be a worthy rival of the earlier Harvard Oriental Series.

—'Historical Sources in Schools' (Macmillan) is a painstaking and valuable report which has been prepared by a select committee and submitted to the New England History Teachers' Association. The Chairman of the committee, Prof. C. D. Hazen, and his four colleagues have regarded their function seriously, and, like other members of similar committees, deserve warm thanks for labor gladly given to help forward the good cause of teaching. There are two things which this volume shows very clearly, to wit, the widespread acceptance of the view that history should be studied, even at an early stage, from original materials; and, secondly, the existence of a considerable apparatus which has been called into being with the purpose of making sources available. The old way of teaching the beginner from a text-book, and from a text-book exclusively, was doubtless bad. The new gospel, that documents should be brought upon the scene without delay, supplies an admirable stimulus, but may in practice be carried too far. Teachers of history everywhere are trying to hit the golden mean between the desiccated exactness of an epitome and the somewhat desultory attractiveness of sources. A volume like the present report has the merit of showing how things stand. After a general dissertation on the usefulness of sources, a series of annotated bibliographies is furnished. The design is practical, and so the lists cover those fields of history which are most often taken up in American schools. Thus, ancient history, mediæval and modern European history, English history, and American history are singled out from all other departments of the subject. Of course numerous subdivisions are made, and in each case the great movements and periods are accentuated. An account is given of the sources most suitable for the use of beginners, and of the best excerpts from sources which can now be had in English. On the whole, the bibliographies are better than the critical notes. Of the latter, a few are too long according to the scale of the volume, while others are thin. Narrow limits of space deprive some of the bibliographies of their proper value—for instance, that on the Church in the Middle Ages. But the shortcomings of this report are slight when compared with the carefulness of its bibliographies and its judicious division of subject-matter. It is one of the best gifts which have been offered by college professors to teachers in the preparatory schools. Besides the Chairman, the committee consisted of E. G. Bourne, Sarah M. Dean, Max Farrand, and Albert Bushnell Hart.

—Mr. John Phin's 'Shakespeare Cyclopædia and New Glossary' (New York: Industrial Publication Co.) is meant to provide the possessor of any copy of Shakspere's text with a body of comment and exposition, alphabetically arranged, that shall serve the purposes of an annotated edition and something more. It is addressed, we are told, "to the ordinary reader rather than the profound Shakesperean scholar," and the suggestion is made that this fact "will excuse many features which might otherwise appear puerile in a work of this character." The alphabet includes words needing definition, names of *dramatis personæ*, mythological and historical characters, and so on. The explanations are for the most part compiled from accepted sources, with due credit to the authorities utilized. A great deal of valuable material is thus made accessible in moderate compass and at small expense. It is easy to find errors, but to enumerate those that we have observed would give a wrong idea of the book. For, when all deductions have been made, there can be no doubt that Mr. Phin's volume stands the only test that can justly be applied to it. It is a handy compendium of useful knowledge for the kind of "ordinary reader" that he has in mind. We ought to add, however, a word of caution: Mr. Phin must not be regarded as an "authority," either in linguistics or in textual criticism; when he is most original the reader should be least credulous. Finally, we must protest against the extraordinary tone in which he speaks of Schmidt and Steevens, neither of whom he can abide.

—There died in Bremen on August 26, in his eightieth year, Otto Gildemeister, a writer of varied talents and great eminence, esteemed the foremost daily journalist in Germany and the first among poetic translators. His university life had no bread-and-butter aim, and he dropped naturally, on graduation, into the service of a new paper, the *Weser-Zeitung*, of which he quickly became chief editor. His two articles per week amounted in the gross to some 5,700. They were written in a clear hand with few erasures, from a mind that knew its own thought, and in independent advocacy of liberal principles regardless of the opinion of the mob. When his townsman, Dr. Barth, founded the Berlin *Nation*, Gildemeister wrote for it also in friendliest sympathy under the signature of "Giotto" (his anagram for Otto Gl—). Gildemeister was a free-trader before the days of the

Anti-Corn Law League across the sea, and therefore (rightly says his biographer) a German Federalist and Constitutionalist. His political preoccupation consisted further in his having been called to the Bremen Senate, first as secretary, and then as Senator, and by that body he was at forty-eight made burgomaster. His congenial rôle was that of a minister of finance. But public affairs could not absorb him wholly. Though he strayed as seldom from Bremen as Kant from Königsberg, he reached out into foreign literatures, and, suppressing every temptation to become a poet on his own account, he translated with marvellous skill and fidelity Byron, Ariosto's 'Orlando Furioso,' Dante's 'Inferno,' and Shakspere's Sonnets. Of the others we cannot speak, but his version of the Sonnets is masterly. These translations will keep his memory green. His editorial writing must needs undergo the fate of its kind; and his two volumes of Essays will no doubt cease to be read, though Bamberger pronounced him the most eminent of German prose-writers. But it must be long before equal gifts of expression in such opposite lines as journalism and poetry will recur, even in men devoid of the political capacity which ensured to Gildemeister the highest local usefulness and distinction.

## THREE "BACONIAN" BOOKS.

*Francis Bacon our Shake-speare.* By Edwin Reed. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed.

*Bacon and Shake-speare Parallelisms.* By Edwin Reed. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed.

*Shakespeare Studies in Baconian Light.* By Robert M. Theobald. London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribners.

It is a pity that the term "Baconian" has come to be used in so limited a sense. "A Baconian," one would think, ought to supnify either a disciple of Bacon, an adept in his inductive method, or, if there are no such adepts, a scholar well versed in Bacon's works, literary and philosophical. Yet nowadays the word designates, in common parlance, a person who holds that the dramas which have always passed as William Shakspere's were actually written by Francis Bacon, and it carries no implication of familiarity with Bacon's acknowledged writings or of skill in expounding his doctrines.

The discussion of the "Baconian hypothesis" appears to us, as facts now stand, a pretty barren debate. Neither party can convince the other, and the world at large takes—and must take—but a languid interest in the dispute, so long as most Shaksperean scholars refuse to engage in it at all. It is not our purpose, then, to thresh out the whole subject of this hypothesis; for we do not agree with Mr. Reed that "determination of authorship is a condition precedent to the comprehension of the Shakespearean dramas." Nor should we find it necessary to do more than chronicle the publication of his two books, and characterize them briefly, were it not for the fourth chapter in 'Francis Bacon our Shake-speare.' This is entitled "The Place of the Shake-speare Dramas in Bacon's System of Philosophy." It exhibits Mr. Reed in the rôle of an expounder of Bacon's acknowledged works, and reaches the startling conclusion (on the basis, mainly, of Bacon's own words) *that the Shaksperean dramas embody Bacon's moral and political philosophy, and constitute the missing Fourth Part of the 'Instauratio Magna.'* Here is a definite proposition, capable of being discussed, and also of being settled, since the evidence is not only abundant, but uncommonly free from the circumstantial and the ambiguous. The question thus raised is also a matter of some consequence, both from the literary and from the philosophical point of view. It is not a mere "determination of authorship"; it involves the whole plan of Bacon's philosophical fabric, as well as his ability or inability to express himself in intelligible language. Incidentally, it gives us a chance to appraise Mr. Reed's knowledge and comprehension of Bacon. This last point is of some interest, since it has often been asserted that most Baconians, however well versed they may be in Shakspere, know no Bacon to speak of.

It is essential to Mr. Reed's contention with regard to Part IV. of the 'Instauratio' to prove that Bacon set forth a great body of philosophy in cryptic or enigmatic form. He sees an avowal of such an intention in the 'De Augmentis' (vi. 2), where Bacon speaks of the "acroamatic" method of delivery. This passage, however, Mr. Reed misinterprets in a surprising way. It is, in fact, simply descriptive and critical, and contains no suggestion of any purpose on Bacon's part to follow the example of acroamatic teachers. Again, what Mr. Reed calls "Bacon's own description in general terms of one of the two methods, the secret one, adopted by him for communicating his philosophy to the public," is contained in a well-known passage of the 'Temporis Partus Masculus,' a tentative, cancelled sketch, superseded by the publication of the 'Instauratio' and not usable as evidence of Bacon's purposes when the latter work was written. Further, the 'Partus Masculus' is not a treatise on moral or political philosophy. It deals almost entirely with natural science. Even if it should appear, then, that the passage in question is an avowal of Bacon's intention to set forth philosophy in enigmas—and we do not think it bears that meaning — such an avowal would not help Mr. Reed's contention, but rather hinder it. For Mr. Reed does not hold that Bacon used a cryptic method in setting forth natural philosophy. His whole argument requires, on the contrary, that this practice should have been confined to moral and political writings. The 'Temporis Partus,' then, is out of the case. We need not dwell further on this particular part of the subject, since, as we shall see in a moment, such discussion is made unnecessary by what follows. We may come then, without longer parley, to the main question: *Was the Fourth Part of Bacon's great Latin philosophical work a collection of English plays?*

Bacon prefixed to the 'Instauratio Magna,' as printed in 1620, a "Plan of the Work" *(Distributio Operis)*, which gives a clear account of the contents. The work, as there laid out, is to consist of six Parts, of which we are here concerned with the Second, Third, and Fourth. To the Second Part (the 'Novum Organum') is consigned "instruction in a better and more perfect use of the reason *in rerum inquisitione*, and in the true aids of the intellect, that by this means (as far as the condition of mortality and humanity allows) the intellect may be made efficient *(exaltetur)* and furnished with ample ability *(facultate amplificetur)* to overcome the difficulties and obscurities of nature." This art, Bacon adds, is "a kind of logic," which he then proceeds to distinguish from syllogistic reasoning and from ordinary induction. The Second Part is unfinished, so that the account of the new induction is incomplete. The important place which *tabular arrangement* occupies in Bacon's method, however, is plain enough. The method is illustrated by an unfinished treatment of Heat, which includes four tables *(tabulæ)*, with an explanation of their use, and mentions others that are to be constructed. These facts are of much significance in the present inquiry.

The Third Part of the 'Instauratio' is to consist in a "Natural and Experimental History"—an account of the "phenomena of the universe," comprising a history of the heavenly bodies and of minerals, plants, and animals, with experiments; as also "experiments of the mechanic arts," etc., and a treatment of such "cardinal virtues" in nature as dense and rare, hot and cold, and several others. No portion of this Part is present in the work as published in 1620, but a considerable body of materials for it was afterwards issued.

The Fourth Part of the 'Instauratio'—and this it is particularly important to mark—is devoted to "setting forth examples of inquiry and discovery *(exempla inquirendi et inveniendi)* according to my method [that is, of course, the new induction], exhibited in some subjects, taking especially the subjects which are both most noteworthy *(nobilissima)* among those which are under inquiry and most various, so that there may be an example in every kind." These examples are to be different from those already used to illustrate the precepts and rules of the new induction in Part II.; they are to be "types and models, which shall, as it were, set before the eye the entire process of the mind and the continuous structure and order of discovery *(inveniendi)* in certain definite subjects, and those various and remarkable." Thus the Fourth Part is, adds Bacon, "nothing else in fact but a particular and fully developed application *(applicatio particularis et explicata)* of Part II." *(i. e.*, of the 'Novum Organum').

The meaning of all this is clear. Part II. is to contain an explanation of Bacon's method of induction; Part III. a complete collection of material derived from a study of Nature in the widest sense of the word, with accompanying experiments; Part IV. a number of examples of the application of the new induction to select subjects, drawn, in all probability, from the materials collected in Part III. The character of Part IV. is further vouched for by a passage in the 'Novum Organum' (i. 102), in which Bacon, still speaking of the investigation of Nature, says that the "particulars" are so numerous and dispersed that little can be accomplished unless such of them "as pertain to the subject of inquiry shall, by means of Tables of Discovery *(tabulæ inveniendi)*, apt, well arranged, and as it were animate, be drawn up and coördinated; and the mind

be set to work upon the duly prepared and digested aids which these tables supply." This significant passage is practically suppressed by Mr. Reed.* It is, in truth, fatal to his theory of Part IV., especially when taken in connection with another passage in the 'Novum Organum' (i. 117), in which these same "tables of discovery" are spoken of as "composing the Fourth Part of the Instauratio," and are mentioned in the same close connection with the investigation of Nature which we have observed in the passage just quoted. This decisive piece of testimony is ignored by Mr. Reed.

Appropriately enough, the Fourth Part was to be known as *Scala Intellectus*, "The Ladder of the Understanding." Only the preface is extant, but this alone suffices to show what the contents were to be, even if that had not already been abundantly explained in the *Distributio Operis* and the 'Novum Organum.' "It is my design," so runs the Preface, "here [*i. e.*, in Part IV.] to set forth and describe examples of true and legitimate inquiry into things for a variety of subjects (as in the Second Book [*i. e.*, the 'Novum Organum'] I have set forth and described the precepts of such investigation)†, and that in the form which I regard as most consistent with the truth and which I teach (*tradimus*) as tested and chosen" (*i. e.*, in the form of the new induction). This passage, which again asserts the close connection between the Second and the Fourth Part of the 'Instauratio,' and which corresponds exactly to the programme laid down in the *Distributio* and partly carried out in the 'Organum,' is also passed over in silence by Mr. Reed, though he actually quotes the next four sentences of the same Preface, which he imagines lend support to his strange thesis.

We have now a clear idea of the *tabulæ inveniendi* that were to constitute Part IV. of the 'Instauratio': they were examples of the application of the new induction to various subjects of "natural history" (including as Bacon does under that term physics, chemistry, and mechanics, as well as those subjects to which the term is now commonly applied). They are called *tabulæ* because they were to be in tabular form, like the extant *tabulæ* in Part II., of which Part, as Bacon himself says, the 'Scala Intellectus' (Part IV.) was to be merely "a particular and fully developed application." We are justified in inferring, from 'Novum Organum,' i., 127, that Part IV. was also to contain "tables of discovery" for logic, ethics, and political science, since Bacon says that his method is equally applicable to those sciences, and that he "constructs a history and tables of discovery concerning anger, fear, shame, and the like; and also concerning examples of civil matters; and not less concerning the mental operations of memory, composition and division, judgment, and the rest, than hot and cold, or light, or vegetation, or the like." Clearly these mental, moral, and political *tabulæ* were to exemplify the new induction, and were to resemble the tables employed for physics and other departments of natural philosophy, though, as appears from the closing sentence of this chapter, the method of inquiry was to vary "in some measure" according to the subject.

In the face of evidence like this, Mr. Reed asserts, with entire confidence, and, we feel sure, with equal honesty, that Part IV. of the 'Instauratio' was designed for an inquiry "into facts of a mental and moral nature exclusively," and that the *tabulæ inveniendi* of which this Part was to consist are the dramas that pass under the name of Shakspere. The reader will draw his own conclusions.

In justice to Mr. Reed, we ought to add that he rests a large part of his case on the 'Cogitata et Visa,' from which he quotes a long extract relating to the *tabulæ inveniendi*. He calls particular attention to certain passages which are found in the Oxford MS. (and therefore in Spedding's edition), but which do not appear in Isaac Gruter's edition of 1653. The substance of the 'Cogitata et Visa,' however, was included in the 'Great Instauration,' and the tract throws no light on the *tabulæ inveniendi* which the passages that we have already considered do not afford. Indeed, the 'Cogitata et Visa' deals with natural philosophy alone, so that the tables contemplated are even less to Mr. Reed's purpose than some of those mentioned in the 'Organum.' As for the omissions in Gruter's text, they are in nowise important. The idea that Gruter suppressed these passages because they tended to reveal Bacon's authorship of the plays has no foundation. They have nothing to do with the drama. They concern tables of discovery in natural philosophy. One of the passages, indeed, recurs in substance in the 'Novum Organum' (i., 130), which was given to the world by Bacon himself, as well as in the Preface to the 'Scala Intellectus,' and in the 'Filum Labyrinthi,' which were published by Gruter in the same volume with the 'Cogitata et Visa.'

As a further specimen of Mr. Reed's method, as well as of the trustworthiness of his statements, we subjoin the following quotation:

"In the *Filum Labyrinthi* he [Bacon] is even more specific [than in the passage concerning *'tabulæ inveniendi* for fear, shame,' etc., already cited from the 'Novum Organum'] in his description of these moral and political *Tabulæ Inveniendi;* for he there gives a list of thirteen classes of them, four of which are entitled as follows: *'tabulæ* concerning animal passions; *tabulæ* concerning sense and the objects of sense; *tabulæ* concerning the affections of the mind; and *tabulæ* concerning the mind itself and its faculties.' "

The truth is, that the 'Filum Labyrinthi,' if one reads it through, furnishes an absolute confutation of Mr. Reed's view that the *tabulæ inveniendi* are plays. It begins with the skeleton of such a table, dealing with Motion. This table is called a "specimen of the Investigation of Nature." By this example, says Bacon, he thinks he has made his meaning perfectly clear (*primum hoc videmur adepti, quod maximum est, ut plane intelligamur*). He has "set forth the matter naked and open" (*rem nudam et apertam exhibuimus*). [This is a sufficient rejoinder to Mr. Reed's utterances about cryptic methods of exposition!] Near the end of the tract we have a statement, intended to give a correct impression of the size and scope of the 'Great Instauration,' as the work lay in Bacon's mind when the 'Filum' was written. This statement takes the form of a summary list (*digestum*) of the tables which he meant to include. These are thirteen in number, as follows: (1) motion, (2) heat and cold, (3) the rays of things and impressions produced at a distance, (4) growth and life, (5) the passions of the animal body, (6) sense and objects, (7) *de affectibus animi*, (8) *de mente et ejus facultatibus*, (9) the architecture of the universe, (10) the great *relativa* or the accidents of being, (11) the consistencies of bodies or the inequality of parts, (12) *de speciebus sive rerum fabricis et societatibus ordinariis*, (13) the little *relativa* or the properties. There are also to be smaller tables as occasion requires. Then "there remains" (and these words conclude the paper) "the other part of the work, . . . that, after I have explained the construction of the machine [*i. e.*, of his method of investigation], I may give light and counsels as to its use."

The reader has but to compare this digest with Mr. Reed's account of it (just quoted) to see how untrustworthy a guide has here undertaken to expound Bacon. We are unable to see how Mr. Reed could work through this passage, and rise from his study of it with the opinion that the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth sets of *tabulæ* were *dramas*. We are equally unable to understand how he could imagine that he was dealing fairly with his reader in garbling the passage as he has done. If some of the *tabulæ* were dramas, all were dramas. The *tabulæ* concerning motion were not dramatic. The 'Filum' begins with a skeleton of them, which shows that they were what they profess to be—"tables."

But further argument is really out of place in the presence of such a misrepresentation of known facts as Mr. Reed's chapter contains. We have no doubt that the misrepresentation is unintentional. It exhibits, nevertheless, the character of Mr. Reed's Baconian scholarship, and the equipment with which he operates in his attempt to elucidate the meaning of the great philosopher.

We must remind the reader that what precedes is not a discussion of the "Baconian theory of Shakspere's plays," but merely an examination of Mr. Reed's hypothesis that Bacon refers to these plays as *tabulæ inveniendi*, and that they constituted the Fourth Part of the 'Instauratio Magna.' Mr. Reed does not rest his doctrine of Baconian authorship on this chapter alone. His book includes several other divisions—a chapter of "coincidences," two relating to the dates of the plays, another concerning their "classical element," and so on. These we have no space to discuss. We will only remark that in the chapters on "early authorship" and "late authorship," Bacon is credited with writing not only the Shaksperean dramas, but the old play of "King Leir" (one of Shakspere's sources), "The Famous Victories of Henry V.," and "The Troublesome Reign of King John." Students of literature may confidently be left to deal at their leisure with a critical method like this.

Mr. Reed's "Bacon and Shake-speare Parallelisms" may be briefly characterized. In this book he "rests the argument for Bacon as the sole author of these Poems and Plays on a single point, viz., identity of thought and diction between them and his acknowledged works." Accordingly, we have some four hundred pages of "par-

*His only reference to it is the following (p. 136): "In another tract [a strange designation for the 'Novum Organum'!] Bacon describes these writings as *tanquam vivas*, a phrase which Mr. Spedding translates, 'as it were, animate,' and Mr. Montagu, by the word 'living.' "

†"Itaque consilium nostrum est, veræ et legitimæ de rebus inquisitionis, ut in secundo libro præcepta, ita hic exemplaria proponere et describere pro varietate subjectorum."

allelisms" and comment. A large number of these comparisons are of the most trivial description—not worth citing, even for literary illustration, still less for serious argument. What is to be made out of such "parallelisms" as "misshapen chaos" (*Romeo and Juliet*) and "chaos is without form" (Bacon), or "You hit the white" (*Taming of the Shrew*) and "Except the white be placed, men cannot level" (Bacon)? Others, however, are very interesting from this or that point of view, and students of Shakspere will be glad to have the volume on their shelves, quite irrespective of the "Baconian question."

We have spent so much time with Mr. Reed that we must dismiss Mr. Theobald's portly volume with a word or two. His arguments are of the usual Baconian sort, neither better nor worse. The parallels, like Mr. Reed's, are sometimes interesting, but very often trivial, fanciful, or even mistaken. A highly characteristic chapter is that in which Mr. Theobald succeeds in proving to his own satisfaction that "the objection to the Baconian theory derived from Bacon's treatment of love, is not only not sustained by detailed examination, but the logical bearing of the comparison is exactly the reverse of that which is claimed for it. The Shakesperean view of love, so far from conflicting with the Baconian, is curiously and most significantly identical with it." And so Mr. Theobald actually finds in this comparison a new proof or support for the Baconian theory! Our readers will remember Bacon's frigid Essay "Of Love," and in particular the famous remark, "I know not how, but martial men are given to love. I think it is but as they are given to wine; for perils commonly ask to be paid in pleasures." We must leave it to their curiosity and leisure to discover how Mr. Theobald reconciles this flippant dictum with Shakspere's treatment of the subject. It is this utterance which Tennyson quoted as a sufficient refutation of the Baconian theory. Mr. Reed notes the fact in his book of 'Parallelisms,' but he omits a significant part of the passage, leaving only the comparatively colorless, "I know not how, but martial men are given to love," and, having thus mutilated Tennyson's quotation, and deprived it of a large part of its force and meaning, he triumphantly produces "the identical sentiment" from "Troilus and Cressida":

> "We are soldiers,
> And may that soldier a mere recreant prove
> That means not, hath not, or is not in love."

This procedure speaks for itself.

## RECENT ENGLISH ANTHOLOGIES.

When a man is in his seventy-fourth year of life; when he carries half-a-dozen capital letters, in the English fashion, after his name; when he has been president of several learned societies and under-secretary of several colonies and even Governor of Madras; when he still, according to 'Who's Who?' finds his peaceful recreations in "fencing, botanizing, travelling, and conversation," why should he not at length crown an existence so honorable by publishing 'An Anthology of Victorian Poetry' (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Dutton)? This book, as prepared by the Right Hon. Sir Mountstuart E. Grant Duff, G.C.S.I., F.R.S., has the merit of professing no especial standard beyond an old man's whims, and of demanding no especial deference from the reader. All that the compiler avers is that he has brought together a number of "Victorian" poems, of "all of which" he can say, "They happen to give me pleasure." "The personal equation," he adds, "is very much to the front," as it should be; much better thus than to have each editor claim that he is himself an infallible tribunal. If Sir Mountstuart Grant Duff really prefers to give but twenty-four out of his five hundred pages to Tennyson, twenty-three to Browning, and then to lavish sixty-one on Matthew Arnold, he has a full right to do so; and no one has reason to complain unless it be the young lady who may happen to receive the book as a birthday present. Himself a Balliol College man, the compiler dwells with pleasure on those works identified with the celebrated Oxford Movement, and gives eighteen pages to Keble, fifteen to Faber, and fourteen to Clough, while only six each are vouchsafed to Swinburne, Morris, and Mrs. Browning; Rossetti has but five, Watson three, Yeats two, Meredith one. There is nothing from Hardy, Symons, or Watts-Dunton. In all this we see the personal equation again.

The book has almost every possible defect of method, having, for instance, no alphabetical index either of authors or first lines; and being inconveniently divided into four quarter-sections, as it were, each having "introductory notes" at its beginning, so that all but the first set of poetic names have to be hunted over laboriously to find any especial statement or criticism. Nor can the reader know in which quarter-section any given author is classed, unless he bears the precise birthday of each in memory; though this may be precisely the knowledge for which he is consulting the book. In many cases the special selections are excellent, and there has been, indeed, long since, a silent balloting which makes each editor of an anthology decide easily on the poems by each author which the public wishes to see; just as an American compiler knows, under similar circumstances, that he must include Holmes's "Chambered Nautilus" and Lowell's "The Courtin'." Sir Grant Duff sometimes misses this, as where he omits to give us Mrs. Browning's "Sonnets from the Portuguese" and Sir Edwin Arnold's "He who died at Azan." In most cases, however, he comes well up to his duty, and includes, almost as a matter of course, Jean Ingelow's "High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire," Kingsley's "Sands of Dee," Thackeray's "At the Church Gate," Mahony's "Shandon Bells," Dobson's "Good-night, Babette," Bourdillon's "The Night has a Thousand Eyes," and the like. Mixed with these is a good deal of commonplace or merely didactic rhyme; and the prose commentary is apt to be describable by these same epithets. The editor never hits the point better, perhaps, than when he dismisses Browning and Tennyson with the four terse monosyllables "I need not speak" (p. 84); then going on to devote the whole following page to Faber (p. 85).

Probably the best single service likely to be done to American readers is in revealing the real authorship of that fine poem, "The Ballad of the Boat." We have not Mr. Stedman's 'Victorian Anthology' at hand, but this poem has passed in American books of selections as having been written by an unknown "R. Garrett," this being mainly the consequence of an error in editing the little book called 'Sea and Shore' some twenty years ago. It now, however, appears as the work of a man dear to many Americans, Dr. Richard Garnett, late of the British Museum; and we reprint it because of this long error and its own high quality:

THE BALLAD OF THE BOAT.

The stream was smooth as glass. We said:
"Arise, and let's away";
The Siren sang beside the boat that in the rushes lay,
And, spread the sail and strong the oar, we gaily took our way.
"When shall the sandy bar be crost? When shall we find the bay?"

The broadening flood swells slowly out o'er cattle-dotted plains;
The stream is strong and turbulent, and dark with heavy rains;
The laborer looks up to see our shallop speed away.
When shall the sandy bar be crost? When shall we find the bay?

Now are the clouds like fiery shrouds; the sun, superbly large,
Slow as an oak to woodman's stroke, sinks flaming at their marge;
The waves are bright with mirror'd light as jacinths on our way.
When shall the sandy bar be crost? When shall we find the way?

The moon is high up in the sky, and now no more we see
The spreading river's either bank, and surging distantly
There booms a sullen thunder as of breakers far away;
Now shall the sandy bar be crost, now shall we find the bay!

The sea-gull shrieks high overhead, and dimly to our sight
The moonlit crests of foaming waves gleam towering through the night.
We'll steal upon the mermaid soon, and start her from her lay,
When once the sandy bar is crost and we are in the bay.

What rises white and awful, as a shroud-enfolded ghost?
What roar of rampant tumult bursts in clangor on the coast?
Pull back! pull back! The raging flood sweeps every oar away.
Oh stream, is this thy bar of sand? Oh boat, is this the bay?

A great contrast to the previous rather cumbrous but well-meaning book is a most agreeable volume under the slightly awkward name of 'The Spindle-side of Scotch Song,' devoted to the memory of a marvellous series of women, each of whom appears in literary history dimly yet definitely, contributes to it her little gem of immortal song, and then relapses into obscurity once more. She may be a titled lady or a Border belle, like the Baroness Nairne, or Mrs. Alison Cockburn; she may be Jean Glover, the Kilmarnock weaver's daughter, whom Burns records as "strolling through the country with a sleight-of-hand blackguard"; each furnishes her song and disappears, except as some kindly editress in later days may search out her story, and portray her life in all the wonderful picturesqueness which belonged to that early period of Scottish society—a period that came and went, bequeathing us these ballads and the Waverley Novels. Scott himself knew several of these ladies, gave them hints for ballads, or recorded their memories. The editor of this volume perhaps attempts too much to individualize her sitters by artificial phrases—"the songstress of heather and heath," "the songstress incognita," and so on; it is quite needless, since each individualizes herself and makes herself immortal by her song. No vagabond in the world has ever sung the joys of that profession like Jean Glover, who, as she chanted them, may have been passing with her blackguard companion by "the lonely farmhouse of Lochgoin, where, after his week's work, the author of the 'Scots Worthies' sat writing the biographies of the

martyrs by the light of the peat-fire" (p. 74); while the song rang out:

"Ower the muir amang the heather,
Ower the muir amang the heather,
By sea and sky, she shall be mine,
That bonnie lass amang the heather!"

Or it may have been Susanna Blamire, who sang for village festivals beneath the shadow of Helvellyn, and left behind her the ever-plaintive lay:

"And ye shall walk in silk attire
And siller hae to spare
Gin ye'll consent to be his bride
Nor think on Donald mair."

Then there was Lady Grisell Hume, afterwards Mrs. Baillie, who spent much of her time, during one winter, in carrying food to her father, Sir Patrick, a leader of the Covenanters, when imprisoned in the Tolbooth, or when hiding himself in the family mansion; first beneath the flooring of a cellar from which he was driven by water undermining it, and then in the family vault close by. Suddenly appearing in the dark retreat, where Sir Patrick was beguiling tedious hours by committing Latin psalms to heart, she would regale him not merely with the boiled sheep's head which she bore in her apron, but by imitating the amazed cry of her young brother Sandy at its disappearance, he exclaiming, "Mother! Will you look at Grisell? While we have been eating her broth, she has eaten up the whole sheep's head!" (p. 17). Perhaps it was on her return from one of these visits that she composed that unforgotten Scotch song, which we quote as being here for the first time given in correct rendering:

WERENA MY HEART LICHT, I WAD DEE.

There was ance a may, and she lo'ed na men;
She biggit her bonnie bouir doon in yon glen;
But now she cries, Dule, and a-well-a-day!
Come doon the green gait and come here-away.

When bonnie young Johnie cam ower the sea,
He said he saw naething sae bonnie as me;
He hecht me baith rings and monie braw things;
And werena my heart licht, I wad dee.

. . . . . .

His bonnet stood aye fu' round on his broo,
His auld ane looked better than monie ane's new;
But noo he lets wear ony gait it will hing
And casts himself dowie upon the corn-bing.

And now he gangs daund'ring about the dykes,
And a' he dow do is to hund the tykes;
The live-lang night he ne'er steeks an e'e;
And werena my heart licht, I wad dee.

Were I young for thee as I hae been,
We should hae been galloping doon on yon green,
And linkin' it on the lilie-white lea,
And wow! gin I were but young for thee!

Then there were the two Selkirkshire "Forest" ladies, Alison Rutherford and Jean Elliot, who gave the two separate versions of "The Flowers of the Forest," each so musical and so plaintive that they were both long attributed to periods long gone by. Both referred to the losses of the Forest region at Flodden Field, and they so revived the old popular air that wherever a Scottish soldier is borne to the grave, through all the range of the British empire, to-day, this dirge is his requiem. Miss Eliot's version, long supposed to be much the older, is that beginning:

"I've heard them lilting at our yowe-milking,
Lassies a' lilting before the dawn o' day;
But now they are moaning on ilka green loaning—
The Flowers of the Forest are a' wede away."

The other is in a slightly different poetic rhythm, but it goes to the same air, and has this strong verse in it:

"I've seen the morning
With gold the hills adorning,
And loud tempests storming before the mid-day;
I've seen Tweed's silver streams
Glittering in the sunny beams
Grow drumly and dark as they rolled on their way."

It was of Mrs. Cockburn that Sir Walter Scott wrote one of his vivid personal descriptions, as of an old friend; describing her gay evening entertainments, at which the final *petit souper* was like that of Swift's Stella, the description of which Mrs. Cockburn used herself to quote, by way of preliminary introduction to its frugal viands:

"A supper like her mighty self—
Four nothings on four plates of delf."

Then there is the ever-plaintive "Auld Robin Gray," a ballad whose secret was kept by the authoress, a woman—the best-kept literary secrets, like that of the "Saxe-Holm" stories, are usually kept by women—until within a year of Lady Anne Lindsay's death, at seventy-five. This was when she held the most brilliant drawing-room in London, and entertained it so well that once, when she had a large and distinguished dinner party, and something went wrong in the kitchen, her old servant whispered from behind her chair, "My lady, you must tell another story. The second course won't be ready for ten minutes!" (p. 108). She it was who wrote:

"When the sheep are in the fauld and the kye are a' hame,
And a' the weary warld to rest are gane.
The woes o' my heart fall in showers frae my e'e,
Unkent by my gudeman wha sleeps sound by me."

One is, however, sorry to discover from this book that the repenting Scotch lady wrote a second part to the plaintive poem. In this added canto Auld Robin dies, the heroine marries the returned Jamie, and we hear of "a bonnie wee bairn" in the last line but one.

Then comes the author of perhaps the most profoundly beautiful of all Scotch songs, "The Land o' the Leal." On the lawn at Gask House, where Carolina Oliphant lies buried, there stands her memorial cross with the words, "Carmina Morte Carent" (Her songs are immortal). These songs are varied: there is the rollicking "Laird o' Cockpen"; there is that song of magnificent surprises, "Caller Herrin'," which can never be forgotten by those who have once heard it sung, no matter how long ago, by Antoinette Sterling; and there is, above all, "The Land o' the Leal." Songs like these are the education of a race; it is these which were first created by that ideal quality lying deep in the nature of every Scotchman; they were created by it, and now serve to perpetuate it.

## RECENT FICTION.

*Luck o' Lassendale.* By the Earl of Iddesleigh. John Lane.

*Up the Witch Brook Road.* By Kate Upson Clark. J. F. Taylor & Co.

*The Shadow of the Rope.* By E. W. Hornung. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*A Downrenter's Son.* By Ruth Hall. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

There is a naïveté amounting to childlikeness in the 'Luck o' Lassendale.' If "Miss had not danced with a lord," as Miss Burney puts it, or rather if a lord's name did not figure as the author, would this novel have seen the light? Yet there are, in spite of its slenderness, several good points about it. To begin with, it is a well-bred book; an air of breeding, almost atoning for lack of sparkle, pervades the work. The contour is hopelessly inartistic, but not all the details are without meaning. There is a definite idea informing each of the leading characters that makes them all real, though very stiffly portrayed. The fatuous speculator and gambler, and the hypochondriac are credited with arguments and complaints that are ingeniously absurd, and that show, if not precisely humor, at least a keen sense of nonsense. And the women are not lay figures by any means, though they present rigid outlines as of little Dutch paintings. The stock-gambling and horse-racing manias are the basis of Sir Francis Lassendale's troubles, and if his experiences are not novel, there is a combination of gentleman and fool in his reasoning that has almost the effect of a creation.

'Up the Witch Brook Road' justifies its name of "a summer idyl" by being light and pastoral, by breathing of New England hills and pastures and orchards, by being flavored with apples and costumed in dimity. It tells of "the late forties of the last century," and tenderly laments the passing of a day innocent of railroads and tramps. Manners have changed, but the description of farm and wood and rocky hills well describes the Massachusetts hill country of to-day. The farm-folk munch their apples still on soft September days, but now women sit in their doorways as they munch, and watch the passing trolleys, and children run out from the school-house and give "a great big one" to a favorite conductor. Yet the September sun shines over all, and the haze lies blue in the hollows of the cliffs as it did in Aunt Apphia's day. A story steps along hand in hand with the picture of New England life—a mystery even, and some black shadows. The tale is told through the always unconvincing medium of a seven or eight-year-old child's recollections of events miraculously overheard, understood, and remembered by her. But it is a little story full of sweet hill breezes.

Mr. Hornung's new book is in his most interesting vein. Of course it has an Australian side. Of course it deals with mysteries and misdemeanors, and, equally of course, even the hardened novel-reader tingles with suspense and wonder over the issue. We say it in no spirit of detraction—sometimes Mr. Hornung's solutions are more mysterious than the mysteries, and this book is a case in point. Rather let us say that it is a feature of his originality. And if we cannot always follow his ways of making his characters happy, why should we? Let us simply give thanks for a clean, clever novel, which will not be put aside till the end is reached. It would be a crime worthy Mr. Hornung's own pen to tell the story here; but we may say that the heroine is wholly loveworthy, and that there is a chance to see how detective work is done by "the literary feller."

In 'A Downrenter's Son' Miss Hall has the advantage of a subject new to fiction, so far as we know. Does any one outside of Rensselaer County know what a Downrenter is, or an Uprenter? How many readers—not dwellers on the banks of the Hudson—know that in times so modern as 1846 something very like a small war was raging in New York State, arising from questions relating to the rights granted to the first patroon? Of the two parties to the quarrel, one held to the rights of the actual tenants to their land because they had occupied it for generations, the other acquiesced in the landlord's title and was willing to pay rent. Of the Downrenters there was a faction that not only would not pay, but would not let their neighbors pay, even in farm produce, and resorted to

violence in their fanaticism. Miss Hall's book gives a picture of this stormy time which is full of interest and significance. "The old Dutch ways and the new American life touch, but will not intermingle." Here is the keynote to the struggle and to old Jacob Hagen's character—the leading exponent of the difficulty. The story accompanying the bit of history is adequate and pleasing, with some good drawing of types eccentric but lifelike. The historic explanations stand rather baldly apart, suggesting as their source old sheepskin bindings and dusty pamphlets. This, however, is but a trifling imperfection in a little book good for old and young.

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*The Jewish Encyclopedia.* Volume II. Apocrypha-Benash. Funk & Wagnalls Co. 1902. Pp. xxii, 686.

The present volume of this encyclopædia calls for few words, our review of its predecessor applying generally to it. Certain characteristics have become more marked, and the book as a whole seems settling to a definite aim. Thus, the Biblical rubrics are dropping more and more into the background; quite certainly no one need seek light on Old Testament subjects here. On the other hand, post-Biblical and especially rabbinic matters are claiming more space. The Baruchs of the Bible have less than a column; the Baruch of Talmudic legend, of the apocalypses, and the apocryphon, has almost nine pages. If it were possible to carry this tendency to its legitimate conclusion and drop all Old Testament rubrics except in their rabbinic aspects, space would be saved, and the book would have a still more precise character. Again, the treatment of philosophy is most uncertain. Some articles are good; others are inadequate. That upon Averroes, for example, seems to be written in ignorance of the systematic concealment in popular writings which was approved and practised by the Arabic philosophers. That upon Bahya, and still more that upon Avicenna, are better; but the student of philosophy's sources will be elsewhere. It may, of course, be questioned why Averroes and Avicenna should have a place in a "record of the history, religion, literature, and customs of the Jewish people." There are some other rubrics, also, for which it is hard to find a reason except in the shadow of the mighty word Encyclopædia. It cannot have repaid Professor Jackson to put what he knows on 'Avesta' into less than two pages, nor, however high our esteem for the principal Avestan scholar in this country, can we get much satisfaction from such a presentment. On the other hand, the articles on folk-lore, manners, and customs, superstitions—Jewish life and thought on its ordinary levels—are eminently to the point, and promise to form a mass of information nowhere else so accessible. The same holds of the rabbinic and Talmudic articles generally; those on legal questions are often excellent.

Finally, it is evident that the backbone of this encyclopædia is to be Jewish biography and history from post-Biblical times. In that is the reason, and it is an excellent one, for its existence, for that it will be consulted, and of that much will be found here not to be found, except with long labor, in other books. Both for its notices of Jews by countries and towns, and for its still more valuable biographies, it will take a useful place as a book of reference. Of course, it could be better, more exact, fuller—it is certainly not in the same class with the English 'Dictionary of National Biography'; but yet for its purpose it stands alone.

In style and finish the articles are still very unequal, and, while there are brilliant exceptions, the scholarship as a whole would stand levelling up. If the editors can see to this; if they can concentrate their space and strength on some well-defined lines, *e. g.*, biography, literature (rabbinic and later), Jewish folk-lore, customs, and life in the broadest sense, they will accomplish a great and lasting work. For an encyclopædia of things Jewish there is room; there is none for an encyclopædia of things viewed from a Jewish standpoint.

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*Supplement to Burnet's History of My Own Time.* Edited by H. C. Foxcroft. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde.

This is a work of very considerable importance. Its materials have been drawn from Burnet's original memoirs, his autobiography, his letters to Admiral Herbert, and his private meditations. No part of the contents has hitherto been published, and there is enough to fill out a large octavo volume of more than five hundred pages. The Bishop of Sarum's activity is already well known, and few who are familiar with his age can have failed to form a strongly marked impression of his personality, but in this new autobiography we can see him more clearly than ever before. As Mr. Foxcroft says,

"it is singularly characteristic; and while the interest of the Memoirs is dependent on that of the History, to which they are an indispensable complement, this quaint and curious piece of self-revelation—unique, perhaps, in the case of a man high in ecclesiastical office and verging upon his threescore years and ten—should attract on its own merits the attention of the literary world."

By far the greater part of Mr. Foxcroft's volume consists of fragments of Burnet's original memoirs, which still remain. There was a first draught, a recension, a second recension, and then a good deal of doubtful editing. Burnet was a strong party man in days when party feeling involved bitter personal hatred, and everything he wrote was sure to be attacked. His posthumous works were assailed with the same acrimony which had been directed against the publications of his lifetime. Accordingly, the 'History' was garbled and the Autobiography was suppressed, although the latter was made to supply data for the official sketch of his life. The Bishop's family shrank from enmities and controversies, and made by no means the best use of their literary opportunities. Their remissness accounts largely for the retarded publication of the passages that are now brought forward by Mr. Foxcroft from the Harleian MSS. of the British Museum, and from the Burnet papers which the University of Oxford acquired in 1835. Some of the differences between the Memoirs and the 'History of My Own Time' as it was at last given to the world were pointed out by Ranke, but he did not prepare an exhaustive list of them. In Mr. Foxcroft's 'Supplement,' on the contrary, the task of placing the early draughts side by side with the 'History' is faithfully performed, with the result that many grave discrepancies are revealed. One of the most amusing is furnished by Burnet's successive accounts of Marlborough's disgrace:

"Originally," says Mr. Foxcroft, "this was ascribed to detected treachery, of which Burnet had been informed by William himself; next, Burnet concedes that a disaffected man may be unjustly aspersed by the interpretations of political go-betweens; finally, the charge is dismissed as quite unfounded, and the Churchill version of the affair is accepted without demur."

Naturally, the Bishop's reputation as a credible historian does not improve under this process of comparison. As for the Autobiography, it is too garrulous and self-satisfied to produce the impression that Burnet was endowed with true dignity or refinement. Though he professes not to be swayed by any thought of vanity, he is essentially self-centred and too frequently complacent. On finishing this *apologia* of the vigorous and pushful Scot, there is little ground for wonder that he should have been well hated. But he had the energy of his nation, and went through the world with pachydermatous enjoyment of his own success.

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*Thoughts from the Letters of Petrarch.* By J. Lohse. London: Dent; New York: Dutton.

The compiler, whose sex is effectively concealed by the succinct subscription, furnishes a new proof of the constantly growing interest in the Father of Humanism. To one who is familiar only with the 'Canzoniere' these brief extracts will suggest quite a different Petrarch from the one whom they have known. He was not only a singer, he was an inveterate moralizer as well. The fugacity of life and its opportunities, the imminence of death, the desirable but arduous nature of virtue, and the disappointing results of vice, are themes which appear to have had a sort of stylistic fascination for him. He was fond of the 'Tusculan Disputations,' of Seneca's moral treatises, and of Augustine's 'Confessions.' In them he found encouragement to weave into his letters many an uninspired reflection upon our mortal estate. On one occasion he frankly says: "Strange to say, I often feel a craving to write, without knowing to whom or on what subject." When in doubt he moralized.

Naturally, the editor of the volume in hand wished to have a large number of brief and quite self-explanatory passages. He found himself thrown necessarily to a great extent upon such quotable sentiments as the following: "The whole life of wise men ought to be a constant meditation on death." "How many do you think you can find who do not take anxious thought for the morrow?" "Delay is danger." "A deed cannot be undone by repentance." "How dear is life to all mortals, and at the same time how little count they take of it." It is clear that Petrarch was no epigrammatist, and that what little felicity his reflections may have had in Latin in the fourteenth century, most of them sound singularly dull in English at the opening of the twentieth. The real interest of the letters lies not in their author's highly conventional philosophy of life, but in the precious

hints which they furnish of his literary ambitions and those of his contemporaries. Moreover, as one gets better acquainted with Petrarch, it becomes apparent that his conduct belied the semi-monastic conception of life to which he pays so much respect.

Among the really genuine expressions of feeling which have been included in the present collection, none is nobler than the old scholar's reply to his friend Boccaccio, who was urging him to spare his declining strength: "Constant work and application are the life of my soul. When you see me less eager and longing for rest, you may be sure that I am soon to die. . . . You would like me to give up reading and writing; but, far from trying me, they are a pleasant recreation, and delight me after greater hardships—nay, they even make me forget these." "Nulla calamo," he concludes, "agilior est sarcina, nulla jucundior; voluptates aliæ fugiunt et mulcendo lædunt, calamus et in manus sumptus mulcet et depositus delectat, ac prodest non domino suo tantum sed aliis multis sæpe etiam absentibus, nonnunquam et posteris post annorum millorum."

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*The Theory of Optics.* By Paul Drude. Translated from the German by C. Riborg Mann and Robert A. Millikan. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xxi, 546.

This is a thoroughly modern text-book, not handbook, of its subject. The fact that it carries a preface by Professor Michelson is a sufficient assurance of its scientific character. As any really to-day's treatise on any branch of general physics must do, it supposes an elementary acquaintance with the calculus; and its pages bristle with equations which signify hard work for the reader and full compensation therefor. Descriptions of instruments and statements of experimental results are summary, not to say skeletal.

Still, the essentials are given. As a matter of course, optics is here treated as a branch of the theory of electricity. The work consists of four parts (which nobody can suspect a German professor of simply numbering consecutively) — the first, on geometrical optics; the second, on the phenomena of light treated in the general manner of Fresnel; the third, on the electrical theory and the optical characters of crystals, metals, etc.; the fourth, on radiation. The assignment of one principal part to radiation is a mark of modernity; and the distribution of space among the four parts is significant. Taking the second part, which is a trifle under 150 pages, as a standard of comparison, the geometrical part is three-fourths as long, the electrical part is half as long again as the second, the discussion of radiation one-third of the same unit. The book is not at all overloaded, like so many German books; nor is there any undue partiality to any particular topic. The matter is judiciously selected, and contains nothing more than ought to be familiar to everybody whose business or amusement it is to be acquainted with the theory of optics. The fault, if there be any, is rather in the omission of interesting topics. The student will derive from it all the pleasure that there is in the sense that one's thoughts are guided by a master-mind.

*As Seen from the Ranks.* By Charles E. Benton. Putnams.

Sober narratives of our civil war confined to personal experience are always welcome. Such a one is that named above. The author, a minor, enlisted October, 1862, in Company A, One Hundred and Fiftieth New York Volunteers, and was assigned to the regimental band. In that humble capacity he served until the close of the war, nearly three years later. The regiment guarded Baltimore, took part in Gettysburg, camped on the Rapidan, marched and fought from Chattanooga to Atlanta, Savannah, and Bentonville, and participated in the Grand Review. It was a wide experience for a home-keeping youth. As usual with bandsmen then, he was detailed for duty in the field hospitals when battles were in progress, and he became most humanly interested in the care of the wounded. The little sketch-book records without gasconade the particulars of a soldier's life. It notes without exaggeration the appearance of a fought-over field, the details of an extemporized hospital maintained without premeditation for months, the incidents of life in camp and on the march, the sensation of being under unaccustomed fire, and the indifference to it that is bred of familiarity, the aspects of foraging in Georgia and of building corduroy roads in the Carolinas. The author rarely goes beyond what he has seen; and, with reserve unusual in the irresponsible, expresses few opinions upon generalship, although it is true that he does not approve of McClellan's course after Antietam nor of Meade's at Falling Waters. The only recital not familiar to survivors of the war is, within our reading, so exceptional that, while suspecting it based on misinformation, we quote it entire for authoritative denial or confirmation. On the march from Savannah to Raleigh, Mr. Benton found, among "oases of plantations" in the cypress swamps, one that "had been devoted—so the overseer told us—to raising slave children for market. There were nearly 300 slave women and a dozen or two slave men about the place" (p. 256). A few minor errors catch the eye: A corporal of the guard, not the color sergeant, lowers the flag at retreat (p. 6); Littletown, Pa., should be Littlestown (p. 61); "Jeb" Stuart of cavalry renown was not a member of the Steuart family of Baltimore, whose estate sheltered the hospital first known as the Steuart's Mansion, but later as the Jarvis (p. 12); and the South did not have more West Pointers than the Government (p. 41), but it made better use of those it had. Mr. Benton's reminiscences revive in a most amiable way what the war meant to the rank and file, and teach later generations that its glories had shadows as well as lights, but that those who sustained the Government by arms did so cheerfully and with intelligence, regardless of the hardships of the way.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Book of Old English Ballads. With an accompaniment of decorative drawings by George Wharton Edwards and an introduction by Hamilton W. Mabie. Macmillan. $1.25.
Aldrich, T. B. A Sea Turn and Other Matters. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Allen, E. T. The Western Hemlock. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Bates, Katharine L., and Coman, Katharine. English History Told by English Poets. Macmillan. 80c.
Bell, R. H. The Worth of Words. With an introduction by W. C. Cooper. Grafton Press.
Bémont, Charles, and Monod, G. Medieval Europe, from 395 to 1270. (Translated by Mary Sloan; revised by G. B. Adams. H. Holt & Co. $1.60.
Berenson, Bernhard. The Study and Criticism of Italian Art. Second Series. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 10s. 6d.
Besant, Walter, and Mitton, G. E. (1) Westminster. (2) The Strand District. (3) Chelsea. [The Fascination of London Series.] London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 82 cents each.
Blake, Bass. A Lady's Honor: A Chronicle of Events in the Time of Marlborough. (Town and Country Library.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Blessing-Eyster, Nellie. A Chinese Quaker. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Blos, Wilhelm. Denkwürdigkeiten des Generals Franz Sigel, aus den Jahren 1848 und 1849. Mannheim: J. Bensheimer. 1m. 80pf.
Bolen, G. L. The Plain Facts as to the Trusts and the Tariff. Macmillan.
Bolton, C. K. Letters of Hugh Earl Percy from Boston and New York, 1774-1776. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $4.
Brady, C. T. In the Wasp's Nest. Scribners. $1.50.
Briggs, C. A. The Incarnation of the Lord: A Series of Sermons. Scribners.
Bunker, Alonzo. Soo Thah. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.
Burnham, Clara L. The Right Princess. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Byrne, Mary A. The Little Woman in the Spout. The Saalfield Pub. Co. 60c.
Calkins, F. W. Two Wilderness Voyages. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Carling, J. R. The Shadow of the Czar. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Cartwright, Julia. Jean François Millet: His Life and Letters. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Chambers, R. W. The Maid-at-Arms. Harpers. $1.50.
Charles, R. H. The Book of Jubilees, or the Little Genesis. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $5.25.
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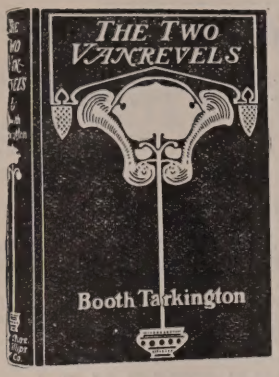


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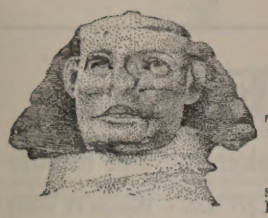

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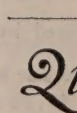

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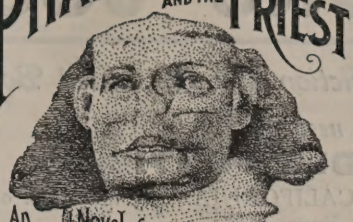
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 9, 1902.*

## The Week.

Whether the entire National Guard of Pennsylvania will be equal to the duty of covering the territory to which it is assigned, is open to question. Its highest officers have had long periods of strike duty at almost regular intervals of two years, but no foreign government, it is safe to say, would rest content with sending a force of this size, however experienced, into so turbulent and lawless a region. The problem, it must be remembered, is not a military one, but purely a matter of police duty of a peculiarly trying kind. It is not merely one of protecting millions of dollars' worth of valuable property, or of overawing strikers of eighteen or nineteen different nationalities, but of protecting men on their way to and from the collieries, and of safeguarding their families. The attitude of the strike leaders will naturally count for much in this matter. In view of Mitchell's repeated assurances at the beginning of the strike that there must be no violence, because violence would ruin the miners' cause, and his promises to discipline any offending local unions, it is distinctly his duty to give more time to denouncing criminal strikers and less to "advising" miners how to reply in mass-meetings to the charges of the operators. We do not think the President's proffer of a commission of inquiry calculated to enforce this duty.

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If, aside from the doctrine of protection, the Republican party is to blame for the coal strike, its responsibility arose two years ago when Senator Hanna meddled with the strike then going on in the anthracite region. That strike was engineered by Mitchell also. He timed it for the Presidential campaign—wisely, as it turned out, for when the Republican prospects became somewhat overcast by the discontent of the wage-workers, Mr. Hanna came to New York and persuaded Mr. Morgan to make the concession of a 10 per cent. advance in wages as a political move. This may have been a just concession, but since the object of making it was political, it led Mitchell and the United Mine Workers to believe that they could get another advance in the same way. The charge that the Republican party is responsible for the present coal shortage has just this foundation, no more. The strike might have come even if Mr. Hanna had not put his oar into the troubled waters in 1900, but his movement at that time made a new strike almost certain.

Cable advices from England report large orders for coal to be shipped to America, and corresponding engagements for freight room to convey it hither. The announcement is made also that the new steamship combine has ordered 50,000 tons to be brought from England for New York, and perhaps also for Boston. Orders have been sent to Canada for all the coal in sight. In short, we are in the world's market as a buyer of coal, and if we have time we can get a sufficient supply by paying enough for it. Our demand in foreign countries will put up the price in those markets, and make the conditions of living somewhat harder there. But this is only reversing the condition that exists when Europe has a short crop of wheat, and bids up the price of the poor man's flour in our market. One of the London newspapers suggests that the Government might, in an extreme case, prohibit the exportation of coal. The Government could not do so without an act of Parliament, and it is difficult to see how Parliament could prohibit exportation after putting a tax on exported coal for the benefit of the Imperial treasury. The coal owners would have something to say about that.

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There is one thing that we can do to cheapen the price of fuel, and that is to repeal the duty on coal. This tax is sixty-seven cents per ton, and it applies to anthracite as well as bituminous. Under all tariffs prior to 1897, anthracite had been on the free list, but a change was made in a rather shamefaced way in the Dingley bill, by which anthracite was made dutiable. The phraseology of the McKinley tariff included in the dutiable list only bituminous coal and shale and culm, but the Dingley measure added the words "and all coals containing less than 92 per cent. of fixed carbon." There is no foreign anthracite which contains as much as 92 per cent. of fixed carbon. Thus anthracite became dutiable for the first time in our history. This change was made, not because anthracite was imported to any perceptible extent, but because anthracite mines existed near Banff, on the Canadian Pacific Railway, and it was possible that the product might find a market in the United States. In order to be prepared for an emergency, a duty of sixty-seven cents per ton was clapped on the article in this underhand way. Well, the emergency has now come. Anthracite from Wales is now on shipboard coming to the United States, and it is reported that a contract has been made for Canadian anthracite also. When it arrives, this blessed Government, which is trying in all ways to get rid of its surplus revenue, will demand sixty-seven cents for each ton admitted to our ports, and the classes who can least afford it will have to pay the tax.

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A convention cannot rise above its source. Ex-Gov. Hill was in full control of the Democratic Convention at Saratoga last week, and his characteristic talent for intrigue, for low cunning, for shifts and turns, together with his inveterate inability to measure or to satisfy the best opinion of his party or the public, was stamped upon all the proceedings. It was all very well to drop Bryanism in silence, but what is to take its place? Tammany played a humble rôle in the Convention. That was in grateful contrast to the Croker domination of two years ago, but what assurance have we that there is any real change of heart? The one great guarantee of a new purpose and honorable methods is lacking—the nomination for Governor of a man whose name should be a synonym for courage and character, intelligence and resolute will. How far Mr. Coler falls short of meriting that description, we have been compelled to point out from time to time, and there is no magic in a nomination for high office to make us read a man's nature and record differently after he has received it. With many others, we had bright hopes of Mr. Coler when he first came to public notice as Comptroller of this city, blocking the path of the indecent Ramapo plotters. But Mr. Coler himself was the one to disabuse the minds of the clear-sighted of the notion that he might be of the stuff of which true reformers are made. In the first place, he immediately developed a most unpleasing eagerness for political reward. He angled for nominations as Mayor, either by Tammany or against, he cared not which, and wondered at the fastidious people who thought it made any difference which; or as Governor, whether by or against a boss, it was all one to him. He has long been, in short, that most undesirable of candidates—the uncommonly anxious one. Mr. Coler, moreover, has shown such instability of judgment and so feeble a personal grasp on either principles or the practical duties of a public servant, that he can arouse no hope of new life for his party. No one, except those who love to be deceived, could imagine him in office anything but a tool of Hill's.

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The Saratoga platform is a sort of catch-all, but is, on the whole, a much better document than the one which the Republicans adopted at the same place the week before. The demand for the nationalization of the anthracite coal mines is too glaringly a campaign dodge to be taken seriously. It is a kind of

freak plank, of which we shall hear no more (except reproach of its authors) when the strike is over. On the subject of the State canals, the Democrats are far more satisfactory than the Republicans. They are explicit and progressive, where the latter were halting and evasive and meaningless. What is said about the need of instant tariff revision to relieve industry and to right injustice is admirable; and the denunciation of a colonial policy, with a demand for generous treatment of Cuba, has a good ring. These deliverances on national politics are sound doctrine, and should be embodied in law; but that is no reason at all for thinking that anything but harm can come to the affairs of this State from putting them again in the hands of David B. Hill, by means of his proxy, Mr. Coler.

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The Democrats of Rhode Island did at least two good things in their State Convention last week. The first was that they utterly ignored Bryan and Bryanism and confined themselves mainly to State issues. Rhode Island is a small State, and the Democratic party there cuts a small figure in the national organization, but every convention that casts its clod on Mr. Bryan's coffin does its part towards rehabilitating and strengthening the Democratic party. The Convention also defeated the ambition of John J. Fitzgerald of Pawtucket, who wished to run for Governor. The significance of this act lies in the fact that Mr. Fitzgerald is in his small way as thorough a demagogue as Bryan. Mr. Fitzgerald was Mayor of Pawtucket during the street-car strike in that city a few months ago. In his endeavor to curry favor with the labor vote, he abjectly surrendered to the strikers and allowed them to run riot through the city. Through his incompetence and cowardice he won the contempt of all the decent and law-abiding citizens of his State. He looked for his reward this autumn, but the gang of his backers was unable to force him upon the Convention. He retires, therefore, not only despised, but defeated.

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They teach logic in the colleges of Massachusetts, but little of it got into the tariff plank of the Massachusetts Republican platform. This recites that "the high wages and constant employment" of the past five years are "due" to the Dingley tariff; but then it immediately proceeds to assert that "the habit of charging to the tariff whatever evils, real or imagined, afflict the country, has become an evil of itself"! Why so, any more than charging blessings to it? Do the Republicans of Massachusetts suppose that Americans are so simple as to believe that every good they enjoy is due to a protective tariff, but that all the concomitant evils are due to the Democrats, or an unkind fate or mysterious Providence, working through obscure "social and industrial causes"? No, the tariff is either all or nothing. Treated as a fetish by the Republicans themselves, it will be so treated by the people —that is, it will have flowers flung on it and rice spread out before it in prosperous times, but will be knocked about and have nails driven into it when the evil days come. If this is, as the Massachusetts Republicans lament, itself an evil, they are primarily responsible for it. They have sedulously cultivated the idea that tariff laws create prosperity and content, and it is not for them to dodge when discontent rises angrily to ask why they do not make a tariff to cure it. Certainly one would search far before finding grosser inconsistency than their tariff plank, said to be the product of the pen of H. C. Lodge, LL.D.

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The notion that Speaker Henderson's withdrawal was due to mere petulance is much weakened by the letter of acceptance of the candidate who has been nominated in his stead. Judge Birdsall takes his stand squarely on the Iowa platform and with Gov. Cummins and the more progressive element among the Iowa Republicans. The idea that some man who held the same views as Speaker Henderson might be nominated and elected, in spite of the abrupt action of the latter, evidently was not shared to any extent in the district affected. The determination of Gov. Cummins and his associates to force the fighting for tariff revision is again exhibited by this nomination, followed by the plain speaking of the letter of acceptance. Speaker Henderson is thus required to support a candidate who adheres to the views on the tariff issue which he regards as utterly obnoxious, or else to take the responsibility of contributing to the election of ex-Gov. Boies, the Democratic nominee. Evidently the "Iowa idea" will not down, in Iowa at any rate. The nomination of Mr. Foss, at one time doubtful, but now confirmed by the recount, who made his contest in the Eleventh Massachusetts District on the platform of free hides, free coal, and free iron, indicates, moreover, that it will not down in other parts of the country.

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Why are Crumpacker, Grosvenor, Chandler *et al.* silent over the political ostracism of colored citizens by Republican organizations in the Southern States? When the Democrats in that section were framing election turnstiles that would bar illiterate negroes while admitting ignorant whites, no political penalty was deemed too severe by the Northern champions of negro rights; but when white Republicans in Alabama and North Carolina are denying representation in party conventions to the saving remnant of the colored vote—the educated and property-owning negro electorate, which not even Democratic malice and ingenuity could disfranchise —not a protest is raised by the Republicans of the North. Their silence needs explanation. They have not the selfish motive of their brethren of the South, who are substituting a white Republican organization for the lost negro vote as a basis for Federal patronage; and the only logical conclusion is that they have jettisoned the negro vote in their pursuit of the *ignis fatuus* of a white man's party in the South. To find a Republican virtue in a Democratic sin is evidently no wrench to a certain kind of political conscience.

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Secretary Shaw has been getting into deeper water from day to day since he made the decision that the banks need not keep any reserve against Government deposits. Several explanations of his true meaning have been put out unofficially, and each one seems to have been misinterpreted. People tried to reconcile the ruling with the law as they read it in the statute-book, and as it was impossible to do so, they became mystified. A rumor gained ground that the Comptroller of the Currency did not agree with the Secretary's ruling, and that he would enforce the law as it stood. Stocks fell two or three points when this divergence of views was announced. So the Secretary made a fresh explanation in a circular dated October 4, to which he affixed his signature. The substance of it is, that while the law requires the national banks to maintain a fixed percentage of reserve against all deposits, it leaves both the Comptroller and the Secretary a discretion as to enforcing the penalty for violating it. The law says that when the bank fails to maintain the reserve the Comptroller *may* notify it to make good such reserve, and that if it fails to do so within thirty days the Comptroller *may*, with the concurrence of the Secretary of the Treasury, appoint a receiver, etc. After reciting these terms of the law, the circular says:

> "You are therefore notified that the rule will not be enforced, so far as it relates to Government deposits secured by Government bonds."

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The Comptroller prudently refrains from issuing any circular on his own part, but intimates, through the newspapers, that he may continue to send the banks the usual notices when their reserve is less than the required percentage of their total deposits. This course would certainly be prudent, since the sending of such notices does not commit him to any forward movement, while it does protect his rear. The main question, however, is, what effect these notices are likely to have on

the banks. The whole purpose of the new ruling was to open the way for an expansion of loans. This motive, sufficiently obvious in itself, was rather loudly proclaimed in the dispatches from Washington on September 30. It was then said that the new ruling would make possible an expansion of loans and discounts to the amount of $130,000,000. The banks of New York, however, have not availed themselves of the opportunity to expand their loans. The Clearing-house returns of last Saturday are presented in the old way. The reserve is computed on the basis of all the deposits, public and private and a surplus, although not a large one, is shown. Perhaps the depositary banks, realizing that life is short, and the tenure of office uncertain, and the state of public opinion shifting, would not like to have notices from the Comptroller's office piling up against them every thirty days, even though assured by the Secretary that such notices mean nothing. But in point of fact they do mean something, as may at any time appear.

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The Government's revenue from customs taxes, during August, not only was $5,000,000 greater than the year before, but was much the largest of any month in the country's history. September's customs revenue, complete returns for which are now at hand, is substantially the same as that of August. Both returns show the effect of our enormous merchandise imports, which, in the two past months, have exceeded all precedent. The September customs return also explains the continued Treasury surplus, and the recent resulting drain on the money market. Last April's internal-tax reduction law was expected to strike $72,500,000 from the annual revenue—an average cut of something over $6,000,000 monthly. In the three first months of the fiscal year, internal revenue has been diminished $13,800,000. This is much below the estimate, but it was sufficient, along with a $15,000,000 increase during the period's expenditure, to have caused a $6,000,000 deficit had customs receipts remained unchanged. But the customs revenue, since June, has been $15,000,000 greater than last year's; hence, of course, an enlarged surplus.

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It must be pointed out again, however, that this surplus revenue is comparatively small. It is true that the excess for September was $11,000,000; but the excess since July 1 has been only $9,000,000, and of that excess $7,400,000 has been deposited with the banks. These figures hardly indicate that the Treasury has been, as is commonly declared, "draining" the money market. What it has actually taken and locked up this season is a bagatelle in the huge cash reserve fund of New York. The real trouble has been that the West drew heavily for harvest needs—it took $10,000,000 net last month; that the settlement of our bankers' large foreign borrowings has prevented movement of gold from Europe; and that the banks, nevertheless, continued, until the rise in money startled them, to increase their loans *ad libitum*. The resultant crisis in the market may have been one which warranted special help from the Treasury; but the facts should be clearly understood.

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The details of the steamship combination, so far as the articles of incorporation go, have been made public. The companies joined together are the American and Red Star, the Atlantic Transport, the White Star, the Leyland, and the Dominion. The three last named are under the British flag, but at least one of them (the Leyland) is owned by Americans. They are brought together under a New Jersey charter and under the name of the International Mercantile Marine Company. This company has formed an agreement with the two large German companies (the Hamburg-American and the North German Lloyd) by which said German companies agree to contribute a portion of their dividends to the International, and the latter agrees to pay a fixed sum each year to the former. In other words, the International pays from its own funds to the German companies 6 per cent. per annum on at least 20,000,000 marks ($5,000,000) in any event. If the German companies do not earn dividends within the year, they pay nothing to the International, but they get $300,000 as an annual bonus or subsidy from the combine. This, we suppose, is paid to the German companies to prevent rate-cutting.

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The capitalization of the International is $120,000,000 stock and $75,000,000 in 4½ per cent. bonds, or $195,000,000 in all. One-half of the stock is classed as preferred, one-half as common. The preferred is entitled to a 6 per cent. cumulative dividend, as in the case of the Steel Corporation. If the business should prove less profitable than the promoters expect, and the dividends on the common should be put in jeopardy, a conversion of some part of the preferred into bonds at 4½ per cent., as in the case of the Steel Corporation, would be a natural consequence. What would be a fair valuation of the entire property nobody outside the combination (and probably few inside) knows. It is customary to say that property is worth what it would cost to replace it, but that would be an over-estimate in this case, since an old ship is not worth so much as a new one. Judging by the usual procedure in the promotion of Trusts, the capitalization is probably three or four times what it cost to build the ships. The overplus may represent syndicate profits or the company's estimate of its "good will." The statement has been given out verbally that none of the securities will be offered to the public, but that the owners of the constituent companies will take the whole. No instrument binding them to retain their holdings is shown among the papers. We infer, therefore, that if the public should show a strong desire to buy the securities, the present owners might be induced to part with a portion of them.

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The refusal of an American naval officer at Panama to allow a Colombian General to proceed over the railway to Colon sustains our *bouffe* method of fulfilling our treaty obligation to "guarantee Colombian sovereignty" on the Isthmus. Of course, it is the other clause of the treaty to which Admiral Casey points—the clause under which it is our right and duty to keep transit open. But the Colombians may be excused for complaining of the progressive applications which we have made of that part of the treaty. First, we would allow no fighting along the line of the railroad. Then we refused to permit troops, Government or insurrectionary, to take passage on the trains. This we afterwards modified so as to allow unarmed soldiers to be carried across, their rifles going by separate train. But now we have held that the presence of a single General in transit would precipitate a conflict, and so we have put a veto on his going. He might have complacently taken this action as a striking tribute to his personal prowess. Yet the strange man is reported to consider himself and his Government insulted.

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The funeral of Zola at Paris on Sunday is, of course, described in the press dispatches as an impressive ceremony, for it is always true that "man is a noble animal, splendid in ashes, and pompous in the grave." The impressiveness in this case, however, was not in the municipal guards that lined the route, in the company of infantry that added brilliance to the spectacle, or in the oration of M. Hermant, who, on behalf of the Societies of Authors and Dramatists, reviewed Zola's literary work. Such tributes might have been paid to almost any prominent man of letters. The impressive feature of Zola's funeral was the thousands of workingmen, many accompanied by their wives, who marched behind the coffin, and the passionate appeal to these people by Anatole France. M. France did not emphasize Zola's skill as a constructor of plots, a delineator of character, or a master of style. The achievement which the moment of Zola's death bulked large in the eyes of M. France and of his listeners, was that outburst of indignation which roused the country against injustice.

*DEUS EX MACHINA.*

That the coal strikers would lay down their arms on a personal appeal from the President, in a conference with him in the presence of the operators, no sane man could have expected. The very calling of the conference was proof that their premeditated weapon of general distress was doing its deadly work. Their being summoned as high contracting parties gratified their love of distinction and sense of power, while it confirmed them in the belief that Federal interference was not to be feared from President Roosevelt, notwithstanding his emphatic announcement that the existing situation must terminate at once. Moreover, on any supposable agreement that might be reached, the only pledge which they could carry out would be to declare the strike off. In fact, they brought with them only a specious offer to arbitrate the unarbitrable, which the operators rejected, not as operators but as men, defending the rights of man.

Regarded by itself, therefore, the conference was but another of the spectacular performances to which the President has accustomed us. He manifested his concern for the impending national calamity; he brought both sides together as no other intermediary could have done; he had nothing to say about the merits of the strike, still less about the philosophy of trade-unionism; he listened to offer and argument from either hand, and then the meeting dissolved back into its original unsubstantiality. If it had no design of furnishing public ground for taking the decisive step which should give quietus to Mitchell, as on a memorable occasion to Debs, it was worse than useless. It fostered hopes of success which must be disappointed if this country is to be saved from perdition. It intensified by delay the already prevailing suffering and anxiety of mind. It gave grounds for suspecting the same political paralysis at the White House as at the capitol of Pennsylvania; to which Mitchell's proposition to leave the choice of arbitrators to the President decidedly lent color. For it must not be forgotten that the President found himself in Washington, not as the careful watchman at the seat of government, but as the disabled party stump-orator—stumping virtually in his own behalf for a second term.

There was another disqualification, less obvious but not less positive, for his initiating a paper settlement. President Roosevelt is a protectionist—not more profound, not more original, than his predecessor. He was dealing with the perfect flower of protectionism in trade-unionism. For this reason, among others, he was predisposed to view the strike as a legal condition—in other words, to cheat himself with names. What he could not see before him was the rival President that Mitchell is, who says to the Constitutional President chosen by the suffrages of the whole people, whom he is bound to protect against rebellion and civil chaos, "Thus far, and no farther." There appeared but one right in the coal regions, the right to strike, and to terrorize, maim, and murder men ready to work in harmony with the operators and to supply the direst need of the country. Because this right has by tolerance and the decay of manhood become a vested one in the minds of most Americans, its essential destructiveness to our institutions has failed to penetrate the Presidential mind. Hence Mr. Roosevelt was not the man to illumine the situation and electrify the patriotic feeling of the country by the fitting word, calling a spade a spade, and to adopt the only measures demanded by the gravity and urgency of the crisis.

There is, connected with the foregoing, a subordinate deception or fallacy, which confounds the unthinking. What we may call the Strike Power, as of old (when times were better, albeit not so good) we spoke of the Slave Power, is assumed to rest upon the conferences of a body of freemen, whereas its constituency is recruited by press-gang methods and its policy dictated by absolute compulsion, not to speak of other methods known to those who rig conventions for ordinary party purposes. Its sole brake is the chance of failure. The size of the majority required for appearance of free will and deliberation is of no consequence. A majority of one might have precipitated the present pandemonium; and, what is equally to the purpose in the purview of White House conferences, the slightest grievance—the discharge of a single man or mule-boy—would, given a prospect of success, have been made the pretext for the renewal of the struggle for domination never to be allayed till there has been a moral awakening on the part of the American people. Mitchell would have gone with as much effrontery to the White House with a grievance that he could carry in a brown-paper parcel, as with one that required a Saratoga trunk. His cruel contemplation of the misery inflicted upon the remote innocent and helpless by his warfare would have been as steady in the one contingency as in the other. He rests secure in the forced allegiance of some, the deluded allegiance of others, the would-be emancipated thralls of Capital who

> "—— burst their manacles and wear the name
> Of Freedom graven on a heavier chain."

Much silly talk has been heard about the country having got along without anthracite coal in past ages—as if it could readjust itself to substitutes in forty-eight hours and in the bitter season of the year; as if it had not been sought to dragoon the soft-coal miners into line with the anthracite, with a narrow avoidance of that catastrophe. Every one knows that coal ranks with air and water in the life of modern civilization; and we ask, if Nature had concentrated the water supply in one particular tract of this part of the continent, and its custodians had, for a question of wages or other consideration, attempted by force to lock the gates and withhold the supply till their demands were satisfied, how long would the people have looked on complacently at the President and the Governor of the containing State making a football of responsibility for the continuance of the famine? Or we will make another supposition, that the anthracite coal deposits were in a Southern State, and mined by negroes organized in a trade-union, and that they undertook to play Mitchell's anarchistic game; does any one believe their leader would have been invited to confer with the President, or that we should not have heard one cry of "Lynch them!" and seen volunteers spring up on all sides?

We can as well revert to turnpikes and stage-coaches as dispense with coal, and coal is inseparable from the iron of our rails and from the traffic that is carried over the rails. Commerce to-day means nothing if coal be eliminated; they can no longer be thought of apart. The country has justified one courageous President in seeing to it, by prompt and efficacious interposition of Federal troops, that no conspiracy of strike and boycott against railroads should defeat the Constitutional provision for the protection of commerce. Nothing but a legal quibble can establish any difference in the situation created by Debs in 1894 and that initiated by Mitchell to-day. No trains, no commerce; no coal-mining, no commerce. The difference is in the occupant of the White House—in 1894, Cleveland, the civilian; to-day the most bellicose of the long line of Presidents.

President Roosevelt has followed up the abortive conference with a putting of the screws on Governor Stone that ought to have been applied before the President set out on his campaign tour against Trusts, no one of which has inflicted such material and moral damage on this country, so raised the price of a prime necessary of life, or excited such apprehensions regarding the very framework of our Government. Whether the Pennsylvania militia ordered out *en masse* will suffice to restore order and protect willing industry, remains to be seen. We do not ourselves believe that it was necessary to await Governor Stone's tardy and reluctant action, or the ultimate call which he may still have to make for Federal aid. His impotence during the past two months at least has been a trumpet-call. Were there no statute under which he might act, were there no construction of the Constitution broad enough for the emergency, the true saviour of society would still perform the deed. When an arbitrary clerk obstructed on roll-

call the organization of the House in the Twenty-sixth Congress, an ex-President, promoted to that body, offered a resolution to remove the unlawful obstacle. "But who will put the question?" inquired all; and John Quincy Adams responded, "I will put the question myself."

### *A NEW KIND OF TRUST.*

Prof. John B. Clark of Columbia University has been delivering lectures in several Western cities on the subject of Trusts, and he has detected in the mass a new microbe which seems capable of a large development. It consists of an alliance between the Trust and the labor union in particular trades, who join together to fleece the consumer and divide the proceeds between themselves. This kind of microbe has only just become visible, but an example of it is found in the glass industry. "Glass-blowers," says Professor Clark, "are scarce, and for lack of them many glass pots are idle. The public pays a high rate for its window-panes. The men and their employers have still an issue to settle with each other, for it has still to be determined how much of the tax which the public pays shall go to each of them; but in collecting the tax their interests are one, and the issue between the industry as a whole and the purchasing public takes precedence of that between masters and men within the industry."

This throws a new light on the vaunted efficacy of the tariff to raise the wages of the laborer. We create in the home market a monopoly in the production of an indispensable article, avowedly in order to benefit the wage-worker. Of course, somebody must pay the piper. The consumers, who are the whole people, must contribute to that end; but how is the wage-worker to get his share? The employer will not pay more for labor than the market rate if he can help himself. The laborer understands that perfectly. He does not expect anybody to pay more than he is compelled to. So he forms a trade union, and limits, as much as possible, the numbers who shall be admitted to it. He limits the number of apprentices, and he calls all who would like to work at that trade but who are not members of the union "scabs," and pelts them with brickbats when necessary. He boycotts all who buy non-union goods. The employer does not relish that kind of unionizing, because he does not like any monopoly but his own, yet if he can prevent competition among producers he will consent to make an alliance with his employees against the rest of the community; not very cheerfully, perhaps, but he will do it because he does not see any easier way to go on. By and by it becomes a compact between the two that they shall charge as much for their goods as the tariff will allow, and divide the proceeds. Then the political party that enacts the tariff claims great merit for having taxed nine-tenths of the community in order to raise the wages and profits of the small remainder.

The glass industry is an instance very much in point. The duty on common window glass of the smaller sizes is one and three-eighths cents per pound. It ranges from that figure to four and three-eighths cents for the largest sizes. The tariff act does not specify what is the equivalent ad-valorem rate, but since the rate in all unspecified articles is 45 per cent. ad valorem, we assume that the duty on common window glass is not less. If the glass-blowers have secured their rights under the tariff, if they have secured what the politicians said they intended to give them, they have got all that they are entitled to under the most generous interpretation of the doctrine of protection. We recall the fact that some years ago, when those who habitually "tinker with the tariff" procured the passage of a bill adding to the dutiable value of imported goods the cost of boxing, baling, and cartage of the same, the glass-blowers made a computation of the amount that this provision would add to the cost of foreign glass, and then struck for the whole amount as wages, and got it; and we think they were quite right in doing so. The men who tinkered the tariff in this way said that they did so to protect the American laborer, and it was no more than fair that the American laborer should take them at their word.

Evidently protection belongs not to the statics, but to the dynamics of political economy. It is not stationary. It is always on the move. Having exhausted everything that was conceivable under the tariff, it took the form of combination among producers. It is now about to take the labor unions into partnership, or rather the latter are forcing themselves in. Such union is not practicable in all cases, but it is so in trades requiring a high degree of skill. By preventing boys from learning particular trades, and putting up a wall against the immigrant laborer and imported goods, it is possible for the Trust and the labor union jointly to put up the prices of particular goods to the limit of the conscientious scruples of the joint producers. Professor Clark considers the danger serious, but not irremediable. Society may yet protect itself, he says, but "it will take the united effort of classes who have not yet worked together to remedy it." He refers, doubtless, to the consumer and the non-union worker. Eventually these classes will be compelled to organize for self-defence. The ranks of labor are going to be recruited as long as the world lasts. People will continue to be born, and they must find ways to earn a living. If the avenues of employment are monopolized by the new kind of Trust, by means of the boycott or otherwise, the classes thus injured must meet the issue systematically, and not at haphazard as now.

### *"ON PROTECTION LINES."*

Tariff revision thunders are crashing in all parts of the Republican sky. The National League of Republican Clubs meets in Chicago, only to find that tariff reduction and the relation of the tariff to Trusts are the burning questions of the hour. Republican orators and Congressional nominees in all parts of the country are forced to speak on this one topic. They deprecate, they quibble, they evade, but still they talk about it. In some cases they take a bold stand for amending the tariff; in others, they vehemently protest against laying an impious hand upon the sacred Republican ark of the covenant; but in all cases they confess that the question has burst full on the country again. The "closed" tariff is wide open once more. The "settled" protective policy is in a state of wild upheaval. Party leaders are quaking and wondering what will come next; but all of them can see that divisive forces are at work in the Republican ranks. That top-heavy protection which they thought was the very making of the party, now threatens to break it.

In these circumstances, a phrase is needed as a life-preserver in the whelming floods of popular agitation. Senator Lodge grasped for such a form of words in his speech at Boston the other day. Personally, he wants nothing done to the tariff, but said that if the people demand revision, he would waive his individual preferences and allow them to have their way. This was certainly magnanimous of him. He might have insisted stubbornly, and then the people would have had no remedy, except revolution. But Lodge is pure benevolence when it comes to letting the majority rule, and he graciously gave notice that he would not thwart the popular will. But on one point he was very firm, even stern. Any reduction of the tariff that might be made must be "on protection lines." He wanted that understood. Free hides for Massachusetts manufacturers could be had only on condition that the act of Congress making them free should be labelled in capital letters a protective act. If it was a question of making hides free in the name of free trade, why, you would first have to walk over the dead body of Henry Cabot Lodge. "Cut down duties, if you must," he said heroically to the American people, "but do not fail to call it an extension of the protective principle." The fact that protection has hitherto always meant marking duties up has nothing to do with the case.

Almost on the same day, Senator For-

aker was opening the Ohio campaign, and was using the same form of words. He, too, admitted that the tariff might have to be revised, but he also contended that the work must be done "on protection lines." The phrase bids fair to have frequent airings. It may take the place of that venerable joke, "the tariff revised by its friends." The latter has been too frequently defined by actual practice to be any longer eligible. We all know that revision of the tariff by its "friends" means simply a fresh distribution of favors and plunder among those who are lucky enough to write the tariff bill in its final form. The "Constitution between friends" is a feeble jest compared to the side-splitting farce of the tariff revised by its friends. Talk about loving a man for the enemies he has made! We hate the tariff for the friends it has made. But this proposal to revise the tariff "on protection lines" is a new and amusing invention, well worth inspecting with a view to finding out what the phrase really means.

Let it be understood at the outset that men who have tariff reduction at heart do not care two straws what it is called, provided the thing be done. If it will please or relieve protectionists to assert that steps towards free trade are really movements along the line of protection, free-traders will not be cruel enough to deny them that consolation. The protectionists may keep the name if they will give up the substance. We should have no objection whatever if a Republican Congress passed a bill to put on the free list hides, and iron, and coal, and wool (as Massachusetts Republican nominees for Congress are demanding), and to reduce or repeal the duties on steel and glass and other Trust-made articles (as the Iowa Republicans would like to see done), and then solemnly ticketed it the greatest measure of protection to American industry ever enacted. Give us the thing, and we care not for the label. Free wool may be described as carrying out the teachings of Horace Greeley; free iron and coal and hides may be declared to be exactly in line with the principles of Clay, and Carey, and Thompson, and "Pig-iron" Kelley; a sharp cut in the duties on manufactures of steel and of glass may be asserted to be conceived in the very spirit of the Morrill, and McKinley, and Dingley tariffs—all that does not matter. Have it your own way, gentlemen of the alarmed protectionist camp; apply to your hurts the balm of any misleading title you like. All we want is tariff reduction, and it will smell to us just as sweet by any of your fantastic names.

But we really suppose that we have to do, in this new phrase "on protection lines," with a Tale of a Tub. It is something thrown out by the frightened Republican navigators in the hope of diverting the whale that threatens to sink their craft. Who imagines that Lodge and Foraker really wish or hope to see the injustices of the tariff corrected, its monstrosities sheared away? At best they would be reluctant servants of the people, whipped to their task. If there is to be real revision, reductions that will mean something, readjustments that look to the good of the whole people, and not to the advantage of grasping cliques, the work will have to be done by men who can undertake it with untrammelled hands, under some such positive instructions from their constituents as are contained in the tariff plank of the New York Democrats. That declares, without shuffling or mumbling, that the tariff should be levied only for "public objects, never for private purposes," and should be "limited to the necessities of the Government economically administered." Compared with that straightforward declaration, the plea for tariff revision "on protection lines" sounds like the outcry of troubled placemen who fear that they will be driven from office for neglect of duty. Their whimpered protests that they will do the work the people want done, if only allowed to do it in a bungling and half-hearted way, really defeating the popular will if they can, must greatly help the party which is contesting the House on the platform that "immediate tariff revision is the supreme duty of Congress."

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### *A SOCIALIST EXPERIMENT.*

The London *Times* has been publishing a remarkable series of articles on municipal Socialism in England, with the intention of showing that municipal trading results in all manner of extravagance and demoralization. So marked is this bias that the temper recalls Sir Theodore Martin's observation of the Education Bill—"If free and compulsory education, why not free and compulsory bread and butter?" But no conservative prepossession vitiates the formidable statistics of municipal extravagance which have been presented, article by article. One might choose as characteristic the little city of Cardiff, which conducted various enterprises capitalized at £283,631 (viz., lighting, baths, markets, and cemetery) at a net loss, for the year ending March 31, 1901, of £3,576. But the dangers of municipal Socialism are best studied in the case of the great county borough of West Ham, a manufacturing suburb of London, which includes the Victoria docks, and has a population of more than 275,000.

As an outcome of the great dock strike of 1890, the Socialists came into a gradual control of the Town Council, which became complete at the elections of 1898. The majority of Socialists in the Council took its instructions from the party organization, which had required each of its Councillors to deposit his resignation, for presentation at any time, with the committee. The first move of the Socialist régime was to reëstablish a Works Department to do all borough work by "direct employment." From this time forth economy was thrown to the winds, and the Council set itself vigorously to supplying employment regardless of the cost, starting in with a £100,000 hospital. As a matter of course only union labor was employed, the eight-hour day was universally adopted, and the union scale of wages with a 20 per cent. increase became the borough scale. The shortening of the day meant that, in the case of the steam roller, for example, the city actually got about five hours of work after the time of firing up and of going and returning had been reckoned, while the carters of the stabling department reduced their trips from three to two a day, the department itself being run at an annual loss of £8,000 a year, as compared with contract prices.

Housing schemes were the next in order. The twenty-seven dwellings actually built were occupied largely by corporation employees who paid nominal rents, and, for one instance, got electric lighting at 6d. per week which cost the borough one shilling. The whole venture resulted in a loss on the investment of about £4 per house. Meanwhile the laziness of the employees became a scandal, and it was almost impossible to discipline them because they were protected by the unions. Instead, the Socialist members of the Council passed a law granting pensions to city laborers upon liberal terms and after short service, rejecting a scheme for pensions which required a stated contribution for a term of years from the beneficiaries. When it became difficult to pass the more extravagant measures, the Socialists changed the sittings of the Council to the evening, and debates involving the employment of labor were attended by enthusiastic audiences of employees, who clamorously expressed their desires and upon occasion were even admitted to the floor of the Council chamber.

Apparently it occurred to no one to inquire who was to pay the piper. The annual increase in expenditure grew to £30,000, as against £13,000 in pre-Socialist times, outstanding obligations and the public debt were largely increased, the rates rose from an average of less than 9s. in the pound to 10s. 6d., the proportion of this levied by the Borough Council rising from 2s. 7d. in 1890, to 4s. 8½d. in 1901. But all this expenditure meant more and easier employment, and it was assumed that the money coming out of the capitalist class was in the nature of a compulsory dole to labor. And as a matter of fact the ten thousand rate payers assessed at £20 and more were subject to excessive advances in their assessment, while the great manufacturing enterprises were mulcted for

an undue portion of the borough expenses.

But even spoliation of the capitalist class cannot go on indefinitely, and the Socialist Councillors soon found certain flaws in their financial theories. Rents, for example, were raised by 12½ to 20 per cent. The manufacturers refused to expand their plants proportionately with the expansion of their assessments, but concentrated their efforts upon their other works; the Great Eastern Locomotive Works actually considered abandoning its West Ham establishment. At last even labor began to look askance at a class of employees who worked only eight hours, doing about as much or as little as they pleased, and received 20 per cent. more than the union scale of wages. The glamour of the Socialist experiment was vanishing when the now reduced Socialist majority committed political suicide by advocating a bill for various public works which should expend not less than £2,596,000, including £1,675,000 for municipal dwellings for workmen. It was this proposal which carried a large majority of candidates of the Municipal Alliance—a defensive organization of taxpayers—into the Borough Council of 1901, and after three years made an end of the Socialist régime, which, however, leaves a characteristic legacy of £1,900,000 of prospective obligations.

The experience of the Borough of West Ham illustrates no extreme folly and certainly no especial depravity of Socialist theories. It was in the main an honest government, and it erred merely in supposing that the chief end of a municipality is not to transact all its business with the utmost efficiency and economy, but rather to furnish employment and "pleasurable conditions of life" to its citizens. The Socialist Councillors of West Ham also erred in supposing that in matters of taxation two and two make five. There is, we find, in this Socialist experiment no warning for a city corporation which will conduct such enterprises as lighting, heating, and local transportation upon business lines. There is a signal warning for that city government which professes a vague humanitarianism, and, as certain of our officials have recently done, puts the employment of union labor or the granting of the prevailing rate of wages before the immediate duty of good stewardship of all city interests.

## PERSONAL SOUVENIRS OF ZOLA.

NEW YORK, October 2, 1902.

Zola has often been charged with commercialism. I have always thought this an unfair accusation. Like Victor Hugo in letters and Bartholdi in art, who have been slurred in the same way, Zola felt that his literary labor should be adequately paid. I never heard him or saw him place money above art, but he did believe that art should produce money. He enjoyed embellishing his Paris and Médan homes, which were crowded, overcrowded indeed, with art objects that were not always artistic. He always needed money, and, during the past few years, was more than once financially embarrassed. But I could cite many examples that came under my observation of Émile Zola's total disregard of pounds, shillings, and pence. The tempting offers of various kinds that came to him from America and England, after his infamous trial had made him famous, were not considered for an instant—in which respect, by the way, he differed diametrically from another distinguished Dreyfusard. From beginning to end, he would not make a sou from the celebrated Affair, when he could easily have coined thousands of francs. This disinterestedness was carried so far that he not only refused compensation for the powerful broadsides delivered through the columns of the *Aurore*, but permitted the owner of that impecunious sheet to reap all the benefit of increased sales and simultaneous publication abroad. Nor were these profits insignificant.

Zola used to feel rather bitter towards America, but not wholly because he got none of our dollars. He once wrote me that he had long ago abandoned all hope of "doing business with the United States. For many years I have been promised returns from the other side of the Atlantic, but so far I have not seen even the tail of anything. The only thing that is perfectly clear is, that they rob me *là-bas—voilà tout.*" Nor was his dissatisfaction with America due simply to the pirated editions of his books. He told me on one occasion that tales of which he never wrote a line were foisted upon the American public as his, and, he added, "I fear and tremble lest my enemies here bring them out in French dress. This would indeed be adding insult to injury." So when, in recent years, two respectable New York publishers issued authorized editions of some of his novels, Zola was much pleased, but not so much on account of the money which came to him as because he felt that he was now in a dignified position in America. Consequently he was the more deeply wounded when, this past season, the proofs of his forthcoming story were declined both in New York and in Philadelphia.

Zola was often even generous in money matters. I well remember the very delicate way in which he referred one day to a translator of one of his stories who had "collared" (Zola used the equivalent French slang word) two thousand francs which a too-confiding publisher had left with the translator for transmission to the novelist. "I know he needs the money more than I do," Zola remarked; "but if he is again selected to do the translating, I must ask that moneys intended for me be not sent via that *panier percé.*"

After returning from his exile in England, Zola was sorely in need of funds, and I judged that then was the opportune moment to reinvite him to prepare for a prominent periodical some essays which had been promised for a number of years. But, with the utter disregard for money which I ever found in him, he pleaded, as always, that he was too busy on the novel then under way. However—and this is the real reason I cite the incident—he was finally induced to yield, through curiosity to try a plan which I laid before him in most eloquent terms, namely, dictating to a stenographer. He thought that perhaps he might find here a relief from the mechanical drudgery of composition, but, I must confess, he was not very confident that such would be the case. And the result justified his mistrust. I appeared early one morning at Zola's house accompanied by an excellent stenographer, and found the author awaiting us in his study with several slips of paper in his hand covered with topical notes. I soon left the two men alone, and the next day the stenographer sent me the typewritten result of the morning's dictation. In the same post came a letter from Zola asking to see the copy, though, according to our original plan and in order not to consume more of the author's valuable time, he was willing to forego revision on the ground that, as the article was to appear in a foreign language, the literary style of the original was immaterial. But I, of course, hastened to comply with his request, and, two days later, the manuscript came back to me so black with corrections, additions, and erasures, that a clean copy had to be made before it could be sent to the translator. Zola never again tried dictating.

Let me offer another example of Zola's indefatigableness in giving a high polish to his literary work. I stood directly behind him when he spoke at Alphonse Daudet's grave, one cold winter's day in the Père Lachaise Cemetery. As he read from the manuscript, written in that bold, black chirography which reflected the energy and daring of the man, I read it too, following him line by line and page by page. When the account of the funeral appeared in the *Temps*, I remarked one or two notable differences between the printed and written speech which I had so carefully perused. I knew this could not be attributed to stenography, for the *Temps* was in press almost before we quitted the cemetery, and so had been given in advance a copy of the speech. I asked for an explanation which I had already divined, and this is what Zola wrote me: "Just before starting for Père Lachaise, I could not refrain from touching up my manuscript, which I had thrown off the night before."

At this moment the Dreyfus affair was only beginning, but Zola, as was his normal condition, was under a literary cloud, and engaged in that singular campaign of trying to force the French Academy to elect him to membership. At every vacancy he stood as a candidate, but the number of his supporters could be easily counted on the fingers of one hand. His prominence at the Daudet funeral created considerable comment. As the procession wound its long course from the Rue de l'Université across the whole of Paris to the distant cemetery, Zola, who, with uncovered head, marched directly behind Léon Daudet and Victor Hugo's grandson, received more than one discreet mark of sympathy. It was his first public appearance for many months, and he had been selected to deliver the funeral oration at the bier of the author of 'L'Immortel.' This was significant. In many literary circles it began to be said that opposition to him ought to cease. A day or two after the funeral, I heard an Academician say at the breakfast-table of another Academician: "If Zola were to be walking up the Avenue des Champs-Élysées some fine afternoon, just as the coachman of a superb victoria, with

a beautiful young lady sitting alone on the back seat, lost control of the horses, and if he were then and there to rush out into the street, seize the foaming steeds by the heads, and save the life of the fair damsel at the risk of his own, he would be the hero of Paris for a day, and would be admitted to the Academy without a dissenting voice." The historian of Napoleon who made this remark was then one of the very small band of Academicians who supported Zola. Not so many months afterwards, at the same breakfast-table, this same Academician pitched his idol to the ground in true Napoleonic fashion, because, during the interval, Zola had performed a much more dangerous and braver act than stopping a runaway team.

Zola has also been blamed as a seeker after notoriety. This idea was doubtless uppermost in the mind of the Academician who imagined the scene in the Champs-Élysées. Even some Dreyfusards have said that this was probably the predominant motive that prompted the celebrated arraignment, "J'accuse." When, a few years ago, Zola was knocked down by a cab in the Chaussée d'Antin, he described the accident so minutely to a reporter—as if he were preparing the episode as a page for a future novel—that some of his maligners declared they believed he had got himself run over on purpose to make a sensation. I must confess, however, that I never discovered, in my intercourse with Zola, any of these Barnum-like proclivities. As in the case of Castelar, but to a far, a very far, less extent, there was, perhaps, a touch of naïve vanity in Zola's mental make-up. But, as also with Castelar, there was a something, a sort of personal magnetism, in the man when you were in his presence that removed any appearance of conceit from what he said. Zola had a wonderful flow of language. He was never at a loss for a word. He spoke, as he wrote, with much volubility. So, when he related an incident of which he was the central figure, this turn of mind led him to make a complete picture out of a mere detail. But there was never anything of the Zeus about him as there was in the manner of Victor Hugo, whose cold posing became at times almost laughable.

Zola had a fine opportunity to display self-complacency, if it was in him, when he went back to France after the Dreyfus case. But he did nothing of the kind. Even those most prone to condemn his course in this affair had to admit that his conduct was exemplary in this particular. It was even difficult to get him to receive in public the splendid gold medal struck in his honor and paid for by subscriptions sent in from all parts of the world; and when the ceremony occurred in the contracted editorial rooms of the *Siècle* office, Zola's bearing and language in his little speech of thanks were in the very best of taste. And the plot of the novel which is now appearing serially in a Paris daily, and which will be the last production of this prolific pen, is, though based on the Dreyfus tragedy, presented with such tact and skill that the lamentable Affair which divided all France into two hostile camps, is wholly lost sight of in the interest awakened by the story itself.

THEODORE STANTON.

## ECCLESIASTICISM IN IRELAND.

DUBLIN, September 12, 1902.

When the wars of the Reformation had spent themselves, the Protestant and Catholic peoples in Europe had for the most part come to occupy different districts, states, and countries. They naturally used the religious edifices within their reach, and, unless impelled by increase of population, had no need of new ones. It was different in Ireland. The government of the country had become Protestant. The old faith was proscribed, and the church fabrics were seized. As Protestants were generally in too small numbers to occupy or maintain them, they fell into decay; and at present there is not a district in the country where their ruins may not be seen or their ancient foundations traced. The abrogation of the penal laws one hundred and fifty years ago found the people for the most part worshipping in the open, in private houses, or in buildings of the most modest pretensions. So lately as the first half of the last century, Irish Catholic churches bore outwardly much the same appearance as Presbyterian or Quaker meeting-houses of the period; internally, they were little better than empty barns with clay floors. When the country had somewhat recovered from the famine, clearances, and emigrations of fifty years ago, when Catholicism had perfected its ancient organization and asserted its position, the process of replacing the simpler erections by artificially designed cut-stone churches was commenced, and has since been carried on with increasing vigor. Ireland is divided into thirty dioceses. It is the aim of each of these to possess a fine cathedral. Visitors to Queenstown, Killarney, Letterkenny, Thurles, Armagh, and other towns, may judge of what has already been accomplished in this latter respect. The churches in Wexford, the capital of a county whose population has been diminished by one-half, are samples of what has been accomplished in parochial architecture. The clergy formerly lived for the most part in lodgings, the higher ecclesiastics in houses no better than those occupied by middle-class merchants. Comfortable parochial residences or presbyteries, generally in close proximity to the church, and often the best houses in the parish, are now becoming the rule. The new palace of the Archbishop of Dublin is a specimen of a modern diocesan residence. Into parochial needs have been thrown but a portion of the building energies of Catholic Ireland. Conventual institutions, male and female, have spread, and are rapidly spreading, over the country. These are generally founded by purchased occupation of some one of the seats of absentee gentlemen or noblemen, which abound, especially near the larger towns. After a few years such are generally replaced by larger and more pretentious, solidly-built piles. The Cistercian monastery of Mount Melleray and Kenmare convent are examples.

That which must strike the outside observer is that all this has been considered necessary and accomplished while the population has been diminishing, whilst the masses of the people are still wretchedly housed, and whilst the supposed great political aim of the country is still unattained. The records of wills and proceedings in the probate courts reveal the large share of accumulated capital that is passing to ecclesiastical purposes. Too much of it comes from those connected with the drink trade, and this tends to such trade being leniently considered. The economic strain must be considerable, and one to which it is not likely a Protestant people in a similar stage of development would submit themselves. Upon the surface of Catholic society, there is apparent no murmur of objection to the costly requirements of ecclesiasticism. Each new claim for building or renovation, each new bazaar and collection, is hailed by the press as a work of necessity. We have seen more collected within a few weeks for the improvement of one church in Dublin than was contributed about the same period within six months by the whole of Ireland for political needs. In private interviews Catholics are beginning to be more open upon the subject. I lately asked: "Is this not merely a temporary phase to repair the necessary wants of your church after the misfortunes of the past? Will there not be surcease of this monetary drain when in all your parishes are erected new churches?" "By no means," was the rejoinder; "these demands appear to increase in proportion as they are met. As buildings are erected, there are endless claims for enlargement, renovation, and internal adornment." Another Catholic remarked, speaking of his first visit after many years to a town in which a cathedral had lately been erected at enormous cost: "It made me almost sick to see such a building so adorned internally that has arisen amidst the unchanged wretchedness of the abodes of the people."

It must be apparent that Ireland is heavily weighted in the attainment of material prosperity by the requirements of her religion; all the greater necessity that political stumbling-blocks should be removed. This, however, is no argument against her religion. If eternal happiness for the largest number is best attained by the requirements of her ecclesiastics being unstintedly met, worldly considerations are properly of no account. It is, however, well to realize facts, and, in reviewing the condition and prospects of Ireland, not to throw all the blame upon her political institutions. Even from a material point of view the expenditure is not all loss. The sight of these fine edifices—worshipping in them—cannot but increase the self-respect, cultivate the æsthetic feelings, and raise the tastes of the people. A large proportion of the conventual communities give themselves to education, the care of the poor, the nursing of the sick. At many, technical instruction is imparted, and weaving and others of the industrial arts are practised.

Catholic church government in Ireland is exclusively ecclesiastic. The most important educational functions in the country are being confided to ecclesiastics. Institutions of all kinds more and more come under their influence or direct care. Their doings and management are generally considered above criticism. The positions they occupy afford some of the best fields for the calling out and exercise of executive abilities. The most devoted and spiritual minds tend to be drawn to such service. Male and female, these ecclesiastics are vowed to celibacy. If there is any truth in the doctrines of heredity, the general relegation of such duties and responsibilities to celibates cannot in the long run but tend to lower the

commanding and executive faculties of the nation. No matter to what extent political power may tend to fall into Catholic hands, there is no fear that Protestants will not be able to hold their own in Ireland so long as the Catholic mind gives itself so much to ecclesiasticism.

Catholics alone have the right to judge as to the wisdom of their course. They cannot, however, object to outsiders holding and expressing their opinions. They cannot prevent it being remarked that such a degree of Church interference in the life of the nation is not considered desirable in other Catholic countries. It is unfortunate that such open criticism on these subjects as has yet appeared from Catholics has not been of a kind to carry much weight. A remarkable book has lately been published, 'The Ruin of Education in Ireland'—its ruin, as the writer believes, through ecclesiastical interference. The author is Frank Hugh O'Donnell, once a member of Parliament, a man of ability, but who has forfeited influence through almost invariably being found opposed to the methods and policy of those with whom he would be supposed to agree. A Mr. Michael J. F. McCarthy, who professes himself an ardent Catholic, has lately given to the world two volumes, 'Five Years in Ireland' and 'Priests and People in Ireland.' These have had wide circulation and immense vogue among Protestants.* This acceptance and vogue is discouraging to those who desire that Irish Protestants should hold a place and exercise their share of influence in the country. These books are written in a slipshod style and are embellished with illustrations that often have little relation to the text. They state much that is worthy the serious attention of Irishmen; but the author's thesis as to the degree to which he believes his country is being dwarfed by ecclesiasticism, is supported by such unfair lines of argument, and his estimate of the character and doings of the clergy and of the masses of the people is so ignorantly malevolent, that, in the minds of any whom it would be a real benefit to influence, disgust and amusement will be aroused rather than thought stimulated. His main incentive to authorship is stated to be the degree to which backwardness prevails in Ireland as compared with other Catholic as well as Protestant countries. This backwardness he attributes to the clergy. If undue ecclesiasticism is to be deplored, must it not strike most observers that it is the circumstances of Ireland that have brought this about—her powerlessness to mould her own institutions and deal with this ecclesiasticism if she so desire and as other Catholic nations have dealt with it? The British people, not seeing fit to trust the Irish people with the management of their own affairs, seek to manage them through boards and the delegation of power to individuals and associations. Many of these are ecclesiastical. The Catholic Church is the only institution in Ireland over which England has had no control. It is the one round which the pride and thoughts of the people have naturally centred, to whose service they have lavishly devoted their means and their best powers of mind. Some may consider it their misfortune, it certainly is not their fault, that they have not been encouraged more to divide their interests, and school and exercise their faculties in other lines of corporate and national responsibility.

The freedom now accorded to the development of Catholicism in Ireland, the refuge which dispossessed French and other communities are finding within her shores, has had considerable influence in reconciling the people to British rule. Strange, indeed, are the mutations time has worked in these respects. Some of the most valuable Irish MSS. and records were in the libraries of the Franciscans. To save these from the persecutions of the seventeenth century in Ireland, they were removed to Belgium. The doings of the French Revolution in the eighteenth century caused them to be brought to Rome. The secularization of the monasteries in Rome, after its occupation by the Italians in the nineteenth century, has led to their return to Ireland.

D. B.

*These books have been favorably received by a section of the English press, and have attracted attention on the Continent. The *Allgemeine Zeitung* is stated to have written of the first named: "One of those works which announce a revolution in public opinion, and a new epoch in the history of Ireland. There is no book in the English literature of to-day which has made such an immense sensation as this book."

# Correspondence.

## HAWTHORNE AND EVERETT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In my recently published Life of Hawthorne, writing of his anonymous early work, I gave a list of seven tales attributed to him by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, among which are "My Wife's Novel" from the 'Token' of 1832, and "The Modern Job" from the 'Token' of 1834. The first of these is included in the sixteenth volume of the autograph edition of Hawthorne's works. Dr. William Everett informs me that both tales were written by his honored father, Edward Everett. That a story of Edward Everett's should have wandered into an edition of Hawthorne is a striking illustration of the literary breeding and power of our elder Massachusetts statesmen, and also of the danger of attributing authorship by internal evidence. "The Modern Job," it may be added, is much more "Hawthornesque" than "My Wife's Novel." There are a few other tales included in late editions of Hawthorne for his authorship of which I could find no satisfactory proof.

Your obedient servant,

George E. Woodberry.

Beverly, Mass., September 30, 1902.

## ZOLA'S TENDERNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is not Zola's beautiful letter to Mme. Dreyfus, after the "pardon," enough to disprove the truth of your suggestion that his crusade for the prisoner "was conceived in hate—savage indignation at national wrongdoing, not compassion for Alfred Dreyfus"? To have penned that letter, by which, perhaps, future generations will measure the man himself, his nature must have had in it a deep well of tenderness, fully set flowing by the piteous tale, and making all the more intense his wrath against the wrongdoers.

At the close of the long and moving letter, he pictures her children, all unconscious of the fearful story:

"Some evening, under the familiar lamplight, in the heartfelt peace of his own fireside, the father will take them on his knees, and will tell them the whole tragic history. They must know it, that they may respect him, that they may adore him, as he deserves. . . . I could have wished that you had led them to that prison in Rennes, that they might for ever recall their father there in his utter heroism; that you had told them all he had suffered unjustly, what moral heroism was his, with what passionate tenderness they were to love him and make him forget the iniquity of men. Their little souls would have been steeled in a bath of manly virtue."

L. K.

## THE TREATMENT OF NATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As the thesis held up to ridicule by Prof. Kuno Francke in your issue of September 25 was undertaken at my suggestion and under my guidance, it is not my province to attempt to prove its merits. I wish, however, strongly to protest against the method of attack pursued by Professor Francke. A careful review may be as severe as possible without giving offence. But to send to a journal a letter in which a few superficial phrases do duty for carefully considered sentences (for Professor Francke merely quotes a few lines from the epitomes which the author introduces at the end of each discussion, without giving the least idea of the detailed work which leads up to them), is little short of outrageous. Any scholar with reputation in this fashion can throw the most unfavorable light on almost any publication whatever. Such procedure hardly implies a strong grasp of that "true scientific spirit" which Professor Francke so painfully misses in the dissertation under discussion.

In passing, I beg leave to call attention to a review of this treatise by Prof. Alfred Biese. Biese is the greatest authority on the treatment of nature in literature. His works on the subject ('Die Entwicklung des Naturgefühls bei den Griechen,' Kiel, 1882; 'Die Entwicklung des Naturgefühls bei den Römern,' Kiel, 1884; 'Die Entwicklung des Naturgefühls im Mittelalter und in der Neuzeit,' Leipzig, 1892) are classics in their way, and, ever since their appearance, have been regarded as basic in all discussions on the subject. In a review in the *Deutsche Litteraturzeitung* of July 12, 1902, he says:

"Eine recht fleissige und tüchtige Arbeit liegt in dieser Chicagoer Doktor-Dissertatation vor." . . . "Der Verfasser bekundet eine weite Belesenheit in der einschlägigen Litteratur, sowohl der wissenschaftlichen wie der in Betracht kommenden Dicht- und Prosawerke, auf die er seine Ausführungen stützt. Er geht sorgsam und methodisch vor." . . . "Man kann zweifeln, ob eine sachlich-chronologische Anordnung von vornherein nicht angemessner gewesen wäre als die Trennung von Dichtungen und Briefen (oft derselben Personen), jedenfalls aber wird man angesprochen von dem wissenschaftlichen Geist, der das Buch durchzieht, und von der Gründlichkeit, mit der (kleinere Versehen und Einwände abgerechnet) die Frage behandelt ist," etc.

I leave it to those who have read Biese's review and Professor Francke's letter, and who can appreciate Biese's position in the world of scholars, to decide whether the latter's calm discussion or Professor Francke's

extravaganza is more likely to reflect the truth.

CAMILLO VON KLENZE.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, October 3, 1902.

# Notes.

At last we have the long-desired Index to the 'Publishers' Trade-List Annual,' edited by A. H. Leypoldt and issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. It is a fairly handsome octavo volume of 1,104 pages, embracing in one alphabet the author's name; the first significant word of the book's title; and, where the latter includes a class designation (Cookery, Dante, Garden, Lexicon, Poetry, Recollections), this for a third set of rubrics, in bold-face letter. This arrangement will probably be found quite sufficient for working use of the Index. Each entry supplies price and publisher's name, and generally requires but a single line. The promptitude of the appearance of this invaluable key to the current 'Trade-List Annual' distinguishes it from the English Index to the corresponding 'Reference Catalogue to Current Literature.' Whether there will be a successor or an annual series will depend on the demand and the remuneration afforded.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will market a limited American edition of Robert Southey's 'Journal of a Tour in the Netherlands,' now first printed, though the tour followed close upon the battle of Waterloo. Prof. C. S. Sargent, having put the finishing touches to his 'Silva of North America,' will begin publication through the above firm of 'Trees and Shrubs,' a series of volumes covering the woody plants of the northern hemisphere that would flourish in the gardens of Europe and the United States. Mr. C. E. Faxon will be his draughtsman as heretofore.

Little, Brown & Co. will shortly publish 'American Literature in its Colonial and National Periods,' by Prof. Lorenzo Sears of Brown University.

'Pickett's Charge, and Other Poems,' by Fred Emerson Brooks, is announced by Forbes & Co., Boston, along with 'Myrtle and Oak,' by Sir Rennell Rod, and 'In Merry Mood,' by Nixon Waterman.

Prof. Angelo Heilprin's volume on Mt. Pelée in eruption will bear the title 'In the Heart of a Volcano,' and will have the imprint of J. B. Lippincott Co.

'Sport Indeed,' by Thomas Martindale, is in the press of George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia.

Further issues by Charles Scribner's Sons are 'Unknown Mexico,' by Carl Lumholtz; 'A Fighting Frigate, and Other Essays and Addresses,' by Henry Cabot Lodge; 'Literary Landmarks of Oxford,' by Laurence Hutton; 'Jethro Bacon, and The Weaker Sex,' by J. F. Stimson; and 'The American Merchant Marine,' 1660-1902, by Winthrop L. Marvin.

W. W. Canfield's 'Legends of the Iroquois' will soon be brought out by A. Wessels Co.

Additional announcements by Macmillan Co. are 'The New Empire,' by Brooks Adams; 'The Loyalists in the American Revolution,' by Claude H. Van Tyne; 'Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum,' by Isabel Lovell; and 'How to Sing,' by Lilli Lehmann.

From D. B. Updike's Merrymount Press we have a thin volume of real elegance in print and binding, 'Four Addresses by Henry Lee Higginson,' which Harvard men above all will prize, both for the text and for an early and a late portrait of this great benefactor of the University.

The character of Mr. Lionel Strachey's latest translation is sufficiently indicated in the long title, 'Memoirs of a Contemporary; Being Reminiscences by Ida Saint-Elme, Adventuress, of her Acquaintance with Certain Makers of French History, and of her Opinions concerning Them. From 1790 to 1815.' The book is well made by Doubleday, Page & Co., and fittingly illustrated by portraits from contemporary prints. Ida Saint-Elme was married at twelve, forsook her husband for Gen. Moreau, had a lifelong infatuation for Ney, which did not prevent a multitude of transitory relations with the great personages of the Napoleonic circle, from Bonaparte down. She followed the wars—Italy, Austria, Russia, Waterloo—often in men's costume. Her extraordinary story must probably be accepted with all reserves, as history. Of the dissipation and frivolity of the Directorate and Empire it gives an intimate and probably a veracious portraiture. Mme. Saint-Elme seems to have had the virtues of her class at least. She is good-natured towards everybody, writes with vivacity, which Mr. Strachey has caught in his version, and at times is happy in portraiture. Extremes of worthless gossip and of good sense meet in every chapter.

Max Müller's name is now affixed to Dr. George P. Upton's translation of his 'Memories: A Story of German Love' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), which first appeared in 1874. Even at that date the texture of this idyll seemed a century old to any Anglo-Saxon mind, but for the occasional quotation from a contemporary English poet. But part of its charm lay in this, as Blanche Ostertag has felt in designing her full-page illustrations and embellishments. These are quaintly in keeping with the sentiment of the simple narrative, and will support, if they do not justify, this new and pretty edition.

The general admiration for Bishop Whipple's character and humanitarian work doubtless justifies a reprint of his 'Lights and Shadows of a Long Episcopate' (Macmillan). This autobiography, undertaken against his own feeling on the urgency of some of his colleagues and many others, first appeared in 1899. Lengthy as it is, the style is plain and curt, giving facts rather than comments, and the record "most unconventional and incomplete"; yet the two chief traits of the man, decision and devotion, stand out on every page. Incidentally, some wise sayings of older divines are cited, as when a man professed belief in the Apostles' Creed, but was not sure he interpreted it exactly as his questioner did, and was answered: "The Church has not bidden you to accept Bishop Hobart's interpretation"; and when a young preacher, thinking he might "well feel flattered that so great a crowd came to hear" his sermon, was told: "No, for twice as many would have come to see you hanged."

Prof. J. Mark Baldwin's 'Fragments in Philosophy and Science' (Scribners) are some of them decidedly small, and with one exception (a paper on the psychology of religion) all of them reprinted from a variety of reviews and periodicals in which they appeared at dates ranging from 1887 to 1902. The contents of this volume are consequently very various, and, though they testify to the wide range of Professor Baldwin's interests, it is not easy to discover any central topic or doctrine round which they naturally group themselves. Nor does the preface yield any light; it contains only a notable suggestion (which, however, is hardly borne out by anything that follows), that æsthetic appreciation of the universe is the final form of the philosophic impulse, and a dubious use of the term Naturalism, as equivalent to the study of Nature, which one would hardly have expected from the editor of a dictionary of philosophical terminology. The articles themselves are reprinted with practically no alterations, and, as they are not infrequently polemical, the effect on the reader is somewhat disconcerting when he discovers, for instance, in the "postscript" to a vigorous criticism of Professor James's theory of emotion, that the author criticised has since written an article which entirely removed the whole ground for controversy, and that all this happened eight years ago. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that, while Professor Baldwin and his pupils may no doubt find this volume a convenience and be glad to have his minor writings in an accessible form, it is best regarded as a sort of appendix to the more systematic writings which he is producing at no mean rate.

'Walter Crane,' by Otto von Schleinitz, is the latest addition to the "Künstler Monographien" (Leipsic: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The book, like its fellows in this series, is fully illustrated, and its one hundred and forty illustrations give a very good idea of Mr. Crane's various activities as industrial designer, sculptor, mural painter, and book illustrator. Since he is generally known only in the latter capacity, the book is a real addition to our knowledge of his graceful art.

'Famous Paintings as Seen and Described by Famous Writers' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is another of the compilations which Miss Esther Singleton has put forth under similar titles, and, between its glittering covers, it has most of the faults of which such a compilation is capable. It reminds one of Dr. Johnson's leg of mutton, which was "as bad as bad could be; ill fed, ill killed, ill kept, and ill drest." The selections are poorly made, most of them being of the most gushing and frothy kind, and two of them not even dealing with the pictures which accompany them; those from foreign authors are badly translated and all are badly printed, errors typographical and other abounding; there are no references to the works from which the extracts are made, and only the vague indications "Paris" or "London" to show the whereabouts of the paintings discussed. There are, however, plenty of pretty pictures, and the book will serve its purpose, which is, evidently, to lie upon the parlor table.

A little book which ought to awaken much interest among lovers of poetry is 'Marie Eugenie delle Grazie als Dichterin und Denkerin,' by Bernhard Münz (Vienna: Braumüller). This gifted woman publish-

ed her first volume of poems when she was only seventeen years old—a volume which met with a very cordial reception, and which passed to a third edition; she is still of such an age that much good work may yet be expected from her pen. Moriz Benedict, writing on the subject of the drama in the *Deutsche Revue*, speaks of her 'Schlagende Wetter' as a work of Shaksperean penetration and mastery, and considers that so deep an insight into the nature of the tragic, and so vivid a presentation of it, is not too often to be found in the literature of the world. Delle Grazie is a leader in the school of the "ganz modern" in Germany, in *Weltanschauung* as well as in poetry; at the same time grace and charm are the marked characteristics of all that she writes—*Nomen est omen*, says her present biographer. More detailed criticism of this new poet may be found, among other places, in Volkelt's 'Aesthetik des Tragischen' (1897), Breitner-Rabenlechner's "Literaturbilder fin de siècle' (1898), and Leimbach's 'Die deutschen Dichter der Neuzeit und Gegenwart' (1899).

The magnificently illustrated edition of Dante, planned by the house of the Brothers Alinari, of Florence, under the editorship of Vittorio Alinari, is proving a disappointment to many. Only the "Inferno" has as yet appeared, in a folio volume of 140 pages, with 137 mostly full-page illustrations, at a very reasonable price. These illustrations are the prize contributions of thirty-one Italian artists, and differ vastly in artistic value. The work accordingly lacks unity of character, and for this and other reasons the German artist Ludwig Volkmann, in the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* (*Beilage* 184), declares the edition is really love's labor lost, and the ideal illustration of Dante still a thing of the future.

In the twenty-fourth annual report of the Providence Public Library, by Mr. W. E. Foster, special interest attaches to what is said of the collection known as the Industrial Library, of which large use is made in the evening, and which will certainly tend in time to increase the value of the industrial products of the city through the growing intelligence of the workmen. There are also seven collections of books for the foreign residents of the city, including Yiddish and Armenian. The whole number of volumes is nearly 100,000, of which 6,819 were added during the year. An indication of the prevailing trend of thought at the present time is to be found in the fact that the growth of the collection of books on Social and Political Science was greater than that of any other subject.

The *International Monthly*, with the change of a word and the assumption of a more dignified form, becomes the *International Quarterly*. With a considerable increase in bulk and the extension of its period, the present number betrays no change in policy. "Cicero: An Interview," by Professor Tyrrell of Dublin, is a thoroughly delightful apology for the great egotist, and perhaps the most striking article of the number. Space does not permit of further enumeration, but attention may be called to the prefixed biographical notes on the contributors, and to the apparently justifiable claim that "the change . . . to quarterly form broadens the scope of this journal, and increases its value and attractiveness."

The intimate relation of geography to history and religion is admirably shown in the article on Asia Minor by Prof. W. M. Ramsay in the *Geographical Journal* for September. The great central plateau, with its northern and southern mountain barriers, was a bridge across which practically all the traffic between the two continents of Europe and Asia for countless ages passed. Here, on this meeting-ground of great peoples, coinage was invented and trade was organized through caravans and bazaars. The Arab tried many times unsuccessfully to overcome the natural defence of the Taurus, and the Turk finally established himself only by the nomadization of the people, by the destruction of the bonds which held society together. In the same number of the *Journal* Dr. Sven Hedin sketches his three years' exploration in Central Asia, which has yielded results, to use his own words, "three times as rich as those of the former journey, and in the course of it I have been enabled to lift the veil which for a thousand years had hidden vast stretches of the mountainous and desert regions of the heart of Asia. My cartographical material extends to no less than 1,149 sheets," to construct a map from which "will require at least three years. . . . I took also over 2,000 photographs."

The principal contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number six, are an account of Martinique and a description of the physical formation of a region in Upper Austria. Information is given of the work of the Swedish Antarctic expedition from letters of Dr. O. Nordenskjöld, and there is a report of P. K. Koslow's explorations in Central Asia. The location, equipment, and work of the nearly fifty stations in Germany for observing earthquakes is the principal feature of number seven, which besides contains Dr. S. Hedin's summary of his work and an account of the distribution and amount of the annual rainfall in Bulgaria. Numerous facts and statistics, drawn mainly from Russian sources and the reports of the United States Weather Bureau, are given in number eight, confirmatory of a 35-year weather cycle, but not of a 55-year period. The veteran African traveller Dr. G. Schweinfurth contributes an appreciative notice of the English irrigation works on the Nile.

The Museum of Gizeh (henceforth to be called the Museum of Cairo, as these archæological treasures have recently been transferred from the Gizeh palace to the beautiful structure erected to receive them on the right bank of the Nile) is now issuing a comprehensive 'Catalogue des Antiquités Égyptiennes,' which will report on the complete contents of this collection. The fourth volume of the series has recently appeared, and others are to follow.

—An association of colleges and individuals interested in the movement by which women are entering upon the field of scientific activity, has found itself in a position to offer a second prize for the best piece of investigation carried out by a woman, although the first prize will not be definitely awarded until April, 1903. The amount of this prize, as of the former one, is $1,000; each thesis offered is to be accompanied by a sealed envelope enclosing the author's name and address, and superscribed with a title corresponding to the one borne by the manuscript, and applications are to be in the hands of the Chairman of the Committee, Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, Institute of Technology, Boston, before December 31, 1904. The theses presented will be examined and passed upon by some of the most distinguished scientists of the country—among them Professor Chittenden of Yale, Professor Howell of Johns Hopkins, Professor Michelson of Chicago, Professor Wilson of Columbia, Professor Webster of Clark, and the new President of Johns Hopkins, Professor Remsen. A promising number of theses is already in the hands of the Committee for the first prize, and the second will no doubt awaken equal interest among the women who are occupying themselves with the subjects covered. When one thinks of the immense inducement in the way of professorships, docentships, and travelling scholarships which are offered to young men to put their learning to use in original investigation, one may well be glad that young women are to have, for the moment, this modest spur to continued activity.

—One would hardly have suspected the "Easy Chair" of concealing a masked battery, but its military character is emphatically developed in the October *Harper's*. It is the present-day popular novelist, of course, upon whom its guns are trained. The novel of to-day is not merely worthless—not the patent nostrum which may not cure, but at least does not kill. Rather it is the drug which will dye the hair a beautiful color and leave a twitching palsy, or drive out the neuralgia and implant a potential insanity in its place. Our English friends, kindlier now towards American literature than ever before, cannot be too earnestly warned that our novels are almost wholly worthless, and utterly un-American in spirit. While they are turning to us for Democratic examples and incentives, we are occupying ourselves with feudalistic ideals and aristocratic prejudices. Is it not just possible that the reading public takes its historical novel less seriously than Mr. Howells seems to suppose? The enjoyment of an exciting story, with its lords and ladies, its unrealities and impossibilities, is hardly enough to prove that the reader is at heart enamored of the undemocratic and unnatural life therein portrayed. The historical novelist may be as crude and unreal and un-American as you please, but as a relief from the here and the now he may have a valuable function to perform, after all. Mary Stuart Boyd contributes to the same issue some extracts from private letters and conversations of Bret Harte, illustrating, among other things, his retention of his patriotism, notwithstanding his long residence in England. Dr. Ely gives a very favorable account of the body of religious communists living at Amana, Iowa, but doubts whether their organization can stand the tremendous disintegrating effect of American democracy, which is bearing in upon them more and more with the increase of surrounding population and the growing facility of communication with outsiders.

—Professor Wyckoff, in the October *Scribner's*, again insists upon the prosperity of Great Britain—a prosperity perhaps

never before equalled in her history, regardless of pessimistic utterances about her decline by persons who have an axe to grind. Though the United States has gained more rapidly, for some years past, the prosperity of Great Britain is real and is well attested by the most substantial proofs, such as the growth of the income-tax assessment, the Clearing-house reports, the paid-up capital of stock companies, the tonnage of shipping, the volume of business done in cotton, coal, and iron, the deposits of savings-banks, the capital of co-operative societies, the funds of trades-unions, etc. The most interesting part of Mr. Wyckoff's article, however, is his description of the overcrowding of the London poor, and of the successful, though limited, attempts at relief by such self-supporting institutions as the Rowton Houses and Guinness Houses. With the proof that healthful and comfortable lodging can be provided for laborers at sixpence per night, and other necessaries of life in proportion, with an annual dividend of 5 per cent. on the capital invested, it would seem that the work of amelioration must make rapid progress. Mr. Sturgis contributes a paper on the work of J. Q. A. Ward, whom he presents as the first of American sculptors in "constructional, expressional, and harmonized design in the placing and grouping of human figures." In the "Point of View" we have some very pertinent suggestions as to the danger which lurks in the growing habit of depending upon the gifts of men of great wealth for our city parks, fountains, libraries, and similar conveniences. A town or city may become a chronic beggar, just as an individual, and the moral deterioration which we admit to be the result of beggary in the unit, we must expect to find under similar conditions in the mass.

—Prof. Ira N. Hollis, in the *Atlantic*, effectively clears away some of the fog which interested parties have conjured up over the field of intercollegiate athletics. It does not stand to reason, he says, that a student participating in these sports can do as much work as one who devotes his whole time to study. The six weeks of the football season are practically thrown away, so far as class-room work is concerned. The members of the team may be obliged to attend lectures, but their minds are upon the signals and plays of the coming games. In answer to the question whether the athletes gain anything that compensates for this loss of time, Professor Hollis can only say that *many* do. He asserts roundly that winning is put above everything else at present, but hopes that this may prove a temporary evil, and that the games may finally be made to build up character, and teach patience, grit, and courage. Under present rules, he expresses serious doubt whether football ought to have any place on college grounds. He recognizes the tendency of intercollegiate games to confine athletic sport to the few, and considers it difficult to make out a clear case for them as a stimulus to outdoor sports. There can be no healthful condition without more competition in each individual college. Edward Atkinson contributes a vigorous defence of "commercialism," as against militarism, and denounces rather vigorously the assaults of the pulpit and the press upon the former. The reader may question, however, whether he is not fighting men of straw. It is not commerce itself that is denounced. No one of any consequence denies that the world's needs must be supplied in this way, or criticises the man whom he supposes to be trying honestly to supply these needs, and to reap a legitimate profit in the process. It is the greed which is unwilling to be bound down to honorable methods, which will create artificial means of extorting enormous profits, which sinks every other consideration in favor of the one desire for gain, that meets with denunciation. As this is not the commercialism which Mr. Atkinson defines and upholds, the issue does not seem to have been fairly joined. Harriet Waters Preston studies from an interesting point of view what she calls the great trilogy of George Meredith, 'One of Our Conquerors,' 'Lord Ormont and his Aminta,' and 'The Amazing Marriage.' The point is that in these three novels the author reveals himself as the gallant champion of what he regards as the sacred and inviolable rights of woman.

—The great 'Thesaurus Linguæ Latinæ' is making progress, though but slowly. Four parts of the first and three of the second volume have now reached this country, where each fascicle is received by the Latin scholar with the welcome that his English brother accords to a fresh section of the Oxford Dictionary. We wonder how many are profiting by the opportunity to secure this work at a comparatively slight expenditure while it is coming out in parts. The merest glance over one of them is enough to suggest how indispensable the whole will be, but a brief comparison between the fourth fascicle of the first volume (*adiunctor to Aegeus*) and the corresponding portion of the best Latin-English lexicon now in use will set the point beyond doubt. There are about 250 lemmata (omitting mere cross-references) in this part of Lewis and Short's work; in the Thesaurus there are about 450 (allowing for a few differences of arrangement). Of the two hundred additional lemmata in the latter, over a hundred are proper nouns, about thirty are drawn from the glossographers alone, and the remaining sixty or so come chiefly from such writers as Diomede, Firmicus, St. Jerome, Irenæus, Fulgentius, Cassiodorus, Boethius, and others of similar periods and character. We have observed only four newly booked words which are drawn from the authors more familiar to the classical student. These are *adolescere* (from *adolere*) occurring in the Georgics, in a passage cited in our Lexicon under the other *adolescere*; *adnarrare*, from Statius; *adunco*, from Paulus's epitome of Festus; and the doubtful *adversabilis*, used perhaps by Accius.

—But if anybody thinks that the gains are to be only or mainly in the field of late Latin, let him examine the treatment of some familiar word and he will soon find out how mistaken such a view would be. Take, for instance, *aedes;* in the Lexicon the treatment of it occupies eighty-two lines; in the Thesaurus, 724 lines. In the former its usage is illustrated quite insufficiently and from only fifteen authors. It is true that these are well chosen, but even such writers as Lucretius, Ovid, Tacitus, Martial, and the younger Pliny do not figure among them. In the Thesaurus the state of things is very different; it is not easy to think of an author who is not cited, from the first occurrence of the word in Livius Andronicus down to the latest times. The article begins with the usual brief etymological note, by Thalheim, in which he adopts the view of Georg Curtius (not approved by our Lexicon) that *aedes* originally meant 'hearth.' A rich collection of passages follows, illustrating the usage of the two forms of the nominative singular *aedes* or *aedis*, and the nominative plural *aedis*, with a warning against the confusion of *aedes* and *sedes*, so common in manuscripts. Then comes the main body of the article, divided into two chief parts. The first illustrates the meaning 'house,' 'room.' For the singular number in either sense only Curtius, Ammianus, and Paulus can be cited, the Plautine passage in our Lexicon being now taken as a nominative plural. Many examples are given of the plural in this sense, but there is no subhead to indicate that it may mean 'houses' as well as 'house,' though this may be gathered after considerable groping through solid lines of all too similar type. It is strange that Vitruvius 6, 5, 2, is not cited, for this is the only passage in which that author, who is extremely careful in distinguishing *templum* and *aedes*, employs the latter, either as singular or plural, of any but a sacred building, except in the phrase *cava aedium*. The first part of the article closes with the citation of a few passages from poetry in which the word is used of metaphorical houses, as, for example, of the dwellings of the dead. The second part, on *aedes* denoting a 'sacred building,' opens with an excellent note of some forty lines on the topic, with an explanation of the difference between *aedes* and *templum*, and remarks on the adjectives which are used with *aedes* in this sense. Both here and throughout the whole article, useful references are given to modern books, including even Wissowa's recent work on the Roman religion. This last reference shows how truly up to date the Thesaurus is.

—The English-German part of Schröer's Grieb's Dictionary (H. Frowde) has already been noticed by us. The German-English volume is now to hand. Its arrangement is on the ordinary German method, but the umlaut is not allowed to disturb the alphabetic vowel order. Pretence to "completeness" is expressly disavowed, and a reasonable fulness and freshness alone aimed at. In orthography, silent *h* in *th* is ignored, in accordance with recent changes towards simplification (as, *Rat* for *Rath*, *Not* for *Noth*, *atmen* for *athmen*), but it would have been useful to couple the old form with the new for the sake of foreigners reading in the old orthography. On the subject of phonetics, the editor envies the English their standard pronunciation, through the gradual supersession by London of provincial and dialectal peculiarities. Berlin, he declares, is now approaching the same domination, but its authority will long be disputed. Some hope of a provincial propaganda he sees in the movement to erect a uniform stage standard of pronunciation. Amid the prevailing differences, the pronunciation is generally left unmarked in this work, reference being made to an exposition of values in the preface. In the case of interlopers like *Interview*, indication becomes necessary. Here, as also with *interviewen* and *Interviewer*, the English pronunciation has been adopted; whereas with *Tramway* the *w* sound is replaced by *v*. Both this substantive and *Tram* form their plural in *s*; and compounds, *Trambahn*,

*Tramwagen*, have been readily formed. The Teutonic revolt against *Telephon* has produced *Fernsprecher*, with four associate terms, one of which, *Fernsprechanschluss* ('telephonic connection'), compares most unfavorably with the glib *Telephonleitung*, its synonym. There appears to be no verb *fernsprechen* to displace *telephonieren*, and no adjective to compete with *telephonisch*. The same poverty of development is observable in *Fernschreiber* as compared with *Telegraph*. We have *Fernschrift* only, and again no *fernschreiben*. This dictionary is a very desirable addition to the resources of English-speaking students.

THE MASTER-PAINTER OF HAARLEM.

*Frans Hals*. By Gerard S. Davies, M.A., of Charterhouse. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

Messrs. George Bell & Sons seem to have almost a monopoly of the publication of serious works, in English, on the fine arts, and it is therefore quite natural that from their house should come the latest important book, and, so far as we know, the only such in our language, on Frans Hals. To mention material things first, the volume measures about 11½ by 8¼ inches and contains 157 pages, besides 18 pages of preliminaries, and 55 illustrations, of which 12 are photogravure plates and the others well-executed half-tones. The half-tone plates, like the photogravures, are inserted, there being no text illustrations, and the heavily glazed paper necessary for their proper effect is confined strictly to this purpose, the text being handsomely printed by the Chiswick Press, on good stout paper with a slight rib. Besides a table of contents and a list of illustrations, there are an "approximate chronology of the chief known events of the life of Frans Hals," an "approximate chronological list of the most important pictures" of the artist, a bibliography, a list of works arranged according to the galleries in which they are hung, a list of pictures attributed to Hals which have appeared at the Burlington House exhibitions since 1871, a list of prices obtained at various sales in the last century and a half, and an index. These various lists and tables can hardly be without some errors and omissions (the two good pictures in the Metropolitan Museum, for instance, are not noticed), but they have evidently been compiled with care and are of great value. Finally, the book is well and simply bound in dull green buckram with vellum back, and lies flat when opened. In almost all particulars it is a model of how to do it.

After all this it may seem like saying a good deal to affirm that the text proper is as good as everything else, but it is not saying too much. Clear, careful, thoughtful, critical, and sound; intelligent in method, cautious in conjecture, incredulous of legend; hearty in admiration of its hero's qualities, yet clearly conscious of his limitations; above all, devoid of padding and of "eloquence"—this is as nearly exemplary writing on art as one often sees. The judicious reader will find himself almost always in accord with Mr. Davies's conclusions, and, if he is obliged to differ with him, will do so with great caution and with profound respect.

If we limit the meaning of the word strictly enough, there can be no doubt that Frans Hals of Haarlem was one of the greatest *painters* that ever lived. For sheer accuracy of vision and brilliancy of execution, he has had no superior, and perhaps no equal but Velazquez; yet his fame is singularly modern. He seems to have had a pretty high local reputation at one period of his career, but he died a pauper and was rapidly forgotten. In 1786 one of his pictures sold for five shillings, and, as late as 1852, the life-size, full-length portrait of himself and his wife, now in the Rijks Museum at Amsterdam, fetched no more than £50. Thirteen years afterward, "The Laughing Cavalier" was sold for £2,040, and in this present year a "Portrait of a Gentleman" has reached the sum of £3,780. What one of the great Doclen pictures, which in the eighteenth century were rolled up and stored in garret and cellar, would be worth to-day, if it came upon the market, it is difficult to guess. Of course it was the painters who rediscovered Hals. Reynolds seems to have owned one of his portraits, and Northcote, Reynolds's pupil, speaks of it in words that might have been written yesterday. About the middle of the nineteenth century Hals became a living influence among the painters, and upon his art and that of Velazquez the schools of Manet and Whistler, with their divers issues, were largely based. Then came Fromentin's "Maîtres d'Autrefois," and another painter, in some pages of brilliant writing, revealed to the world what his fellows already knew. The long eclipse of a reputation was over, and the name of Frans Hals shone forth with a glory which is not likely again to be dimmed. To-day it is more necessary to distinguish than to praise; more important to show what the painter of Haarlem was not, than to demonstrate what he was; more difficult to guard against the possible evils of an overwhelming influence than to recognize the good it has accomplished.

Unfortunately for us, during the long neglect of Hals and his works, most of the facts of his life and a great part of his production were allowed to disappear. There are great gaps in the chronology of his pictures, some of which have been partially filled of late years, but which still remain puzzling in the extreme. His astonishing technical facility shows that his work was produced with great rapidity, while this same facility could have been maintained only by constant practice. There should be scores of canvases, big and little, for every year of his working life, yet there is more than one period of five or six years to which no known work can with probability be assigned. Above all, there is nothing known to exist that can with propriety be called an early work. He is now supposed, on slender enough evidence, to have been born in 1580, though the date long accepted, on no discoverable evidence at all, is 1584. He was therefore either twenty-nine or thirty-three years old when his earliest known picture was painted, in 1613, and three years older when the next extant work was produced, the first of the great series of Doclen pictures at Haarlem. That he should have been given such a commission at all shows that he was already a master of considerable local reputation; the picture itself shows even more clearly that mastery had been attained. He is to do better work, but technical difficulties have already ceased to exist for him, and he can draw and paint anything he chooses. How did he learn? Who was his first master? What sort of partial successes and full successes put him in a position to be chosen for important work? We can only guess. Mr. Davies's conjecture that, during his young days in Antwerp, where he was born, Hals is likely to have studied with Rubens's master, Van Noort, seems plausible enough; but we know so little of Van Noort that, even if accepted, the conjecture does not greatly help us. It is put forth tentatively, and it is to be hoped that it will not, with the curious facility of such conjectures, get itself taken for fact by the next writer on the subject. Whoever was his first teacher, Hals must have done a deal of work between the ages of twenty and thirty, and it is a pity that some of it has not survived for the edification of the student of to-day, who is inclined to begin where the master left off. We have the early paintings of Velazquez, and know through what hard, precise, "tight" work he trained the eye and hand that are later so surprising in their sureness and facility. Mastery has never been otherwise attained, and it is a safe prediction that if any of the work of Hals during this first decade shall be recovered and identified, it will be found admirable, no doubt, but otherwise admirable than the things we know.

The work that Frans Hals did between his thirty-fifth and fifty-fifth years—the period of full maturity — is pretty well known to us. A good deal of it must, indeed, have disappeared, but what is left is so all of a piece—the development is so normal and regular and the visible change so slight—that it is not probable that the lost works would, if recoverable, materially alter our conception of the painter. Such as he was at the beginning of this period, he was at the end of it. There is to be noted only a gradual increase of power, a slight broadening of vision, a growing looseness and lightness of touch. One of the notable things about this output is its limitation of subject. Mr. Davies gives a curious list of the things Hals did not paint; what it comes to is just this: he painted nothing but portraits. He only occasionally introduced a landscape background, and then in a thoroughly conventional and perfunctory manner. He never painted a horse and hardly ever a dog. He painted no "subject pictures." We can think of no other painter in the whole history of art whose effort was so strictly limited in its direction, and this narrowness grew upon him and is even more marked after 1640 than before that date. In his later years his figures rarely have any visible surroundings of any sort. In artistic qualities, also, he was as limited as in range of subject. He had only a rudimentary sense of composition: light and shade is, for the most part, interesting to him only as a means of drawing. His color is sometimes pleasing and surprisingly well harmonized, considering the particolored costumes he painted and the directness of his method, but he was hardly a colorist. His growing tendency to the use of black shadows in flesh would, alone, show an indifference to color. He was a painter of likenesses—a portraitist, pure and simple.

But if Hals was only a portrait painter, was he not one of the greatest of portrait painters? Yes and no. Northcote, in the passage already referred to, says, "For truth of character . . . he was the greatest painter that ever existed"; and adds, "If I had wanted *an exact likeness* I should have preferred Frans Hals" to Titian. The exact likeness was what he was after. He had little sense of beauty. He was capable of some gravity and dignity, but beside Velazquez he is common. He was a great student of expression, but, compared with Rembrandt's intensity of life, his figures grimace. There is rarely anything subtle about him, and never anything poetic; he saw with admirable clearness and rendered with wonderful accuracy just what every one may see. He was, as nearly as possible, the absolute realist.

No artist ever lived, however, who had not an ideal. With Hals, as with many a literary realist, that ideal is to be found in his style—his personal manner of expression. What he says is obvious enough, but the way in which he says it is inimitable. He is an almost unapproachable master of the language of painting. Pure art is always an arrangement of something, notes or forms or colors or words; what Hals arranged was brush-strokes, and his mere handling becomes a contribution to the æsthetic pleasures of the world. He was a master stylist, and the greatest virtues of style, in painting as in writing, are, after all, clarity and precision. We are apt to be carried away by his ease, his rapidity, his brilliancy and crispness of touch, and to imagine that these are his great qualities; but any one can be rapid and easy—what is truly amazing with Hals, in his prime, is his certainty. What astounds is not that the touch is instantaneous and slashing, but that each of these instantaneous slashes is infallibly in exactly the right place, and of exactly the right shape to express the form and texture of the thing he would render. What we call painting, in the narrower sense, is, after all, the expression of form with the brush, and Hals was an almost impeccable draughtsman. His sense of form is not delicate, but, except for an occasional tendency to elongate the forearm, it is unerring. Whoever would imitate him must begin with acquiring his mastery of drawing. His characteristic combination of rather commonplace vision with extraordinary powers of execution finds, perhaps, its highest exemplification in the "St. Adriaen's Shooting Guild" of 1633, though there are many examples of it nearly as wonderful.

Somewhere about 1635 a new element seems to enter into Hals's work. His tone becomes graver, his color somewhat warmer, his light and shade more suffused, his interest in the rendering of objects more subordinated to the study of atmosphere. In a word, his art becomes more Rembrandtesque, and it has long been thought that, during this period, he came under the influence of the master, more than twenty years his junior, who was painting, only thirteen miles away, at Amsterdam. Mr. Davies is somewhat skeptical as to the existence of this influence, and the question is worth examination. Fromentin first called attention to the resemblance of Hals's picture of "The Regents of St. Elisabeth's Hospital" (1641) to Rembrandt's "Syndics." Mr. Davies points out that this resemblance is purely superficial, consisting mainly of the likeness in number of figures, arrangement, costume, etc., and that, as Rembrandt's picture was painted twenty years later than Hals's, these things, if they prove anything, prove rather that the younger master was indebted to the elder than the reverse. He points out, also, that during the years from 1635 to (say) 1643, during which the Rembrandt influence is supposed to have existed, Hals produced many pictures which show no trace of this influence. This is undeniably true, but is not surprising. Many of the accepted dates of Hals's pictures are conjectural, but the "St. Joris's Shooting Company" is certainly of 1639, and shows no Rembrandtesque qualities. On the other hand, it is one of the poorest of the series of corporation pictures, and might be thought to show that Hals, even when not experimenting in his new manner, was losing interest in his old. Other work of this time, like "The Merry Toper," is of the nature of brilliant sketching, and may be supposed to have been done as a relaxation—a playing with that of which he was sure between serious efforts at that which was harder for him. Two portraits at Frankfort (said to be of 1638) are dismissed by Mr. Davies as too much restored to be fair tests. The "Maria Voogt" of 1639 he considers to be like Rembrandt mainly in externals of costume and so forth. The "Old Lady" of the Bridgewater Gallery (1640), of which he gives no reproduction, he admits to be very like Rembrandt, saying that, if it be indisputably genuine, "I can see no escape from the admission that we have here Hals experimenting in the style of Rembrandt, and carrying his experiment to the length of scarcely disguised imitation." In all the other pictures he sees no more than a growth of Hals's sense of atmosphere, which he thinks requires to be accounted for by no outside influence. He does not mention at all a portrait of "Feyntje van Steenkiste" in the Rijks Museum (undated in the list of illustrations, but labelled 1635 under the plate itself), which, judging from the reproduction alone, is the most Rembrandtesque thing included in the volume.

It is evident, from the dates alone, that we must leave Rembrandt's later work out of the count in considering his possible influence upon Hals. Indeed, after 1640, Rembrandt ceased to influence anybody, even his own pupils. It is not the Rembrandt of the "Syndics," but rather the Rembrandt of the "Anatomy Lesson" that must be reckoned with; the relatively grayer, smoother painter, then at the height of popularity. Hals was, as a mere technician, the superior, and would not be likely to change his handling; the influence that Rembrandt would have would be precisely in that "growth of the sense of atmosphere" which was his gift to the whole Dutch school. It is incredible that such a genius as Rembrandt should not have influenced any painter living within thirteen miles of him. The wonder is—and it is a proof of Hals's powerful individuality—that the influence was not more marked and more dominant than it appears to have been. In our view, it began about 1634 or 1635, reached its height, perhaps, with the Bridgewater portrait, and was already declining when the "Regents" was painted in 1641. In that picture there are sharp, pure blacks in the flesh-shadows which are unlike anything in Rembrandt, and which become characteristic of Hals in his later works.

During this Rembrandtesque period, Hals produced his noblest pictures—those which are nearest to being great works of art as well as great pieces of painting. After that period his technical powers begin to decline. He was more than sixty years old, and, if he had in reality been the drunkard he has been called, it is incredible that he should have held them so long. After 1641 his works become few and far between, but a picture here and there helps to bridge the gap that formerly existed between the great canvas of that year and the last efforts of his genius, the two Regent pictures of 1664. In these rare works positive color tends more and more to disappear, the palette is reduced to its lowest terms, blackness invades everything. The handling is still free—freer than ever—but it gradually ceases to be precise. What we call tone is taking the place of color, and form is giving way to suggestion. From failure of eye, the heads tend to grow larger than life; from failure of hand, the touch becomes loose and fumbling. He is no longer capable of the marvels of rendering of his younger days, but the acquired knowledge of a lifetime is still there. The language stumbles, but it is a master who speaks. In the last picture of all, painted by an old man dependent upon poor-rates, who was at least eighty and may have been eighty-four years of age, there is a certain largeness of vision, a certain way of seeing things by their great relations, which marks him, more than ever, the artist. In the male group, especially, the drawing has gone all to pieces, and even the sense of resemblance is no longer convincing; but the feeling of tone and of unity of effect has become so great that there are not wanting artists to proclaim it, everything considered, his finest work. Two years later he died in the "old man's home" of which these, his latest sitters, were governors.

From all that has gone before, it is not difficult to divine where, in the hierarchy of painters, Frans Hals belongs. His range is too limited, his sense of beauty too restricted, his intellectual value too slight, to allow us to place him among the great ones of the earth. Not only can he not be placed, with Michelangelo and Rembrandt, among the poets, but his prose is far less various and elevated than that of Velazquez. For clearness and vigor of statement, for "truth of character" and "exact likeness," he has no superior, and the language of painting, as applied to the enunciation of fairly obvious truths, has no greater master. Somewhere below the baker's dozen of the very greatest, but on a pedestal of his own, he will stand for ever in the temple of fame.

## RECENT POETRY.

The alleged enthusiasm in the United States regarding the English King's coronation was visibly checked by two circumstances—its postponement, and the pithy remark attributed to ex-Speaker Reed, that the event did not quite seem like a piece of real life. The same drawback attaches to the poetry called forth by it, of which the

two most interesting memorials, no doubt, are the two odes respectively of William Watson, a British subject, and Bliss Carman, who may be classed as a semi-subject of the same great empire; he being a native of New Brunswick, and by choice and long habit a resident of the American Union. In reading Mr. Watson's 'Ode' (Lane) one feels at first rather apprehensive of that merely conventional glorification of the British Empire to which the rest of the globe is rather forgetting to respond. As, however, the reader dwells for a space upon this thought, he is caught in admiration by the rise of tone and appeal in the last canto. There the true quality, never wanting in Watson, shows itself in a strain of stately warning such as we must go back to Gray's "Bard" to parallel; and yet it is not a shriek of passion, but a warning given in caution and in surpassing love. Thus it proceeds (p. 31):

"O doom of overlordships! to decay
First at the heart, the eye scarce dimmed at all;
Or perish of much cumber and array,
The burdening robe of empire, and its pall;
Or, of voluptuous hours the wanton prey,
Die of the poisons that most sweetly slay;
Or, from insensate height,
With prodigies, with light
Of trailing angers on the monstrous night
Magnificently fall.
Far off from her that bore us be such fate!

. . . . . .

For now the day is unto them that know,
And not henceforth she stumbles on the prize;
And yonder march the nations full of eyes.
Already is doom a-spinning, if unstirred
In leisure of ancient pathways she lose touch
Of the hour, and overmuch
Recline upon achievement, and be slow
To take the world arriving, and forget
How perilous are the stature and port that so
Invite the arrows, how unslumbering all
The hates that watch and crawl.
Nor must she, like the others, yield up yet
The generous dreams! but rather live to be
Saluted in the hearts of men as she
Of high and singular election, set
Benignant on the mitigated sea;
That, greatly loving freedom, loved to free,
And was herself the bridal and embrace
Of strength and conquering grace."

Those who feared in Mr. Carman's coronation 'Ode' (Boston: Page) anything petty or apologetic in behalf of those of British birth who have cast in their lot with the United States of America, will be agreeably disappointed. The ode itself is too long, but nowhere ignoble; it has the ring and swing which we have learned to expect from Mr. Carman, but has neither the complexity nor the brag which Kipling might have taught him. The King to whom he does honor is the people's king, and the vast congeries of nations and semi-nations whose chant he brings is made up of loyal citizens, not subjects; who shall recognize England, filially, but not in any serfdom, as their "Little Mother" (p. 32):

"And slowly, very slowly, the gorgeous dream
grows bright,
Where rise the four Democracies of Anglo-Saxon
might;
The Republic, fair, alone;
The Commonwealth, new-grown,
The proud, reserved Dominion, with a story of her
own;
And One that shall emerge at length from travail,
war and blight."

These are, as we understand it, the American republic, or United States of America, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of Canada, and the reformed and reorganized Great Britain, not yet a democracy. Many have tried their hands at forecasting the great English-speaking world of the future, but no one seems to have hit it nearer than Mr. Carman, and he goes on nobly, thus (p. 29):

"Oh, doubt not, wrong, oppression and violence and
tears,
The ignorance and anguish and folly of the years,
Must pass and leave a mind
More sane, a soul more kind,
As the slow ages shall evolve a loftier mankind,
When over lust and carnage the great white peace
appears.

For surely, very surely, will come the Prince of
Peace
To still the shrieking shrapnel and bid the Maxims
cease;
Not as invaders come
With gun-wheel and with drum,
But with the tranquil joyance of lovers going home
Through the scented summer twilight, when the
spirit has release.

. . . . . .

O England, little mother by the sleepless Northern
tide,
Having bred so many nations to devotion, trust,
and pride,
Very tenderly we turn
With welling hearts that yearn
Still to love you and defend you—let the sons of
men discern
Wherein your right and title, might and majesty,
reside."

It is a pleasure to see the comely volume in which the friends of the late Edward Rowland Sill have brought together his Poems (Cambridge: Riverside Press). It will still remain doubtful, however, how far this continued reproduction of his works—as originally published in 1868, and then in 1883, 1887, and 1899—is the result of a wide demand or a scarcely less honorable tribute from a picked class of appreciative readers. It is to some extent the critic's duty to disregard both forms of recognition; he must rather seek to estimate anew the poet's real contributions to higher literature. On reading Sill's poems more carefully, he must certainly feel marked deficiencies in certain directions, as, for instance, in the dramatic and the lyrical. One title given to a poem is "Three Songs" (p. 200), but it must be admitted that there are not so many songs, properly so-called, in the whole three hundred pages of the book—that is, not so many as three pieces of verse which can be said to sing themselves. Again, there is an absence of the quality of humor, a defect which would not have suggested itself, perhaps, but for the presence of one or two poems, such as "Five Lives" (p. 49), and "Eve's Daughter" (p. 79), which obviously have aimed at that quality and failed. But when we ask for the serious, Wordsworthian style, we certainly have an abundance of it, and that very genuine, simple, and even profound. In a few cases this is so concentrated, and so musical in utterance as to have an unusual and delicate quality, as in the following (p. 298):

NIGHT AND PEACE.

Night in the woods—night:
Peace, peace on the plain.
The last red sunset beam
Belts the tall beech with gold;
The quiet kine are in the fold,
And stilly flows the stream.
Soon shall we see the stars again,
For one more day down to its rest has lain,
And all its cares have taken flight,
And all its doubt and pain.
Night in the woods—night:
Peace, peace on the plain.

There is, of course, much of those descriptions of California scenery and atmosphere, once so new and fascinating, but now grown more familiar. Of the two poems selected by the editors to show Sill's "fine strenuousness" and "noble temper" (p. xvii)—namely, "Opportunity" (p. 40) and "The Fool's Prayer" (p. 67)—we should agree with them as to the former, but not as to the latter. Though fine in its quality, it inevitably suggests a poem somewhat kindred in aim, "At the King's Gate," by Helen Jackson, which is so much finer and more suggestive that it blocks the way to fame of any other. The poem which we should select as really the most remarkable in the book, and showing the greatest combination both of imagination and of skill in measured words, is the following (p. 246):

THE DEAD LETTER.

The letter came at last. I carried it
To the deep woods unopened. All the trees
Were hushed, as if they waited what was writ,
And feared for me. Silent they let me sit
Among them; leaning breathless while I read.
And bending down above me where they stood.
A long way off I heard the delicate tread
Of the light-footed loiterer, the breeze,
Come walking toward me in the leafy wood.
I burned the page that brought me love and woe.
At first it writhed to feel the spires of flame.
Then lay quite still; and o'er each word there came
Its white ghost of the ash, and burning slow
Each said: "You cannot kill the spirit; know
That we shall haunt you, even till heart and brain
Lie as we lie in ashes—all in vain."

Two volumes lie before us, filled with verse that is worth more in essential value than a dozen average volumes of the merely introspective and sentimental. These books contain the raw material of poetry, or perhaps one might go farther, and describe it as poetic material in the first stage of fermentation. They describe in local dialect the two types of manhood most vigorous and vernacular in all the Atlantic States of this Union: the lumbermen of Maine and the fishermen of Gloucester. They are both recorded on the spot by hands which have had a certain amount of practice, even though the names of the rhymers be new to the cyclopædias of authors. The better of the two, because the more wholly straightforward and the remoter from Kipling, is 'Pine-Tree Ballads, Rhymed Stories of Unplaned Human Natur' Up in Maine,' by Holman F. Day (Small, Maynard & Co.). No one who has not watched, at least as a spectator, the rush and whirl of logging-time on a Maine river, can fully appreciate the courage that shows itself even in making the attempt to describe it in verse (p. 102):

WHEN THE ALLEGASH DRIVE GOES THROUGH.

We're spurred with the spikes in our soles;
There is water a-swash in our boots;
Our hands are hard-calloused by peavies and poles,
And we're drenched with the spume of the chutes.
We gather our herds at the head
Where the axes have toppled them loose,
And down from the hills where the rivers are fed
We harry the hemlock and spruce.

We hurroop them with the peavies from their sullen
beds of snow;
With the pickpole for a goadstick, down the brimming streams we go.
They are hitching, they are halting, and they lurk
and hide and dodge,
They sneak for skulking eddies, they bunt the
bank and lodge.
And we almost can imagine that they hear the yell
of saws
And the grunting of the grinders of the paper-mills
because
They loiter in the shallows and they cob-pile at
the falls,
And they buck like ugly cattle where the broad
deadwater crawls.
But we wallow in and welt 'em with the water to
our waist,
For the driving pitch is dropping and the Drouth
is gasping "Haste!"
Here a dam and there a jam, that is grabbed by
grinning rocks,
Gnawed by the teeth of the ravening ledge that
slavers at our flocks;
Twenty a month for daring Death; for fighting
from dawn to dark—
Twenty and grub and a place to sleep in God's
great public park;
We roofless go, with the cook's bateau to follow
our hungry crew—
A billion of spruce and hell turned loose when
the Allegash drive goes through.

. . . . . .

The glory of the tumult where the tumbling torrent rolls
With half a hundred drivers riding through
with lunging poles.
Here's huzza for reckless chances! Here's hurrah
for those who ride
Through the jaws of boiling sluices, yeasty white
from side to side!
Our brawny fists are calloused, and we're mostly
holes and hair,
But if grit were golden bullion we'd have coin to
spend, and spare!

Here some rips and there the lips of a whirlpool's
bellowing mouth,
Death we clinch and Time we fight, for behind us
gasps the Drouth.
Twenty a month, bateau for a home, and only a
peep at town,
For our money is gone in a brace of nights after
the drive is down;
But with peavies and poles and care-free souls our
ragged and roofless crew
Swarms gayly along with whoop and song when
the Allegash drive goes through.

In 'Wharf and Fleet, Ballads of the Fishermen of Gloucester,' by Clarence Manning Felt (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), the au-

thor attempts a little more, and, like Lowell in the 'Biglow Papers,' rather overspells his dialect. Yet perhaps this brings us nearer to the full stress of the game; and at any rate he puts on record lives of direct and simple courage, which steam and electricity may yet be destined to reduce to smaller proportions. The types of manhood in both these volumes are, moreover, shown in admirable illustrations, taken from original photographs. In this world of obscure heroism even the rigger becomes a hero—the man, namely, who puts the rigging of the mackerel fleet into complete order before the spring sailing; who hangs the sails, scrapes and slushes the masts, and so on, while his own life hangs literally by a thread. This is the way in which our poet views him (page 8):

TH' RIGGER.

"Yer may blow erbout th' cirkis, th' man on th' trapeeze,
Ye may pant yer breath erbout th' 'Humin Fly.'
But if yer want th' dizzy that will infant-like yer knees,
Let yer opticks quizz th' rigger, flyin' high.

"Oh, he's nuthin' in pertickler, er brave heart out on pay,
Oh, er feller that goes hus'lin' roun' with Time,
Jest er nervy that goes soarin' w'are th' gulls play tag all day,
An' th' shrouds ring all th' wind-bells chime on chime.

"With his kit erpon his back
An' er plenty give an' slack,
An' his fists er huggin' tight th' tackle's loop,
Ter th' gray blocks' creak an' crack
He will swing up lof' an' tack,
Oh, th' dizziest ole chickin in th' coop.

"On th' spring-stay, up th' ball,
Down th' jib-stay, roun' th' fall,
He will do each turn or ever miss'n ac',
Wile th' winds an' gulls will call
Like as if they hollered, 'Gall!
Jest look out, ole man, some day yer'll git th' sac!'

"But he'll anti all th' more,
An' will swing his legs galore,
An' go friskin' with th' winds as limp as eels,
W'ile th' gulls will farther soar,
Though maddened ter th' core
That er humin should so dare ter tag th' heels.

"But th' sight is sad ter me,
Oh, this darin' by th' sea,
This primpin' uv th' lingerie uv th' fleets,
Oh, this dev'lin wild an' free
In th' vast infinitee,
This tight'nin' uv th' black shroud's laddery cleats.

"Fer it w'ispers all th' more
Th' goin' ter leave th' shore,
Goin' ter deserlate th' h'arth an' cry th' home.—
Some ter come back laughin'-eyed
Ter th' kind ole harber tide;
Some ter be jest g'osts ferever in th' foam."

Book after book has shown that California nurtures more than its share of the poets of the future. The utter change of climate, scenery, poetic material may be at the foundation of the difference, but the fact is unquestionable. The latest poet to exhibit this is Christian Binkley, who prints 'Sonnets and Songs for a House of Days' (San Francisco: A. M. Robertson), and, like his townsman, Dr. Edward R. Taylor, tries his hand quite successfully at translating Heredia. It may perhaps be this charming Cuban poet who tempts California rhymers to become sonneteers on so unreasonably large a scale—Mr. Binkley, for instance, allows himself nearly a hundred; and his extreme reverence for Joaquin Miller hints at rather a dangerous guide and friend. But there is certainly a genuine feeling for nature made manifest in this book, and no one else has so delicately handled that curious and tempting theme for romance, the Closed Gentian. The verses are especially appropriate for this season (p. 129):

THE CLOSED GENTIAN.

"Awake, awake," the west-wind blew,
"The morning sun has smiled on you."

The autumn flowers heard the call
And laughed to see the dead leaves fall.

The aster's purple crown expands,
The daisies clap their little hands;

And all look up to greet the sun,
And all are fair and glad save one.

To her the west-wind comes in vain
With whisperings of sky and plain.

He sings, "Oh open, lids of blue,—
Open and bathe in light and dew.

"Thy regal sister's azure cup
Untwines to drink the sunshine up;

"Her wealth of calyx, fringe, and stem
She wears like queen her diadem.

"Like her unfold, and feel the breeze;
Oh wake, and hear the hum of bees,

"And with thy robe of blue unfurled,
Behold the sky and beauteous world."

She faintly hears, she longs and thrills
To see the wondrous sky and hills;

But fate is stern: the breeze is gone. . . .
She opened not and still dreamed on,

And all day long the butterfly
Beheld her closed and flitted by.

The tendency to exuberance and cheap tragical utterance which has been so long charged upon the poets of our Southern States—a more prolonged prevalence of the Byronic fever—finds full expression in the thin volume, 'The Freeman, and Other Poems,' by Ellen [Anderson Gholson] Glasgow. Some of the prose writings of this young author, especially some with a philanthropic aim, have shown so much more maturity of judgment as to make it a pity that her fifty pages of verse, full of flashes of power, should be almost wholly painful, even to ghastliness, and should seem to be mainly based on the theory attributed to the Deity at the close of one of the most tragic of them, "The Earth is Hell." For this reason we prefer to choose one of the briefest and certainly the calmest among them (p. 18):

COWARD MEMORY.

A street half flecked with shade and sun,
A last year's leaf along it blown,
A gray wall where green lichens run;
Like water falling on dry stone,
A robin's ripe notes dropping one by one.

Sad sun and shade and sadness over all
The distance blended into solemn hues,
On the warm air suspended as a pall
The sweetness dying violets diffuse,
While from a single tree the ashen elm-flowers fall.

At the street's sudden end a shining square,
The sunny threshold of an open door,
Thick with the dust of an untrodden stair
That leads beyond me to the upper floor—
Then memory halts—it dares not enter there.

If one were asked to name the American poet of this time who can be relied on for an even excellence of execution—the kind of evenness for which one looked to Longfellow—the choice would be likely to fall on Mr. Robert U. Johnson, co-editor of the *Century Magazine*. The volume before us called 'Poems' (Century Co.) is really the combination of three books, published within ten years—'Songs of Liberty,' 'The Winter Hour,' and a third part, appearing now for the first time, 'A Song of Liberty, and Other Poems.' Among these we should rank the old favorite, "A Winter Hour," as still the best; we should class it with Whittier's "Snow-Bound," limited only by being addressed more especially to a more cultivated audience and just missing the universal heart. For this fine poem we have no room, and, stopping short of winter, may well substitute, as yet more appropriate, a more timely song (p. 38):

OCTOBER.

Soft days whose silver moments keep
The constant promise of the morn,
When tired equinoctials sleep
And wintry winds are yet unborn:
What one of all the twelve more dear—
Thou truce and Sabbath of the year?

More restful art thou than the May,
And if less hope be in thy hand,
Some cares 't were grief to understand
Thou hid'st, as is the mother's way,
With mists and lights of fairyland
Set on the borders of the day.

And best of all thou dost beguile
With color—friendliest thought of God!
Than thine hath Heaven itself a smile
More rich? Are feet of angels shod
With peace more fair? O month divine!
Stay, till thy tranquil soul be mine.

*The Standard Light Operas.* By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

*Musical Pastels.* By George P. Upton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

A new volume in Mr. Upton's musical hand-book series will be welcomed by many who have been aided by his four books describing the text and the music of the most important grand operas, oratorios, cantatas, and symphonies. 'Light Operas' is not, strictly speaking, an accurate title, although it tallies with popular parlance in this country, which makes no distinction between operettas, real comic operas, "musical comedies," and other forms of entertainment ranging somewhere between grand opera and vaudeville. If he had chosen the word "operettas" for his title, the author would no doubt have given mortal offence to not a few composers, who, especially in America, seem to be as shy of that word as "sales-ladies" are of being called shop-girls. The inclusion of such genuine light operas as "Fra Diavolo," "The Daughter of the Regiment," "The Barber of Seville," "Hänsel and Gretel" would, moreover, have made that title inappropriate. Of Sullivan's charming operettas the entire list of ten is included; although some are not sung any more, a revival is sure to come, as it has already come in the case of Strauss, who is represented by four works. It is somewhat difficult to understand on what principle of selection the author included one of Sousa's operettas and four of De Koven's while entirely ignoring Victor Herbert, whose operettas are, both musically and in the matter of plot and fun, among the best of our time; they have enjoyed a great vogue here and in Germany. Nor is it obvious why "La Dame Blanche," "Stradella," "The Crown Diamonds," and "The Trumpeter of Säkkingen" are represented; all are well known, and the first named is a gem, but none of them are likely to be heard in our cities. As a matter of course less is said here about the music than in the volume on grand operas, as light music requires no analysis or commentary. The plots are what is chiefly wanted, and these are summed up concisely and clearly. We have noticed a few slips of the pen: Lortzing is disguised as Lörtzing, both in the table of contents and in the text, while Arthur Sullivan masquerades in the preface as Alexander Sullivan.

Mr. Upton has not confined his literary activity to the writing of handbooks. There is also a short monograph of his on 'Woman in Music,' which is doubtless a favorite in women's clubs; and now we have to add the 'Musical Pastels,' a collection of ten short essays, charmingly written and on subjects concerning which many music-lovers know just enough to make them anxious to know more. Mr. Upton discusses Nero, as an artist solely. Though a monster of vice and vanity, he had the courage and merit of seeking to popularize and secure honor for an art which the Romans considered fit for slaves only. In our day, not a few monarchs are lovers of music, or musicians themselves, and all the more liked therefor. But Nero "was execrated

by the Romans, not so much for his vices as because he disgraced his sovereignty by practising the art of the actor and of the singer." Though his chief motive was personal vanity, he established a precedent and got his reward, for no fewer than ten modern composers, including Handel and Rubinstein, have paid him the highest musical tribute by celebrating his life in their operas.

Perhaps the oddest character in musical history is Thomas Britton, whom Hawkins refers to as having first begun to entertain the public in 1678. There had been musical entertainments in London before him, but they were mere tavern concerts, "in which the beer was bad and the music worse." He was the first who arranged high-class entertainments, and the odd thing about it was the fact that he should have been the man to do this. He was most emphatically what we call a "crank." Every day, from early manhood to his death, he walked the streets of London with a sack of coal on his back, soliciting customers. But in the evening his Grub Street garret, accessible only by means of a ladder-like staircase from the outside, was visited by the greatest poets, painters, and musicians of his time, as well as by many exalted members of the nobility. Handel was among those who climbed these stairs and played the harpsichord and organ for the guests. Mr. Upton has made good use of this quaint topic.

Another of his chapters is concerned with the same period in English history. The story of the astounding success of that dreadful musical hodge-podge, the "Beggars' Opera," which drove Handel's operas from the stage, shows that "fads" are not peculiar to our time. "Its songs were printed upon fans, and scenes from it were painted on screens, furniture, and bric-à-brac." It is hardly correct to say that the "Beggars' Opera," because it drove out Italian music for a time, "revolutionized the popular musical taste of England." Rather was it, as Dr. Arbuthnot said, "a touchstone to try British taste on." It proved effective in revealing the true national inclination; and ballad operas were for a long time not only the lowest but, unfortunately, also the highest specimens of operatic art in England. All ballads, except those set to music by such masters as Schubert and Loewe, are more interesting poetically than musically. Their melodies are usually stale and flat (though not unprofitable); but as poems they give most interesting glimpses of manners, tastes, and fashions. Mr. Upton's chapter headed "The Bullfinch and the Nightingale" illustrates this fact. It relates to two books of ballads and songs, one English, the other American, which he has in his library. His explanation of the difference between a song and a ballad is worth quoting: "The ballad always tells a story, and is sometimes sung; the song sometimes tells a story and is always sung." The remaining chapters in this entertaining volume are concerned with Music and Religion, The First Opera, The First American Opera, Some Musical Controversies, A Musical Royal Family, The Man Beethoven.

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*Immigration of Irish Quakers into Pennsylvania*, 1682-1750. With their Early History in Ireland. By Albert C. Myers, M. L. Swarthmore, Pennsylvania: The Author. Pp. xxii, 477; 28 full-page and 32 minor illustrations, bibliography and index.

The doctrines of Quakerism found ready acceptance among the Cromwellian settlers and their descendants in Ireland. It has been calculated that at one period there were upwards of 40,000 members of the sect—chiefly belonging to the yeomen or trading class—in the country. They occupied farms in the best parts of the country. At a later period, Arthur Young reports its being said of them, "The Quakers be very cunning, and the devil a bad acre of land will they hire." The suppression of Irish manufactures, landlord extortion, the prospects held out in this country, caused many of these Quakers to seek new homes on our side of the Atlantic. Between 1682 and 1750, from 1,500 to 2,000 Irish "Friends," as they have ever preferred to call themselves, settled in Pennsylvania. There many of them rose to eminence. It is the story of these Friends, of their migrations, and of their settlement that is told in the interesting volume before us. The records of the Society were from the first singularly exact—not only births, deaths, and marriages being noted, but also removals of members and their acceptance by new meetings. Of such materials our author has well availed himself, not only on this side of the Atlantic, but in Ireland. He throws a flood of life upon the manners and customs, ways of living, and modes of voyaging of the time. The passage occupied from six to twelve weeks. The cost was some $45. Many voyaged upon credit. Some were lent money by their meetings. Others sold themselves into temporary servitude, usually for four years, to defray the cost of their transportation. Many brought out bond servants and disposed of the labor of some of them. An intending emigrant is thus advised:

"I wod have him Procure 3 or 4 Lusty Servants & agree to pay their passage at this side he might sell 2 & pay the others passage with the money."

Considering the desire, both of the Government and of the landlords, to expedite emigration in our time, it is interesting to read of the obstacles then thrown in the way of those who desired to leave Ireland. In May, 1736, John Stewart writes from Dublin a remonstranee to "the proprietor of pensylvania" on this subject. Emigrants had been delayed weeks at port of embarkation by "Hellish contrivance";

"many of which are in most deplorable circumstances not so much as able to pay thire passage and all of them destitute of howses to put thire heads into or of means wherewith to support themselves maney of which has depended on their Friends in America from home they yearly have Accts. . . . But our Landlords here affirms that these Accts are all of them Forgerys & Lyes."

We have here tables showing the meetings in Ireland from which the immigrants came, and the districts where they settled. We are given portraits of leading Friends, views of meeting-houses, illustrations of costume, photographs of documents and autographs. Especially through extracts from wills we glean much information as to ways of living. The rougher life in Ireland made the immigrants better prepared settlers than those from Great Britain. Most families spun, and many wove their own linen and other fabrics. Among the most interesting documents quoted are letters from Robert Parke, near Chester, to his sister Mary, wife of Thomas Valentine of Ballybrumhill, in Carlow, Ireland. He was enthusiastic concerning his new home—

"for there is not one of the family but what likes the country very well, and wod If we were in Ireland again come here Directly it being the best country for working folk & tradesmen of any in the world, but for Drunkards and Idlers, they cannot live well anywhere, it is likewise an Extradin healthy country. . . . so that it is as Plentifull a Country as any can be if people will be Industrious."

He winds up a description of what is to be had at the fairs and markets with "Ribonds & all Sorts of necessarys fit for our wooden [? wooded] country & here all young men and women that wants wives and husbands may be Supplyed."

It would be difficult to give a full impression of the interests of this admirable book, especially to Friends or their descendants, without an extent of extracts for which we have no space. The 40,000 Irish Friends of those days have shrunk to 3,000. Mr. Myers should be capable of interestingly tracing the fortunes of the Society that remained in Ireland and of investigating the causes of their decline in numbers and influence. The present volume is well printed, in clear type, on excellent paper.

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*History of Ancient Greek Literature.* By Harold N. Fowler. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

This is one of the Series of "Twentieth-Century Text-books," and it deserves its title, inasmuch as it includes notice of discoveries such as the poems of Bacchylides and of Herondas, the long fragment of Menander's 'Georgos,' and the Pæan of Isyllus, which fell to the later years of the nineteenth century. The volume covers the whole range of literature from the Homeric poems to Chrysostom and Eusebius within the space of 501 pages, of which about 40 are devoted to bibliography, an index, and a chronological table; and this restricted space is made to contain brief mention of many slight figures (the letter S, for example, offering the names Simmias, Sosylus, Syrianus, and two Sotions). With this scale and scope, it is almost impossible to avoid an occasional dryness of treatment, and, as a matter of fact, the work is, perhaps necessarily, on the whole a handbook of reference rather than a readable history of literature; it is safe, careful, and trustworthy rather than illuminating and inspiring. Professor Murray, in his somewhat shorter history, is both illuminating and inspiring, because he has limited his view to the important figures, and he makes these figures emerge with distinctness, connecting each writer rationally with his work and his epoch. The result is a remarkably readable piece of literature. On the other hand, Dr. Fowler's plain statement of facts, biographical and literary, may answer well the needs of the student who keeps it at his elbow for reference.

The author, in his preface, speaks of "class-room use of the book for the secondary school and the college student," and expects the latter "to use it all, spending

more study on the more important authors." The secondary schools have, indeed, many burdens on their shoulders, and one of these may be the teaching of an unknown literature by recitations from a text-book. This is like teaching botany from a manual, without access to plants or flowers; and some teachers may possibly like this method; but the pupils will not like it, and will carry away from it nothing but a few dry facts—not even so much as a *hortus siccus*. The college student will in time make the acquaintance of the flowers, and may then use his manual to advantage; but the boy or girl at school has never even smelt the flowers, unless he has been adventurous enough to peep over the hedge by the aid of Charles Lamb and Church and similar friends of youth. These, indeed, are real benefactors, and the maturer pupil, once allured by their guidance, may fill out the framework of a primer by reading translations, or such leisurely dissertations as he may find in Symonds's or Mahaffy's histories. He will carry off far more from this extensive reading than from slowly and painfully memorizing a much briefer manual.

We notice here and there a phrase which Dr. Fowler may wish to reconsider, or a characterization which is either bald, or vague, or inadequate, or questionable. We italicize the doubtful expressions: Bion "was a pleasing poet, chiefly of love-poems"; "The poems of Bion and Moschus are pleasing, *but by no means great*"; "In his description of human passion, Apollonius *rises to heights which few poets have reached*"; "Polybius, *the greatest of Greek historians with the possible exception of Thucydides*"; and again, "Pindar was a religious man with a religion rather of *good works and outward observance than of faith*, though his good taste would have kept him from any disrespectful remarks about the gods, even if he had had no religious reverence for them." This last is a hard saying, which will surprise the scholar and mislead the tyro; for Pindar unquestionably had faith as well as good taste, and it is idle to measure him by the standards and ideals of a relígion which he never dreamed of. On page 213, the first paragraph is awkward and needs recasting; the last line of page 230 contains a misspelling; the date of Socrates on page 481 should be 399; and it seems a pity to omit mention of Lang's translation of the Homeric Hymns. However, these are merely *obiter* suggestions for a future edition.

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*Algazel:* Dogmática, Moral, Ascética. Par Miguel Asín, Palacios Presbitero, con Prólogo de Menéndez y Pelayo. Zaragoza. 1901. Pp. xl, 912.

For the last twenty years there has been in progress in Spain a renaissance of Arabic studies. Its development has been singularly free from outside influences; even the school of Fleischer appears to have affected it but little. The unfortunate side of this has been undoubtedly seen in a certain provinciality of tone and slackness in scholarship which showed themselves in its earlier results, but which are now amply counterbalanced by the originality and vigorous individuality of the younger writers. As a consequence, the reproach sometimes brought against Fleischer and his followers that they paid more attention to the scrupulous editing of texts than to the study of Muslim life and thought, does not hold here. It is true that the movement began with the publication by Codera, Ribera, Zaydin, and Tarrago of a most valuable series—the "Bibliotheca Arabico-Hispana"—of original texts, but that was only the necessary foundation for the more constructive work now being done. In this last the geographical advantages of the Spanish scholars show themselves. Arabic literature, thought, and history are not locally foreign for them: they are actually part of the life of the Spanish people, and can be studied as such a part. The Spaniard who takes them up has not turned his back on his country and gone far away for his objects of interest; he is still a student of things Spanish. He is safe, too, of his audience: his books will appeal directly to all educated Spain. Hence have come two very mingled results. On the one hand, the Spanish Arabist must have in view those educated, interested, but non-Arabist readers. He may not write for scholars only. This, while it humanizes and broadens his work, undoubtedly blunts its precision. But, on the other hand, Spanish writers who are not Arabists often deal luminously and well with Arabic subjects. Through them a breadth of literary and historical perception is brought to bear which such studies at the hands of specialists too often lack. In this way even the mass of the people is reached. Not long ago there appeared a tiny volume, evidently intended for the most popular use, on the Arabic literature of Spain.

The same is well seen in the present book, the latest and most important of the series called "Colección de Estudios Árabes," and the first volume of several to deal at length with al-Ghazzali. Its author is a young Arabist of Zaragoza and a pupil of Julián Ribera, but to it is prefixed a very valuable and suggestive preface by the veteran littérateur and publicist, Menéndez y Pelayo, in which he draws out the threads of connection, bringing the influence of al-Ghazzali down into modern thought. One of these, the shortest, has long been traced and recognized. When the schoolmen, from Alexander Hales to Thomas Aquinas, quote Algazel, it is as a writer of Aristotelian compends; yet this was the least important and most mechanical side of his work. But when, in the thirteenth century, Raimund Martini, the Catalan Dominican and controversalist, came to study al-Ghazzali, he took over from him into the 'Pugio Fidei' the sceptical side of his system, using it against the Averroists to establish the necessity of a revelation. From the 'Pugio Fidei' that system passed, namelessly, into the 'Summa contra Gentes' of Thomas Aquinas, and, long after, into the 'Pensées' of Pascal. From Aquinas it came to Campanella and Leibnitz. Finally as a mystic, al-Ghazzali influenced most powerfully the eccentric ascetic, Raymond Lully. Thus, as scholastic, as sceptic, and as mystic he has worked upon European thought.

The most of this has as yet made little impression on our students of philosophy. The "Arabian philosophy," as all speculative thought written in Arabic is absurdly called, is generally passed by as either dead or unintelligible and negligible. But if Señor Asín carries out his plan and follows this stout little volume with three others, a monument will have been set to al-Ghazzali which no student of philosophy will be able to neglect. His work so far is excellently done, better perhaps upon al-Ghazzali himself than in the introductory chapters. In these there is some uncertainty of touch, and the earlier history, theological and otherwise, is not always rightly rendered. Nor can his telling of the external life of al-Ghazzali always be defended. But his spiritual development and the growth of his system have been studied with an assiduity and in a detail never before applied; and the result as a whole cannot be too highly commended. Through the labor of Señor Asín it is at last possible for the non-Arabist to learn to know the one lovable Muslim writer, the one Muslim theologian who is of the rank of Augustine, and a thinker who, though dying in the early twelfth century, is yet in the closest touch with modern Europe.

Señor Asín is in the orders, and evidently a faithful son of the Church of Rome. His training in its scholastic philosophy has, in the present work, stood him in good stead. But the following words of his, to which Menéndez y Pelayo also subscribes, will show that the independent and dignified obedience which Spain has always professed towards the Roman See is still the Spanish spirit:

"Para cumplir con el espíritu y la letra de la encíclica *Æterni Patris*, en que Su Santidad abogaba, años hace, por la restauración de la Escolástica, es preciso seguir las huellas de los más insignes doctores escolásticos. Así como Alberto Magno, Raimundo Martín, Lulio y otros muchos no se avergonzaban de tomar de la filosofía arábiga todo lo que en ella encontraban de utilizable para adaptarlo á la dogmática cristiana, no de otro modo debemos en nuestros días aprovechar todo legítimo progreso que aparezca en la literatura filosófica contemporánea, seguros de que así haremos avanzar á la filosofía cristiana más y mejor, que permaneciendo petrificados en los textos que ya pasaron, atentos exclusivamente á repetirlos y comentarlos."

To these words we can all well subscribe, and see in them the true hope for the Spanish future.

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*L'Habitation Byzantine.* Recherches sur l'Architecture Civile des Byzantins et son Influence in Europe. Par le Général L. de Beylié. Grenoble: Falque & F. Perrin; Paris: E. Leroux. 1902. Small folio, pp. xvi., 220. Many separate plates and text illustrations.

This book, issued in portfolio and not sewed, contains 400 illustrations, some of which have been drawn from manuscripts, early maps and the like, some from frescoes and mosaics, some from existing buildings (generally in ruin), and some direct from trustworthy books, such as Vogüé's 'La Syrie Centrale.' These illustrations are closely connected with the text in a careful way, and their character is not at all that of mere decorations. Some of the little drawings found in rare manuscripts in the Vatican and elsewhere have been made, as the author thinks, more intelligible; but we have his word for it that notice is given in every case, by the words "dessin rectifié."

The text is divided into five parts of from two to four chapters each. The first part deals with the Roman dwelling before the

fourth century A. D.; the second with the Byzantine dwelling in the fourth and fifth centuries; the third with the Byzantine dwelling down to the fifteenth century, with special reference to Constantinople; the fourth with Byzantine palaces outside of Greece (by which geographical term is to be understood here the whole region of the long-continuing Byzantine Empire, since Venice and Ravenna come into this part, with the palaces of the Kremlin); and the fifth with decoration and movable objects of fine art. There is a conclusion, which is little more than a conversational summing-up of the demonstrations and the opinions contained in the body of the work.

The book is very handsomely printed, on paper of attractive surface, giving a clear, black impression of type and cuts alike; and the same paper is used for the separate plates—a seemly and even artistical procedure much too rare in our bookmaking. The proofreading has been negligently done, and there are obvious faults of gender, and omitted or wrongly set accents and omissions of the diæresis, and the like, very odd to see. And, indeed, we take the book to be the work of one not practised in the art of description and demonstration. He writes, however, with a straightforward simplicity natural to the man who is strongly interested in one very attractive and very little studied subject. Plainly he tells us, in the first page of the preface, how very few are the available materials—the houses of central Syria; some few ruins in Constantinople; a scrap of Theodorus's palace at Ravenna; a newly explored large house at Melnic near Salonika; together with manuscripts, mosaics, and such-like documents and a few sculptured reliefs. The comparisons he draws from Byzantine palaces in Venice and vaulted halls in Moscow are not urged in advance; they are left for the careful reader. The preface merely goes on to state that as yet nothing has been done in the way of study of the remains in the south of Italy, and in Istria, Dalmatia, and Constantinople itself.

The trouble is that there must be, for this study, much use of the spade and pick, much tearing out and digging up, much uncovering of Byzantine masonry now concealed either by more recent partitions, floors, roofs, and walls, or by accumulations of rubbish. If some millionaire would buy the old houses of Venice, to begin with; then buy up real estate in and near Ravenna; then, making use of simple legal dodges, acquire practical control of property in towns of the Balkan peninsula, especially Salonika and Constantinople—thereafter research might really begin. Our author seems to feel the necessity of such original work, and to have put forward the book now in hand as a plea for further and more complete study.

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*The Story of a Strange Career:* Being the Autobiography of a Convict. Edited by Stanley Waterloo. D. Appleton & Co.

In a speech delivered at Lorain, O., on September 6, Mr. Bigelow, Democratic candidate for Secretary of State, is reported to have said: "It makes all the difference whether a man steals a little or a great deal; whether he violates a law in stealing or steals with the assistance of the law. We want to know how much a man steals before we decide to send him to the penitentiary or to the Senate." As the author of 'The Story of a Strange Career' gives no details of a total of thirty years of penal servitude, we are unable to learn whether he stole a little or a great deal; presumably enough to make him eligible for the penitentiary, but not sufficient to enable him to select the alternative.

His story is commonplace, and not worthy of much attention. On the maternal side he came of "an old New York family." On the paternal he claims Irish descent. At an early age, through choice, he sailed before the mast as an apprentice on a ship bound from New York to Canton. Before the voyage had proceeded very far, the captain of the vessel was found murdered in his cabin, and the author was arrested for the crime. The ship put back to Charleston, S. C., where he was placed upon trial. He was acquitted for lack of evidence. He devotes considerable space to this episode, confirming in the narration of it what his editor says of him, that "a cheerful reminiscent vein runs through all he tells. His sense of humor is ever present." This incident retarded, but did not cut short his career as a sailor. He followed the usual routine of life before the mast—semi-tragic or grotesque, with its hardships and questionable adventures. Twice he enlisted in the British navy, and as many times deserted that service.

There is one incident of his seafaring career which we give as he relates it, because it may reveal, perhaps, what is meant by the "literature of conscience" to which his editor assigns this narrative:

"This was the toughest crew I ever sailed with—nearly all old acquaintances in Mobile. The amount of money in our possession was over a thousand dollars in gold coin. Usually, sailors on a ship's leaving port are all dead broke. An Irishman, for security, had bound a rag around his ankle containing sixty dollars. One morning his rag was missing. He bewailed his loss at a terrible rate. Somebody had quietly shaved his original money-belt with a razor while he was taking his sleep on deck during a night watch. I was the next victim; twenty dollars in gold was taken from my sea chest. I said very little about my loss, as I had a strong suspicion that a certain man had taken it. He had shown me how safe his money was. It was rolled up in a rag in his trousers' pocket with a string tied around the outside of the pocket, so that the money could not be reached unless the string was untied, and that could not be done without removing his trousers, as he explained to me. His custom was to get into bed all a-stand—that is, without undressing. The first stormy night we had plenty of work to do, reefing topsails, and all of us were tired and sleepy when our watch went below. All were soon asleep but myself, for my hour of revenge had arrived. With a sharp penknife I cut a slit in the trousers of my dishonest friend, the end of the pocket containing the gold slipped out; then I cut off the whole business. *The money was all I wanted*, and the *string, rag, and remnants of the pocket* I left as a *souvenir*" (the italics are ours).

It is needless to add that the narrator "'planted' the money in a secure place."

At the opening of the civil war he was appointed an acting volunteer ensign in the navy. In this capacity he showed ability and courage. He was taken prisoner by the Confederates, and remained in captivity for a considerable period. He was honorably discharged at the close of the conflict. Once more out of employment, he went West, and lately died in Joliet prison, Illinois, while serving a sentence for burglary.

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*Recollections of a Long Life:* An Autobiography. By Theodore Ledyard Cuyler, D.D., LL.D. New York: The Baker & Taylor Co.

The arrangement of Dr. Cuyler's book is more topical than chronological, but one is able to extract from it a pretty good idea of the succession of his busy years. It is evident that he has always loved his work and that he has been genial in his personal relations; and these particulars furnish us with the explanation of his good fortune in the pursuit of his clerical calling. Moreover, he has had little disposition to overhaul his traditional orthodoxy, and his ideas of the Bible have remained as simple as if no modern critic, from Strauss to Cheyne, had ever written a word. Yet the man's human sympathies are much wider than his criticism or his creed. He has been unable to resist the charm of personal distinction, whatever its ecclesiastical associations. He tells us that he went abroad on his first visit "keen for lion-hunting," and, whether abroad or at home, this sport has always had for him a powerful fascination. The major part of his book is devoted to his acquaintance with famous people, ecclesiastical, literary, and political. On his first visit to Europe, and again thirty years later, he visited Carlyle, and his success with the perfervid Scot was quite equal to that achieved by any casual American visitor. At one time and another, Dr. Cuyler saw Gladstone at considerable advantage, and other personages of great reputation. It is possible that we should not too implicitly rely upon the accuracy of his report of things said and done by his famous people. Lincoln, passing through New York on his way to his inauguration, he describes as "the most august and majestic figure that he ever beheld." Another observer describes him, with more apparent verisimilitude, as looking miserably unimpressive and forlorn.

As with things seen, so with things heard; the rhetorical habit seems to have been a perverting medium. But Dr. Cuyler does not endorse the good temperance character given to Webster recently by Edward Everett Hale. He "once saw him when his brain was raked with the chain-shot of alcohol." Dr. Cuyler's rhetoric tends to this vivid hue. It degenerates into a kind of slang when he writes of his essays in revivalism. "From the start in Brooklyn," he says, "I struck for souls." There is a good ring in a passage that denounces the absolutism of our government of the Filipinos. There are some misprints—"Waverly" novels, "Henry Wordsworth Longfellow." Dr. Channing is called "Ellery Channing." But so much cheerful godliness would atone for much more serious defects. The succession of portraits from youth to old age is interesting for its diverse identity.

---

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Armstrong, Edward. The Emperor Charles V. 2 vols. Macmillan. $7.

Baedeker, Karl: Southern France, including Corsica. New ed. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $2.70.

Baldry, A. L. Modern Mural Decoration. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $5.

Besant, Walter. No Other Way. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Betts, Lillian W. The Leaven in a Great City. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Botsford, G. W. An Ancient History for Beginners. Macmillan.
Braden, J. A. Far Past the Frontier; or, The Two Boy Pioneers. Saalfield Pub. Co.
Brady, C. T. Border Fights and Fighters. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.30.
Breakspeare, E. J. Mozart. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Canfield, H. S. The Boys of Rincon Ranch. Century Co. $1.
Carlyle, Thomas. The French Revolution. (Edinburgh Edition.) Scribners. $1.52.
Chignell, Robert. J. M. W. Turner, R.A. (The Makers of British Art.) London: The Walter Scott Pub. Co.; New York: Scribners, $1.25.
Clark, Kate U. Move Upward. (What Is Worth While Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 28 cents.
Cloud, Virginia W. A Reed by the River. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.
Compayré, Gabriel. Development of the Child in Later Infancy: Being Part II. of the Intellectual and Moral Development of the Child. (International Education Series.) Translated by Mary E. Wilson. D. Appleton & Co.
Corelli, Marie. A Christmas Greeting. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Crawford, Mary C. The Romance of Old New England Rooftrees. (Little Pilgrimages.) Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Cutting, Mary S. Little Stories of Married Life. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.25.
Dix, Beulah M. A Little Captive Lad. Macmillan. $1.50.
Douglas, G. C. M. Samuel and his Age: A Study in the Constitutional History of Israel. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. $2.50.
Edgar, Pelham. The Struggle for a Continent: Edited from the Writings of Francis Parkman. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Eliot, Ida M., and Caroline G. Soule. Caterpillars and their Moths. Century Co. $2.
Essays of Montaigne. Translated by Charles Cotton. 4 vols. W. C. Hazlitt. London: Reeves & Turner; New York: Scribners. $12.
Fairless, Michael. The Roadmender. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Field, Roswell The Romance of an Old Fool. Evanston (Ill.): Wiliam S. Lord. $1.25.
Fowler, Ellen T. Fuel of Fire. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Francis, M. E. The Manor Farm: A Novel. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
French, Allen. Sir Marrok: A Tale of the Days of King Arthur. Century Co. $1.
Fuchs, Otto. Handbook on Linear Perspective, Shadows and Reflections. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gardner, Ruth K. In Happy Far-Away Land. From Tales Told by Frances P. Kimball. Zimmerman's. $1.50.
Girdlestone, R. B. The Grammar of Prophecy: An Attempt to Discover the Method Underlying the Prophetic Scriptures. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. $2.50.
Goss, C. F. The Loom of Life. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Harris, J. C. Gabriel Tolliver: A Story of Reconstruction. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Harrison, Edith O. Prince Silverwings and Other Fairy Tales. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Harte, Bret. Condensed Novels. Second Series: New Burlesques. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Hansen, George. Baby Roland Series: (1) Vespers, (2) Lima Beans, (3) Ascent of Man. San Francisco: Paul Elder & Morgan Shepard.
Henry, A. H. By Order of the Prophet: A Tale of Utah. New ed. Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.50.
Higginson, T. W. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. (American Men of Letters.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10.
Hunter, S. J. Elementary Studies in Insect Life. Topeka (Kan.): Crane & Co. $1.25.
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Ilo, W. A. Hazel Pierce. A. Hograve & Co.
Ingoldsby, Thomas, and E. M. Jessop. The Jackdaw of Rheims. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Johnson, Clifton. New England and its Neighbors. (American Highways and Byways.) Macmillan. $2.
Knapp, Adeline. The Boy and the Baron. Century Co. $1.
Lanier, Clifford. Apollo and Keats on Browning. A Phantasy, and Other Poems. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Lansing, Robert, and G. M. Jones. Government, Its Origin, Growth, and Form in the United States. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Leypoldt, A. H. The Publishers' Trade List Annual, 1902. Publishers' Weekly.
London, Jack. Children of the Frost. Macmillan. $1.50.
London, Jack. The Cruise of the Dazzler. Century Co. $1.
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McIlvaine, Charles, and Macadam, R. K. One Thousand American Fungi: How to Select and Cook the Edible; How to Distinguish and Avoid the Poisonous. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
McMurry, Charles. A Teacher's Manual of Geography. Macmillan. 40c.
Mead, Leon. Word-Coinage: Being an Enquiry into Recent Neologisms, also a Brief Study of Literary Style, Slang, and Provincialisms. (Handy Information Series.) Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 45 cents.
Mead, Lucia A. Milton's England. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.60.
Mélanges Linguistiques, offerts à M. Antoine Meillet par ses Elèves, D. Barbelenet, G. Dottin, R. Gauthiot, M. Grammont, A. Laronde, M. Niedermann, J. Vendryes. Paris: C. Klincksieck.
Morey, W. C. The Government of New York: Its History and Administration. (Handbooks of American Government.) Macmillan. 75 cents.
Morning Glory. The American Diary of a Japanese Girl. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.60.
Morris, Gouverneur. Aladdin O'Brien. Century Co. $1.25.
Morrison, Arthur. The Hole in the Wall. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Moulton, F. R. An Introduction to Celestial Mechanics. Macmillan. $3.50.
Murray, Dr. J. A. H. Oxford English Dictionary. Vol. 8, part i. Q. Henry Frowde.
Newell, Peter. Topsys and Turvys: A Rhyming Colored Picture Book. Century Co. $1.
Nichols, F. H. Through Hidden Shensi. Scribners. $3.50.
Nicolay, J. G. A Short Life of Abraham Lincoln: Condensed from Nicolay and Hay's Abraham Lincoln: A History. Century Co. $2.40.
Parker, Gilbert. Donovan Pasha, and Some People of Egypt. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
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Quiller-Couch, A. T. The White Wolf, and Other Fireside Tales. Scribners. $1.50.
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Roberts, C. G. D. Barbara Ladd. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.
Robertson, J. G. A History of German Literature. London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Schleinitz, Otto von. Walter Crane. Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Schröer, Arnold. Chr. Fr. Grieb's Dictionary of the English and German Languages, Vol. II.: German and English. Tenth ed. Henry Frowde.
Seligman, E. R. A. The Economic Interpretation of History. Columbia University Press (Macmillan). $1.50.
Sherlock Holmes. (Two Copy-Book System.) Philadelphia: Edward Roth.
Smith, Charlotte C. Bob Knight's Diary, Camping Out, with Sketches by Bob. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.20.
Smith, Nora A. Three Little Marys. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 85 cents.
Snow, A. H. The Administration of Dependencies. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Spearman, F. H. Doctor Bryson. A Novel. Scribners. $1.50.
Spiers, R. P. The Orders of Architecture, Greek, Roman, and Italian. New ed. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $4.
Spofford, Harriet P. The Great Procession, and Other Verses for and about Children. Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Stephen, Leslie. History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century. 2 vols. Third ed. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $8.
Stevenson, B. E. Tommy Remington's Battle. Century Co. $1.
Stillman, Annie R. Fool's Gold: A Study in Values. Fleming H. Revell & Co. $1.50.
Stokoe, T. H. Life and Letters of St. Paul. 2 parts. Henry Frowde. 4s.
Stories of Charlemagne and the Twelve Peers of France: From the Old Romances. Macmillan. $1.75.
Struthers, Joseph. The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology, and Trade. Vol. X. The Engineering and Mining Journal.
Sturt, Henry. Personal Idealism. Macmillan. $3.25.
Taggart, A. Marion. The Wyndham Girls. Century Co. $1.20.
Tarkington, Booth. The Two Vanrevels. McClure, Phillips & Co. $1.50.
Tasty Dishes. R. F. Fenno & Co. 50 cents.
The American Idea as Expounded by American Statesmen. Compiled by J. B. Gilder. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
The Bogey Book. Pictured by R. J. S. London: Eyre & Spottswoode: New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.
The Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe. Vols. I.-V. Edited by C. F. Richardson. (The Booklover's Arnheim Edition.) G. P. Putnam's Sons.
The Living Age. Vol. ccxxxiv. Boston: The Living Age. Co.
Thieme, H. P. Sans Famille, par Hector Malot. H. Holt & Co.
Thomas, Edward. Horæ Solitariæ. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Tinker, C. B. Beowulf. Newson & Co. $1.
Tomlinson, E. T. Under Colonial Colors: A Tale of Arnold's Expedition in 1775. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.20.
Truscott, L. P. The Poet and Penelope. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Upton, G. P. Memories: A Story of German Life, from the German of Max Müller. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Upton, G. P. The Standard Light Operas. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Valentine, E. S., and Tomlinson, F. L. Travels in Space: A History of Aerial Navigation. London: Hurst & Blackett.
Venable, W. H. Tom Tad. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
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[B 63]

# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER* 16, 1902.

## The Week.

As we go to press, the strike leaders are considering an offer from the operators to submit "all questions at issue between the respective companies and their own employees" to a commission of five disinterested experts to be appointed by the President; this upon condition of immediate resumption of work without objection to, or further molestation of, non-union workers. This offer has the advantage over Mitchell's, of seemingly like tenor, in that it prescriptively excludes politics from the commission. It has the moral virtue of conceding nothing to the dominating spirit of trade-unionism. Its fate will be known by the time these lines are read. While we wish it success, we have no desire to qualify what we have written elsewhere on the general aspects of the strike up to the present attempt at settlement. The President's intervention from first to last will forever stand as a sign of *national* concern with the chronic disturbance of American industry and commerce by unscrupulous and tyrannical labor organizations. The present contest, we may be sure, is not the last, even if the operators' offer be accepted. But it is something to have stood for the principle of free labor and free contract like men, and to have averted a

"dishonest victory
At Chæronea, fatal to liberty."

---

Mr. Goldwin Smith, of whom it may still be said, as Cobden said of him forty years ago, that "his pen is a power in the state," had a brief but weighty letter on the coal strike in Sunday's *Sun*. The sum of it is, that the crisis calls for a new assertion of the national authority. He points out that anthracite mining has clearly become a national interest, and maintains that the national Government ought to have power, when local government fails, to "declare the imperilled interest national and take the matter into its own hands." By this Mr. Smith does not mean to countenance any scheme of "nationalizing" the mining business. He desires, rather, to see it simply rationalized. That is, he would have it and all parties to it made subject to Federal law, so that when the comfort and well-being and almost the very life of the people are threatened, we shall not have to present to the world the spectacle of a great nation unable to protect itself from internal enemies. Mr. Smith's letter closes with these words:

"The political verdict of the civil war was that you were no longer a federation of sovereign States, but a nation. Confirmation of this verdict may be a useful and redeeming consequence of the strike."

This acute and friendly observer has put his finger on the sore spot. All reflecting Americans have felt, within the past few weeks, a sort of baffled and angry sense of national impotence and humiliation.

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Is there not a solemn warning for the Republican party in the way in which its campaign has been shattered to fragments by the coal strike? Here we see its managers in two great States, with critical elections on their hands, dropping everything in unconcealed alarm, and practically confessing that they are beaten in advance unless they are able to settle a labor difficulty. What a pitiable state of panic for a great party to fall into! And the worst of it is that it is the direct result of its own boasted claims and favorite teachings. It has posed as the guardian angel of every laboring man, the universal provider of prosperity, fatuously failing to perceive how this attitude puts it at the mercy of every industrial disturbance or crop failure that comes along. In 1892 it was the rueful confession of Republicans that it was the Homestead strike that lost them the Presidency. Yet since then, with redoubled folly, the party leaders have gone on delivering themselves into the hands of strikers and agitators, until now they are aghast at the political precipice up to which they have walked so light-heartedly. It is in vain for them to point to good administration at Washington and Albany, at better appointments, at economy, at far-sighted plans of tax reform—all is swept away in the angry demand that a party which undertakes to make every citizen happy and prosperous, end the coal strike at once or be dashed from power. This perilous situation should awaken thoughtful Republicans to the frightful mistake their party has been making all these years.

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If Secretary Shaw's direction to collectors, to "facilitate" in every way the importation of coal, means, as is broadly hinted, that the legal duties will be waived, we have a still more alarming example than was his suspension of the bank-reserve rule, of nullifying the law by executive interpretation. No one can hold a lower opinion of the tariff on coal than we do. It is unnecessary, vexing, foolish. It is one of the most hateful instances of protectionist greed. But there it stands in the law, and, until repealed, must be enforced. Winking at an evasion of it would bring both the law and the Secretary into contempt. We were going to say that it would bring the whole protective policy into contempt; but that work is, at present, one of the purest supererogation. We do not remember the time when protection was in such disgrace, even in the house of its friends. Its very devotees and apologists have such gentle words to apply to it as blood-sucking and piracy. But there must be no attempts to punish the protectionist blood-suckers and pirates. Oh, no; to do that, the President says, would "unsettle confidence."

---

Now we have Secretary Moody proposing to rip open the tariff and paralyze business. In his speech at Madison, Wis., he asserted of his own knowledge that the duty on coal of 67 cents a ton was "covertly and in a cowardly manner smuggled into the Dingley bill." He urged, and Washington dispatches say that the President will recommend, that Congress promptly remove that tax on a necesssary of life. But how can the thing be done? Has not President Roosevelt himself protested against tariff-tinkering? Did he not find out, in the case of the protective duty on beet-sugar, that it is impossible to strike at one greedy interest without arousing all the other greedy interests to come to its rescue? The President has much to learn about the way protective tariffs are made and maintained if he imagines that what Secretary Moody calls "blood-money" can be taken out of them without exsanguinating the whole system. What if selfish and cowardly duties were smuggled into the law, no one but wicked Democrats will talk about forcing them out. If the President and Secretary Moody go on talking about the monstrously unjust tariff taxes that Congress should repeal, the protected interests will send Lodge to the White House and the Navy Department to repeat his great speech on the impossibility of any patriot uttering the words tariff revision except in a whisper and in a dark closet.

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In the midst of the coal crisis and of much other internal disorder, we are asked to give attention to our duties as guardian of the island of Cuba, and to see that she fulfils her duties to us. She has not signed the treaty which is required under the Platt Amendment. She has not turned over to us any coaling stations or forts. She has not completed the treaty of reciprocity which we have offered to her. The worst of it is, however, that, after all we have done for Cuba, she does not love us. How sharper than a serpent's tooth! But this is only a beginning of our outside perplexities. Congress will soon be requested to assume responsibility for the Danish West Indies and to pay $5,000,-

000 cash for that privilege, plus a considerable stipend each year to meet the deficit which has been a charge on the Danish treasury. Confronting us also is the much greater problem of getting rid of the friars in the Philippines, paying them off, disposing of their lands, and bringing in their successors. Added to this is the task of preparing the Filipinos for "ultimate self-government"—except the Moros. The duty of killing the latter is still upon us. They are unconscionable Mohammedans, polygamists, and slaveholders. We must put them down anyhow. There has been an earthquake and tidal wave at Guam, and the officer in charge there has sent a pressing appeal for money and material to rebuild the piers and barracks. From Hawaii comes an urgent request for permission to introduce Chinese labor, and also a counter petition which tells of intolerable cruelty practised upon natives of Porto Rico who had been induced to migrate to Hawaii to take the places of Chinese coolies hitherto working there. The foolish may now ask whether the problems which face Uncle Sam in his own territory are not sufficient to engage his energies and tax his ingenuity without seeking new ones on the other side of the globe, or even in the neighboring waters of the Caribbees.

---

The refusal of the Sultan of Bacolod to accept the blessings of American civilization is one of the most singular happenings of the hour. This wretch actually prefers death to the kind of Americanization which has been going on in Luzon, and Samar, and elsewhere these last four years. With inconceivable stupidity and shortsightedness he would rather be ruler of his own lands than accept the sovereignty of the United States as enforced by Gov. Taft and Gen. Sumner. Instead of being ready to have Christianity forced down his throat at the same time, he wishes to die for Mohammedanism from bullets fired in the name of the Prince of Peace. Anybody, we insist, who is such a blockhead as to decline all these advantages, including the enforced learning of English, particularly when they are offered by the Republican party, ought to be done away with, and very promptly, too. If anybody insinuates that this killing of hundreds of Mohammedans in an equatorial island 8,000 miles away is despicable and unworthy business for a great nation, why, tell him he is unpatriotic, set him, as Secretary Shaw would suggest, to singing "America," and talk about the coal strike.

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The paralysis of law, in a community over-afflicted with petty politics and labor-union tyranny, had sharp illustration in New Orleans last week. For days the riotous striking motormen dominated the city and defied its police force. Men were ready to take the places of the strikers, but not a car was run. With policemen enough on Canal Street, according to the local papers, to have swept the thoroughfare clear of rioters as fast as the route could be traversed, barricades were built on the tracks, the cars were stopped almost as soon as they left the barns, and their motormen were beaten and dragged away. "Please give way there, gentlemen," said the polite policemen on the cars, "we don't want trouble"; and not a police club met the bludgeons of the mob. To club a brick-throwing striker might be to club a political worker of one of the Police Commissioners. Besides, unionists have votes, and election day is only three weeks distant. Nor could reliance be placed on the local militiamen, who forgot their oaths to the State in their sympathy for unionism, or their fear of its boycott; and the strikers modified their terms only when confronted by militia brought from the rural districts, where there is less of corrupt politics and of union domination.

---

The Grand Army treated the new Pension Commissioner rather badly on Thursday, in that it failed to rebuke him for standing in the way of the veterans who wish to coin their patriotism. We must confess that Mr. Ware has thus got a good deal to live down, for every watchful and efficient Commissioner has hitherto been so savagely attacked by the Grand Army that this treatment had come to be regarded as a certificate of merit, and its absence as a ground for suspicion. We doubt whether President Roosevelt will like the outgoing Commander-in-chief's assertion that the Grand Army compelled the retirement of Commissioner Evans. The President gave other reasons, and it should cause him considerable food for reflection, now that he finds the pension-grabbers rejoicing over it, and saying, "We did it." Mr. Ware having removed the Chief Pension Examiner, who was a foe to dishonesty and fraudulent pensions, the Grand Army has moved on to attack a third of the safeguards supposed to protect the Treasury from unwarranted rifflers. Its Pension Committee assailed the whole medical division of the Pension Bureau, declaring it "a dead line where are executed the claims of veterans seeking pensions." By all means let us get rid of this protection, and turn the Treasury wide open to the swindlers and the shirks as well as the deserving. There are 200,000 veterans without pensions, Gen. Torrance declared. At any cost let us give them everything they want, and demonstrate the fact that true patriotism consists in mulcting your Government as much as possible because you did your duty honorably, or dishonorably, forty years ago.

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Earnings of the Steel Corporation for the September quarter add their testimony to the remarkable prosperity of the iron trade. The company's earnings during the past three months, in excess of operating expenses, have surpassed last year's by eight million dollars, or 28 per cent. Part of this increase results, no doubt, from the fact that last year's strike of steel workers came in the summer quarter. One curious part of last year's showing, however, was that the company's net earnings increased in each successive month of the strike until September; July, 1901, showing $185,000 more net receipts than June, and August $230,000 more than July. The higher price of the company's products counts for much this year. Prices now range, in fact, from 10 to 50 per cent. above those of this date a year ago. Not only has pig-iron risen since last October from $14.90 to $22 per ton, but steel billets, a staple product of the trade, sell at Pittsburgh now for $29.50, as against $26.50 a year ago, and $16.50 in 1900; the other forms of steel having advanced correspondingly. This great advance may fairly be said to have occurred in the face of the company's efforts to maintain a steady market. It is, in fact, an index to the enormous continuing demand for iron, chiefly for building purposes. Our import, during the eight first months in the present year, of 160,000 tons more foreign steel than we took in 1901, is one evidence of this American demand. The situation suggests two comments. The first should be, on the utter absurdity and wrongfulness of the 30 per cent. duty on these steel imports at a time when the public revenue is too large already and the home steel-maker unable to meet the home demand. The second is, on the singularity of the demand, by a company in the Steel Corporation's present situation, that there be saddled on the enterprise a debt of $200,000,000, through which not a dollar of new assets is obtained.

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After a censored war, a censored inquiry into it. That was the case with our Philippine war, and now it is to be the course with the South African war also. The Royal Commission of investigation begins its labors by excluding the press. This is as if in humble imitation of Lodge's committee at Washington. And the reasons alleged in either instance are curiously alike, and curiously fallacious. As long as the war is in progress, no questions must be asked. It would be unpatriotic to ask any; it would only encourage the enemy; it is well known that the bravest and purest soldiers cannot fight so well when their peculations and violations of the laws of war are exposed. Wait till the war is over, and then thrust in the probe as deeply as you please. Well, the end of the war comes at last, and the promise of thorough investigation the Government finds it highly inconvenient to

fulfil. A Royal Commission is named, but certain subjects of inquiry are carefully withdrawn from it. The old excuses, supposed to be good only for war-time, are alleged again—we must not betray our military weakness; we dare not give aid and comfort to a possible enemy in the future. And, to crown all, the Commission is to sit in secret. If anything disagreeable should be put in evidence, you know! Besides, the Commission will publish all that the public really ought to have. We Americans can see how absurd this is in the English.

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Mr. Balfour convenes Parliament today, and will renew the discussion of the Education Bill, the essential clauses of which have already been passed. He has before him the alternatives of jamming the bill through in its original form—a policy which would threaten a prompt dissolution—or of withdrawing it ignominiously and continuing the present makeshifts, or of accepting a compromise which would give all religious denominations equal privileges in the schools. During the prorogation of Parliament the matter of public primary education has been vigorously debated in both the Unionist and the Liberal press, and it may fairly be said that the whole question has passed beyond Mr. Balfour's control. Many of his own supporters look longingly towards the non-sectarian schools of America, and even those who insist upon denominational control of the schools desire freedom of voluntary religious instruction, under some form of the Faribault plan. Undoubtedly a small but influential part of the majority will insist that the Church schools offer in their buildings, valued at $20,000,000, an equivalent for the support they are to receive from the rate-payers. But the rate-payers are not of this opinion, and if Mr. Balfour persists in saddling upon the people schools maintained from the rates, but managed by denominational committees, he will force a political crisis.

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Mr. Chamberlain has told the Liberal Unionists that on the Education Bill the Ministerial programme is battle, not compromise. He adds that the bill is not to his taste—he would personally prefer secular to denominational education; but he promises the measure his loyal support; and, since the Ministry is irretrievably committed to the Bishops' plan, he bids Liberal Unionists pocket their prejudices and swallow the bill. Unless the dispatches misrepresent the tone of his address, he assumes that the dose will be a bitter one. Mr. Chamberlain is a fighter, and his loyalty in this matter is unquestioned, but one cannot help remembering that if Mr. Balfour should perish politically while leading this forlorn hope, Mr. Chamberlain would certainly survive, and would almost inevitably assume the vacated command of the baffled Unionist forces. This obvious consideration does not detract from the sincerity of that counsel which bids Mr. Balfour take the chances of attack rather than abide the perils of retreat, but it explains why Mr. Chamberlain is able to urge desperate courses with a certain cheerfulness.

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The celebration of the tercentenary of the Bodleian Library at Oxford, which took place last week, is an event of more than local importance. Scholars from the entire civilized world have enjoyed the hospitality of its shadowy alcoves, and have received the courteous assistance of its accomplished staff. A great storehouse of books thus administered deserves Professor Dixon's appellation—"An International University." Sir Thomas Bodley, when he founded a library as an ultra-British and ultra-Stuart university, could not have imagined that he was endowing an essentially cosmopolitan institution, and it was two generations before the German-born Hollander and pioneer English philologer Francis Junius gave his Anglo-Saxon collection to his neighbor, Bodley's librarian, for the use of all students in perpetuity. This was perhaps the first hint of the international character that the Bodleian Library was to assume. No one who has read in the halls that Duke Humphrey of Gloucester built and Sir Thomas Bodley rebuilt and filled with books, could fail to attend in spirit the recent ceremonies. And hundreds of students who have not had that good fortune have yet had occasion, by correspondence, to test the fidelity and good will of the administrators of Sir Thomas Bodley's trust. There are great libraries which are veritable cemeteries of books, and in which a reader is almost an intruder. This the Bodleian emphatically is not, and the attendance of representatives of many lands and institutions of learning of the Bodleian tercentenary, is, perhaps, quite as much a tribute to the enlightened management of Sir E. Maunde Thompson, Mr. Nicholson, and their assistants, as it is to the revered memory of Sir Thomas Bodley.

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The riotous demonstrations at the opening of the Hungarian Parliament may merely represent the permanently unhappy conditions of Parliamentary debate in the Dual Monarchy, or they may portend a bitter opposition to the renewal of the fiscal apportionment *(Ausgleich)* between Austria and Hungary. It is to be feared that the graver interpretation is the truer one. Since December, 1897, this battle of the *Ausgleich* has been fought, and while the minor controversies that disturbed the parliaments of the Empire and its constituent kingdoms have been thoroughly threshed out, the apportioning of the burdens of empire has resisted solution. The continuation of the old treaty as a *modus vivendi* was probably the only possible course, but it has worked against Austria, and has given the Hungarians every reason for wilful obstruction. Under this temporary arrangement, Hungary pays a little less than one-third of the imperial expenses. The Austrians, who wish to make the apportionment upon the basis of population, not of taxable property, contended that the share of Hungary should be 43.14 per cent.—an extreme claim, which they have subsequently reduced to 36 per cent. If it were purely a fiscal matter, arbitration would be easy. But the whole debate is complicated by a racial incompatibility between the German-Austrians and the Magyars which strikingly recalls the Anglo-Irish imbroglio, and by the dread of the growing Pan-Germanic propaganda. The Emperor, who was bitterly attacked, has maintained an admirable impartiality, and has made gradual progress towards conciliation. He can, however, hardly live to see his work completed, and will leave no successor of equal ability. It is in view of this great uncertainty that the chronic disorder and obstruction in the legislative bodies of Austria is doubly ominous.

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Much of the Macedonian news is from suspect sources, and it is always possible that, the same minor affray being simultaneously reported from several news centres, may assume the aspect of a general uprising. But the disorders on the northern border of Macedonia are already serious enough to warrant the outgiving of a circular note of protest by the Porte, and to elicit a somewhat cynical *non possumus* from the Bulgarian Government. So far the revolutionary bands which operate near the Bulgarian line seem to have it all their own way. Their hope is either to produce a state of chronic irritation which would require the carving out of another independent principality, or to provoke the Turkish troops to atrocities which would arouse the Christian Powers to the point of armed intervention. As to this latter aspiration, it is certain that Turkish nature has not greatly changed since the Armenian massacres, to go no further back, but Turkish policy has somewhat changed. During the brief Grecian campaign the Turkish troops were admirably kept in hand, and repeated none of the horrors of the Russian war. It will be difficult for Zontcheff's or for Sarafof's bands to create a cause for intervention. The circular note of the Porte is probably a kind of notice that the revolt is to be put down with the military arm, and an expression of willingness that any other Power should undertake the duty of keeping the peace in the Balkans.

### THE STATE OF SIEGE.

We are now entering on the sixth month of the investment of the Atlantic seaboard by the forces under Commander-in-chief Mitchell, and a fortnight has elapsed since Commander-in-chief Roosevelt declared the situation extremely annoying, and said it must really terminate at once. In the meantime, the naval manœuvres on the same coast have demonstrated—who knows what? Either our complete immunity from foreign invasion, or the pressing necessity for more ships and more fortifications. To complete the picture, while every political means has been exhausted to effect a surrender of the besiegers, the Grand Army of the Republic has been holding its annual picnic in Washington. Great show of activity by sea in warding off attack from the quarter where attack is not contemplated or entertainable; great show of what we may call Button Patriotism on shore, with blissful ignoring of the new half-year-old rebellion.

The march of the seasons has not been stayed. Winter is upon us, and our Eastern population is preparing to practise those economies and face those hardships which were the lot of the first settlers. This means a turning back of civilization. For lack of fuel, our schools must be closed; hospitals must turn out their inmates; full-pursed charity cannot by any gift of money supply the one universal need. The besiegers without have what is vital to those within. The blockhouse is surrounded by a wily and savage foe, lying in wait for whoever dares issue to fetch water from the spring. Worse than this, some of the besieged are paying tribute to their tormentors, supplying them with ammunition and encouraging them to persevere in reducing the fort. This is the new federation of labor, with its sympathetic strikes and its Peter's pence.

The pauperization of the community goes on apace. The strikers and their poorer victims alike are supported by money that they have not earned. As industries are paralyzed for want of supplies or from the general uncertainty, the idlers are increased, their numbers being swelled by the school-children thrown upon the streets. This means the rapid expansion of the dangerous classes, a hotbed forcing of youthful ruffianism, the most terrible of all. Along with this goes a closer huddling in the congested districts, diminished ventilation, diminished personal cleanliness, lowered vitality from insufficient food and clothing—a premium on contagion and infant mortality which boards of health can no longer cope with. These bodies, charged with powers almost tyrannical to abate nuisances and danger to the public health in ordinary times, are now rendered impotent by the timidity of the State and national authorities, who palter with a social condition worse than the plague.

Let us do the authorities justice; they have no support from the patriotism of the classes or the masses. In the great cities which boast their Union Leagues, we see no meetings to assure the President that courageous action on his part in freeing and protecting labor in the coal region will be sustained by the virtue, intelligence, and philanthropy of the country. Everywhere we see a confusion of the issue, a belittling of the crisis, a happy-go-lucky optimism, or a monstrous demand on the assaulted to cease from resistance. The party press, with the elections close at hand, strives to make the public ear attentive to campaign platitudes about the Trusts. Anything but the question of the hour, clearly regarded, honestly stated, boldly solved as it should be solved. The President at the capital, with his ear to the ground, hears only inarticulate murmurs, not the one voice which marks a nation conscious of its peril and clamorous to be led.

Among the well-meaning there are two sorts of reasoners who combine to darken counsel and to unnerve the will of the Executive. One consists of those who view the coal strike as a thing apart from the every-day manifestations of trade-unionism; and the other, of those who confound it with ordinary strikes. All trade-unionism that embraces strikes among its measures relies for its ultimate success upon intimidation and violence—that is, upon brutality and lawlessness. Whenever this stage is reached, no matter what the average membership of a union for intelligence, sobriety, and self-respect, it touches hands with the mob, whose support it instinctively has and does not decline. It is, even when quiescent, still a potential mob, and one highly organized, with affiliations which now literally go out to the ends of the earth, drawing subsidies from unions of diverse and non-related crafts without reference to the merits of the strike. It has the very stamp of the mob (as seen in the negro lynchings at the South) in its assumption of right without examination or trial. The strike is on—call in the tithes of all the union band; they will be paid without question. The strike exists, therefore it is just. Until this aspect of trade-unionism is seen in its true light of anarchy, it will never cease to devastate the land with unrest and crime, while eating out the manhood of those who passively submit.

The second grave mistake is to think that public policy must disregard the *magnitude* of a disturbance not differing in principle from those commonly endured. Were the coal strike localized in its effects to Pennsylvania, that State might well be left to stew in its own juice of corruption and work out its own salvation. Not only is it not so localized, it has been incited and engineered from without by a foreign combination, while its baleful consequences permeate every part of the country in some degree. No opposition or remedy will, in the nature of the case, avail from the action of other States. The supply of coal is circumscribed; approach to it is denied with bludgeon, torch, and dynamite. The original United States is cut off from a supreme necessary of life without resource unless it be in the Federal Executive. It is as if a scission of that part of the Union had been effected, so far as a right to protection under the national ægis is concerned. New England and the Middle States may truly declare that they have no President at this moment.

The cry is repeated from Washington: Show us the law and we will act. Show us, on the other hand, the law which obliges the Executive to see the independent laborer cheated of his right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness through the instrumentality of general distress and famine exerted against innocent millions. A poor sort of nation, we were told in our first imperial days, that cannot burn its Declaration and hold colonies in subjection, though no one has ever pointed out the warrant of law. What is now demanded of the President, sole representative in our system of the whole people, is to *maintain* the Declaration as regards labor at least, giving no justification to despotism because it is organized, withholding no safeguard from manhood standing aloof from or kept out of the organization. If the laborer A must be free to be idle, laborer B must be free to work. This is the doctrine for all occasions; its enforcement now with a will and with the whole power of the Federal Government is the duty which the President may continue to evade, but cannot disown.

### GOVERNMENT COAL MINES.

In a speech at Brooklyn on Saturday evening, ex-Gov. Hill essayed a defence of the clause of the Democratic State platform which demands that the Government shall take possession of the anthracite coal mines under the law of eminent domain. This proposal is no doubt attractive to many persons who look forward to the coming winter with grave apprehensions of a coal famine. As the plan contemplates fair and just compensation to the owners, we need not consider its legal bearings except to remark that the application of the law of eminent domain is not an instantaneous operation. Appraisal of the numerous properties would be a tedious and protracted task, and would involve a hot dispute. The owners would expect a price based upon past earnings; but since a mine becomes less valuable

every day that it is worked, and is doomed to exhaustion sooner or later, and since the coal-carrying railroads will not be worth much after the coal is gone, a fair price would be much less than a capitalization of the usual income. Therefore the "due process of law" which the Constitution requires could not be carried into effect for a long time, in any event. The present crisis in the coal trade would have passed away long before.

Would it be conducive to the public interest that the Government should undertake the business of coal mining? People who attempt to decide this question off-hand assume that there is some mysterious power in a government, enabling it to take hold of a new and vast business of the most technical and complex nature, and make it a success, where private enterprise and skill of the highest type, backed by unlimited capital, have resulted in a deadlock. The least reflection should convince us that if the Government owned the mines and machinery to-day, it would inevitably break down in an attempt to supply 50,000,000 tons of anthracite coal in twelve months and deliver it to the buyers at the average price heretofore charged for it. The only way it could accomplish any effective work would be to hire the present owners and employees, at suitable salaries, to carry it on. This would be the first thing to do. Increased cost of output would follow directly. Government seldom gets any work done as cheaply or as well as private persons do. The spur of self-interest that devises economies which make up the whole difference between success and failure, would be wanting. Moreover, miners would expect higher wages from the Government than from private operators, and would have considerable influence as voters in deciding what the wages should be. Unless coal mining is to become in part a charge upon the taxpayers, the price of coal would have to be increased largely and permanently.

We have assumed that the Government might secure the services of the men who are now the heads of the mining industry, but this is by no means certain. Very few men possessing the requisite skill and experience could be obtained for the salaries which the Government usually pays to its highest public servants, such as Cabinet Ministers, Justices of the Supreme Court, etc. It is quite certain, however, that the politicians would very soon be scheming for these places, both high and low. If "the Government" which is to own the coal mines means the Government of Pennsylvania, Senator Quay would soon be the boss of all the mines and carrying companies, and every man who entered the service, either as a certificated miner or as a mule-driver, would eventually be an office-holder whose place would be at the disposal of the party machine. All these things would happen unless the Government of Pennsylvania should have means for operating coal mines and railroads superior to those which it has for administering municipal affairs in Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. But it would probably have less, since there would be fewer persons to keep an eye on the office-holders in the mines than on those in the City Hall.

Gov. Hill favors the policy of the national Government instead of State Governments taking charge of the coal mines, because he says it is a national question. In that event the transfer of ownership would not be restricted to anthracite mines. It would embrace bituminous mines and lignite beds, and probably oil wells and natural gas. Mr. Hill seems to favor the working of gold and silver mines by the Government also. Iron, lead, copper, zinc, and borax mines would naturally come next. All the political meddling that we might expect from separate State action would be repeated on a larger scale. Quay would not lose his influence over Pennsylvania mines by their transfer to the national Government. The people would demand all the products of Government mines at as low a price as they were previously supplied for, and, if there were a failure of the supply, or a material advance in price, would "arraign" the party in power, and, in any extreme case like the present deficiency of coal, would hurl it from power.

The public interest lies in having coal supplied in sufficient quantity at the lowest possible price. There is no reason to believe that the Government could do this work nearly as well as it has been done in the past by private enterprise. No doubt there have been grave abuses in the private mining and transportation of anthracite coal which a wise Government might properly take cognizance of and chastise, without assuming ownership of the mines; but those abuses have been fewer and less heinous than would have been committed under Government mining, while the supply of coal has been more regular and the price lower to the consumer than it would have been under such a system.

The only solution of the coal question that seems possible, or is likely to be permanent, is the economic one. In other words, the party which can hold out longest will win the present fight, but winning the present fight does not insure us against another one. The operators tell us that the competition of bituminous coal prevents them from raising wages. Of course this competition is not going to cease with the ending of the present strike. It may be even more severe than before. Therefore, the economic forces must have their way. Not even the Government can prevent them. This is a hard saying, perhaps, but we can see no easier one. Government ownership would be stepping from the frying-pan into the fire.

### *AN OLD SUPERSTITION.*

The platform of the Republicans of Massachusetts revives an old myth appertaining to the tariff question, in the terms following:

> "Changes which the world's progress and the interests of the American people may suggest, should and will be made by the Republican party whenever they are of sufficient importance to justify the check to business which inevitably attends any revision of the tariff."

The authorship of this plank in the Massachusetts platform is plausibly assigned to Senator Lodge. It is really immaterial by whom it was prepared, and we allude to the authorship merely to note the fact that the Senator seems not to apprehend any serious check to business if either coal or beef from Canada should be admitted to the United States free of duty. This suggestion, made by Mr. Lodge in a recent speech, leads the discriminating reader to ask what is meant by a "check to business." Nobody would anticipate a check to business from the importation of Canadian coal, but the Beef Trust might justly say that the introduction of Canadian beef would be a check to their business. A check is a very vague term. It may mean anything, from a financial panic like that of 1893 to a mere slackening of the demand for a single article of domestic production. It was evidently used in the Massachusetts platform as a bogy to affect the public imagination more or less. It is not true that revisions of the tariff check business either inevitably or generally, but if it were true, then the blame for such checking during the last forty years, with one single exception, would be upon the Republican party. A glance at our tariff history will prove this statement.

There were three tariff revisions during the rebellion, those of 1861, 1862, and 1864. All were made by the Republican party, and were, or were supposed to be, necessary for procuring revenue for carrying on the war. Nobody ever said at that time, and nobody ever imagined since, that any check to business was produced by those revisions. Yet we are now gravely reminded by the Massachusetts platform makers that such revisions "inevitably" check business.

The next tariff revision was made in 1870. Mr. Morrill, the father of the Morrill tariff of the war period, tried vainly to get those duties reduced which had been raised during the war as a compensation for the internal taxes on manufactures, which were now repealed. "Whatever percentage of duties," he said, "was imposed on foreign goods to cover internal taxation on home manufactures, should not now be claimed *as the lawful prize of protection* where such taxes have been repealed." The

privateers thought otherwise. They prevented Father Morrill from carrying out his purpose, although Senator Sherman lent him a helping hand. The tariff was, however, revised by lowering some duties and raising others, but without any check to business.

Another tariff revision, and one on a much larger scale, was made in 1872. This was a Republican measure introduced by Mr. Dawes of Massachusetts, then Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means. It repealed entirely the duties on tea and coffee, and made a "horizontal reduction" of 10 per cent. on other goods. No check to business was felt in consequence of this revision. but in September of the following year there was a financial panic due to gigantic speculation in railways and Western lands. Nobody at the time fancied that this crisis was caused by the petty reduction of the tariff on dutiable goods or by the repeal of the duties on tea and coffee; but whatever effect was produced was caused by the Republican party. This 10 per cent. reduction was itself repealed in 1875, the duties being restored to the old scale.

The Republicans initiated and carried through the famous tariff revision of 1883. All that need be said now is that it produced great political commotion, but did not give any check to business. In the following year there was a Wall Street flurry that has since been known as the Grant & Ward panic. The failure of Grant & Ward did not cause this trouble. It was most probably due to the operation of the Bland Silver Act, which had been pouring fiat money into the channels of business for six years at the rate of $30,000,000 per year.

The next tariff revision was the McKinley Bill of 1890. This was accompanied by the Sherman Silver Bill, and the two things together did produce disastrous results in 1893, but it will not be affirmed by any orthodox Republican that the McKinley tariff caused the check to business in that year. The orthodox belief is that the panic of June, 1893, was caused by the Wilson tariff of August, 1894. It is sufficient to say that it never caused any check to business at all. The check to business the preceding year was so disastrous that nothing could have made it worse.

This brings us down to the Dingley revision of 1897. We presume that not even Senator Lodge will contend that that revision caused a check to business. We are so near to it in point of time that we might remember such a check if it took place, but nobody recalls anything of the sort.

It is true that tariff changes cause an acceleration or retardation of the demand for particular kinds of goods. If the importers see that the duties are likely to be raised, they will bring in as large a stock as possible beforehand. If they think that the duties are to be reduced or repealed, they will suspend importation till the change takes effect. Changes in the internal-revenue taxes produce like effects, yet nobody has ever adduced that fact as a reason for refusing to make such changes. Nor has anybody ever affirmed that such changes inevitably check business.

We now repeat that there is no foundation for the statement that tariff revision either inevitably or generally causes a check to business. The theory that it does so is a myth born of the political exigencies of the past, and repeated so often that the myth-makers themselves have come to believe it.

## *SECRETARY SHAW'S CONSOLATIONS.*

Out in Iowa the Republicans are having troubled dreams about Trusts and monopolies; but that favorite son of Iowa, Secretary Shaw, dining comfortably in Boston, laughs at their fears. His after-dinner speech last week, before the Republican Club of Massachusetts, was principally taken up with the consolation which he, Leslie M. Shaw, had found in the contemplation of the Trust problem. He did not deny that he himself had been a mourner in need of comfort. When he first heard of the Steel Corporation, for example, he was, he confessed, "staggered." Such a giant combination, a threatened monopoly sheltered by the tariff, he at first thought, as Senator Dolliver admits that he thought, would wipe out all that the Republican party had taught on the subject of protection. But "since then," he said, "I have investigated somewhat, and I have discovered a few facts which are quite a consolation, at least to me."

The first "consolation to be drawn from the enormous business of the Steel Corporation" is, according to Secretary Shaw, the fact that it "pays out for labor every dollar except what it pays in interest and dividends." By this ingenuous process of reasoning he arrives at the conclusion that "this one concern paid during the year ending June 30 over $400,000,000 for labor." That neatly places all royalties, salaries, rentals, sinking funds, and syndicate profits under the head of "labor." It is a new application of the copybook motto, *labor omnia vincit*. It is commonly reported that Mr. Schwab's salary is several times that of the President of the United States. But it is so much paid for "labor," of course, and it must have been to Mr. Schwab's $3,000,000 house that the Secretary referred when he said that part of the millions paid out for labor was employed to "build homes."

But Mr. Shaw's chief comfort is that "competition is in sight." If there are any evils in such combinations as the Steel Corporation, competition will cure them, and will, in time, arise to do it. As to this, we have but two things to say. The first is that Secretary Shaw and his fellow-Republicans reject a form of competition which is immediately available. They cannot deny that the removal of the tariff duties on iron and steel would at once subject the Steel Corporation to a certain amount of foreign competition. The custom-house statistics show clearly what the American consumer is forced to pay to-day to protect the manufacturers of iron and steel, who need no protection. If Secretary Shaw really wants competition, here is a way to get it. But he declares that method impossible. His heart yearns over the "small manufacturer," who can endure the overwhelming competition of the Trust, but would wither and perish if the tariff duties were abolished. Of him we shall speak presently. He is far too "small" for Republican hypocrisy to hide behind him in the matter of desiring "competition" for monopolies. If it were really desired, the path to it lies blazed through tariff revision.

We must also remind Mr. Shaw that he ignores utterly the facts in respect to the formation of the Steel Corporation. It was organized expressly to prevent competition. It was, in fact, only the fear of one great subsidiary company that it would be wiped out by competition which gave birth to the huge combination. Now it is obviously on the cards to repeat that operation whenever domestic competition becomes really effective. As soon as Mr. Shaw gets it "in sight," the combination will be ready to put it out of sight in its own capacious maw. It would be only a matter of a few millions more of watered stock, another underwriting syndicate, and, presto! the thing would be done.

Secretary Shaw renewed his profession of faith that the Republican party was the only one that could settle the Trust question. For the Democrats he had a deep respect. He would concede them integrity and good motives—everything, in short, "except ability to cope with great problems." This reminds us of what Disraeli says of the Ministers who, just before the fall of Sir Robert Peel, held the conviction that they were "the only body of men competent to carry on affairs." Such a conviction, observes Disraeli, is "*often current on the eve of great changes.*" Certainly the people could not be blamed for at least putting Democratic ability to the test, after their disappointing experience with Republican ability.

An excellent measure of their determined hostility to Trusts was furnished by a comic incident in connection with the Republican meeting at Carnegie Hall on October 8. Congressman Southwick worked himself up to a great pitch of oratorical fervor as he described the efforts of the Republican Administration to curb the Trusts, and called upon the audience to gaze upon the President "defying Wall Street, defying Mr. Morgan,

if you please." This sent cold chills down the backs of the officers of the meeting, and they flew around to suppress that passage of the speech. In fact, the orthodox Republican report of the meeting notes Mr. Southwick merely among those who "also spoke." The innocent Albany Congressman had quite mistaken Platt's plan of campaign against the Trusts. But the attempted suppression of his dangerous words ought to show the country what to think of Secretary Shaw's plea that the Republicans alone mean business in dealing with the Trusts. The "business" they do mean is obvious—to ostentatiously threaten the Trusts with one hand, and to hold out the other for political contributions. Could Mr. Shaw's incompetent Democrats do worse than that?

### *THE SMALL PRODUCER.*

During recent years a new class of political economists has made its appearance in the United States. It consists of persons who think that the tariff duties ought never to be lowered on any article if anybody engaged in producing it objects. These new-fledged economists never had their counterparts in any other age of the world—certainly not in our own history. If we search the writings of the fathers and founders of the system of protection, we find that they always looked forward to a time when our industries would be able to compete on equal terms with foreigners, and to stand without artificial support. Nobody in those primitive days had conceived the idea that the protective features of the tariff should last forever. They all said that domestic competition would bring prices down to the level of the world's markets, and then protection would be no longer necessary and would be repealed.

But times change, and we change with them. Henry Clay, Horace Greely, Justin S. Morrill, and John Sherman have passed away, and a school of philosophers has appeared who tell us that there is *one* condition under which the tariff ought never to be lowered. That condition is where a monopoly has been formed in a certain industry, and all but a small fraction of the producers have been taken into it. In that case we must keep the tariff up to concert pitch in order to protect the Small Producer. Since it must be a very cold day when a small producer cannot be found, it follows that the way to insure permanence of the tariff on a given article is to have nearly all the producers of it form themselves into a Trust. While they are going on separately and competing with each other, it is an open question whether public interests are or are not best promoted by the existing duties, but when 95 per cent. of them form a combination under a New Jersey charter and the other 5 per cent. are left out, then we should abandon all ideas of tariff reform. Henry Clay might say as he did in 1838:

> "No one, Mr. President, in the commencement of the protective policy, ever supposed that it was to be perpetual. We hoped and believed that temporary protection extended to our infant manufactures would bring them up and enable them to withstand competition with those of Europe. If the protective policy were entirely to cease in 1842, it would have existed twenty-six years from 1816, or eighteen from 1824, quite as long as, at either of those periods, its friends supposed might be necessary."

But such words would fall upon deaf ears now.

More than sixty years have passed away since those words were spoken by the father of the American system, and now we are told that the fact that an industry is well established is not a reason for lowering or repealing duties, provided there are both a large producer of the article and a small one working simultaneously. It is immaterial whether they are competing with each other or not. In point of fact the Small Producer generally does not compete with the large one. That is as far as possible from his intention. He knows that the Trust could and would crush him if his competition should prove an annoyance. So he "tails on" and becomes a silent partner in the combine. The Trusts are well pleased to know that the tariff is not to be touched as long as the Small Producer exists. So they will see to it that the Small Producer is in evidence, and that his production shall be sufficiently small to satisfy the demand of the politicians who are so deeply concerned for his interests.

The observed *modus operandi* by which the Small Producer becomes a factor in the case is this. The Trusts bring in all the producers that can do any harm as competitors. If they bring in 95 per cent. of the preëxisting companies, the remaining 5 per cent. take advantage of the fact that the market is steadied by the combination, and they avoid the cutting of rates more sedulously than ever. This is both natural and proper, and it may be in some cases an advantage to society, but it is to be observed that society has nothing to say about it. When competition is stopped, society must take what comes. The interest of the Small Producer is the same as that of the combine. In any case, where the Trust brings in all the existing producers, it is very easy to start some small ones to supply the semblance of competition, and this would be done, if necessary, in order to furnish an argument against changes in the tariff. But such bogus support is usually not needed. The Small Producer will enter the field voluntarily and take his chances of being bought up by the Trust or of doing a successful business by "tailing on." He knows that he will not be molested by the big concern so long as a few small ones are indispensable to keep the tariff intact.

The new-born concern of the Republican party for the Small Producer is the last resort of needy politicians who have exhausted every other means of preventing or postponing tariff changes. How not to do it, is their chief aim and never-ending task. The withdrawal of Speaker Henderson the other day made them more anxious than ever to find means for stopping the crevasse in their own embankment. The Small Producer is their last resource, but he cannot stop the gap—certainly not in Iowa, if we may take Gov. Cummins for a witness. In a speech at Chicago on Thursday he uttered words which may well be printed in conjunction with those spoken by Henry Clay sixty-four years ago, viz.:

> "No intelligent observer can doubt that upon some of the most important products of the United States the duties are too high; and it is the mission of the Republican party to reduce them so that they will again be in harmony with the principle out of which they spring. I speak but the sober truth when I say that now, with a full demand at home, the producer can, and does, use excessive duties as a weapon to enforce more than a reasonable price for the thing he produces. Protection will stand as a shield for honest labor and a mine for lawful profit, but it shall not be used as a sword for industrial piracy or as a mint for illegal gain."

### *A BISECTED COLLEGE COURSE.*

The President of Columbia University, in his annual report, proposes a plan by which undergraduates may enter the professional schools upon the completion of two years of collegiate study, receiving at that time the degree of bachelor of arts. Students who remain for the full four years are to receive the degree of master of arts, and only such students are to be eligible for the courses leading to the Doctorate in Philosophy. The suggestion is full of interest, and will doubtless provoke long discussion. Certain features of the plan immediately commend themselves as practical and useful. It would undoubtedly be advantageous to the average young man to begin his professional course at twenty instead of twenty-two. Such a shortening of the college course would enable the young physician, or lawyer, to undertake the independent practice of his profession by his twenty-sixth year, which is surely none too early.

It is probably true that the college student at the end of his sophomore year has sufficient material training to enter upon the course in law or medicine. He knows, or should know, Latin well, and Greek tolerably; he has some slight acquaintance with French and German—if Greek has been omitted, he may even have considerable knowledge of modern languages; he has carried mathematics some distance into trigonometry, and has mastered the rudiments of the physical sciences. It would be absurd to call such a student liberally educated,

He has gained no comprehensive view of history, has had only perfunctory instruction in the great literatures, lacks entirely the studies which especially develop the reasoning faculty, such as economics, psychology, and philosophy; and has missed, in short, both the subjects and the quality of instruction that do most to make a cultured man out of a college boy. Nevertheless, since he has no formal deficiency of preparation, it is logical to admit such a student to the professional schools. This should be done, however, with full appreciation of the fact that his studies have fallen far short of the traditional ideal of a liberal education. The Dean of Columbia College believes that the contemplated two years' course "could readily be made to include all of the studies now prescribed at Columbia for candidates for the degree of bachelor of arts." But it could be done only upon paper. Such a course would be as much of a sham as the "finishing" year at an old-school female academy. Whatever rags and tatters of senior and junior studies might be cast about the new-style bachelor of arts, would be provided at the sacrifice of his solid panoply of languages and mathematics. We believe it is desirable in many cases to shorten the undergraduate course to two years, but it is unworthy of a great university to present the new course as "definitive" or to give it the look of an equivalent for the old A.B. course.

President Butler frankly admits that this project takes issue not only with the practice of Harvard and Johns Hopkins, but also with recent tendencies at Columbia. These universities have been steadily working towards the coördination of all the graduate departments, requiring the completion of a college course as the indispensable minimum for admission to the departments of Law, Medicine, Philosophy, and Theology. Each and all of these departments were assumed to be pursuing the same ideals of pure science and original research. President Hadley of Yale, in his report for 1901-02, declared that this ideal was impracticably high for the average Law or Medical School. With him President Butler now takes position, tacitly allowing complete university status only to the School of Philosophy, which will maintain the old requirement for entrance, and accepting for law and medicine the less disinterested and more practical purpose of turning out not legists and medical discoverers, but practising lawyers and physicians. This is a defensible attitude, and if President Butler seems ready to sacrifice that academic prestige which will accrue to universities holding the contrary way, he doubtless has adequate practical reasons for so doing.

A curious implication of the plan is fully divined, but very cursorily discussed, in the Columbia report, namely, the competition of the preparatory schools. President Butler says that under no circumstances will the professional schools accept boys without collegiate training. This stand could not justly be taken. A dozen preparatory schools in the East give the studies of the collegiate freshman year in a fashion acceptable to Columbia and to every college in the land. These schools could, with no great revolution of their present organization, add the sophomore studies. The next step would be to apply for a charter to give whatever two-years' degree President Butler finally hits upon. No fair-minded legislature could refuse the application. The schools, too, in the interest of their own pupils, would be bound to assume collegiate standing, for it is probable that an added two years in schools of the highest character would be quite as useful to the average boy as the bisected college course, nearly a year of which must be used in getting adjusted to new conditions. It is clear that the tendency of the change would be to multiply greatly the degree-giving institutions, to reduce proportionately the undergraduate students at the universities, to subject the American small college to a very formidable competition, and, in short, to scatter far and wide through the country institutions fairly comparable to the French Lycée and German Gymnasium, which prepare their students for the university by their nineteenth or twentieth year.

If this be a fair statement of the implications of President Butler's plan, so revolutionary a movement should be carefully deliberated before it is launched. In justice to the hundreds of American colleges which give the A.B. for four years' work, the bisected course should bear a different designation. It should also be perceived that the students who take the old four years' course will immediately become an academic élite. They alone will have what Americans have for a generation regarded as a liberal education, and it is fit that they should bear the traditional degree of that education—the Baccalaureate Degree in Arts. In general, it must be said of President Butler's report that while it is admirably cogent and obviously adjusted to latter-day conditions as they are, its underlying philosophy compares ill with that of President Eliot, who seeks to shorten the college course by forcing the schools to a quicker and more efficient preparation, and by facilitating the progress of able and ambitious students through the present collegiate studies.

## THE REBUILDING OF THE CAMPANILE.

VENICE, September 20, 1902.

"Venizia la ze noster,
L'avemo fato nu,"

—Venice is ours, We made her—says an old Venetian song. So say the people still, and to the *forestieri* who venture to suggest that the *Campaniel* can never be rebuilt, that it will cost too many millions, that it will be impossible to excavate the old piles and build new foundations without endangering those of St. Mark's and the royal palace, they make answer that their *veci* (forbears) dug and drove down their piles, found money, built and rebuilt their tower, defying thunderbolts, earthquakes, and fires, and that they to-day are not so poor and mean as to let their children and grandchildren grow up without the *Campaniel*. Nine weeks have passed since the weary Titan bent his knee and fell prostrate in the Piazzetta, the golden angel on its summit flying to lay its mutilated remains on the threshold of the central porch of St. Mark's, yet the people think and talk of nothing else. All their spare minutes are passed in the Piazza and Piazzetta, where a wooden enclosure some two metres high surrounds the still wide and lofty mass of ruins of the mighty tower. Workmen, superintended by vigilant engineers, carry off in wheelbarrows the bricks and stucco to the canal, where barges transport the bricks and solid bits of masonry to the Island of Grace, the rubbish to the north of the Lido, where it is thrown into the sea. As the workmen are paid by weight, each barrow passes over the scales. "Poor dear! now that they have killed thee, they weigh thy bones," say the people. For half a lire, "the fee to serve for the reconstruction of the belfry tower," you can enter the enclosure, but the people content themselves with the "spyglasses" which they made for themselves by knocking in the knots in the deal planks; and the occupant of each of these reports progress to the bystanders.

During the first days that followed on the catastrophe the excitement was intense; troops and police occupied the enclosure, scrutinizing the barrows, the workmen's clothes and persons, to prevent the theft of the fragments of bronze and marble statues, or fragments of the famous Loggetta of Sansovino (which, but for the blind incredulity of the "guardians" of the tower, might have been removed intact at the eleventh hour), or fragments of the four bronze bells (the fifth and biggest, the Marangona, is whole), of the gilt bronze angel, and other artistic relics. But, now that the mountain mass of ruin has descended to the level of the custodian's house, now that the two upper steps of the basement are visible, no other treasures can be hoped for, and the surveillance is relaxed. Of the four bronze statues, Minerva, Apollo, Mercury, and Peace, two are only bruised; Minerva and Peace are decapitated, but the heads have been recovered; of all four, only two fingers are missing. The bronze gates, one torn and twisted, still exist; some of the marble tablets even are intact. By the end of the month it is believed that all the ruins will be removed; but there is one touching obstacle which will render the last works difficult and delicate. "Anca morendo, el ze sta galantomo," said a sobbing gondoliere on the day of the death, thinking of the miraculous fact that not only no single human victim had been sacrificed by the "honest man" in dying, but to the golden basilica, "his widow," he left her beauty unimpaired. The one single harm inflicted by his fall was on the angle of the Royal Palace, where the Sansovino Library sustained partial damage. Two pictures of Andrea

Schiavone and of Antonio Molinari are ruined, but Titian's "Transport of the Body of St. Mark from Alexandria" and "St. Mark saving a Saracen from Drowning" are uninjured; and, as though to show his grief for hurt inflicted, the "dying one" left sufficient of his "bones" to fill up the breach and sustain the broken arch. Before these can be removed, strong props and stays must replace them; this done, it will be seen whether the arch can be saved, or if it must be demolished and reconstructed. Reconstruction and all repairs of the Palace belong to the royal house, which will not grudge the expense. It is the reconstruction of the *Campaniel* that preoccupies the people and their "conscript fathers." Nothing but the solemn promise given and the half million voted by the municipal council on the day after the catastrophe could have restrained cries for vengeance on its authors, from this populace ordinarily so pacific and long-suffering.

The names of the real authors of the disaster are Ignorance and Presumption, set on high when the office of the "Superintendents of Fine Arts and Antiquities" was abolished, and regional offices were substituted in 1890. The former office was filled by artists, architects, and intelligent lovers of the monuments of their native cities; the latter are filled with bureaucratic employees appointed by favor rather than by merit. That imminent danger threatened the tower was asserted in the early nineties by an intelligent practical stonemason, Luigi Vendrasco. He maintained that the foundations were sound, that the apparently diminished height (70 centimetres) of the tower was due, not to the depression of those foundations, but to the successive heightening of the pavement of St. Mark's Piazza—a fact ascertained in 1887 by Comm. Boni, now the intelligent and active director of the reparations of the basilica, and, it is hoped, the future rebuilder of the Campanile. The damage done by the lightning in 1745, insisted Vedrasco, had never been properly repaired; the crack in the walls, though temporarily adjusted by Bernardino Zendrini (who built the famous Murazzi to protect the lagoon from the inroads of the sea), was gradually and surely enlarging; the swinging of the bells, the continual crashing of artillery, were widening and lengthening the aperture; unless the walls were secured by internal and external clamping-irons and supports, the tower would fall, and at no distant date. His "superiors" laughed and chaffed; then, growing weary of his jeremiads, induced the then Minister of Public Instruction, the famous Baccelli, to transfer the importunate subordinate. He was ordered to Milan, but declined the honor. Then, as a punishment, he was "commanded" to leave Venice for the island of Sardinia; but "ca i Veniziani no vede il campaniel di Marco i ze morti" (when Venetians don't see the belfry tower of St. Mark's, they die), and Luigi preferred to lose his post, Baccelli leaving him no alternative, and to live within the sound of the Marangona, poor but able to keep himself and his family by hard work. Seven years passed. Jeremiah's lamentations continued; not only the belfry tower, but the Ducal Palace and vast portions of the Basilica were hastening to ruin. Fortunately for the former, other sentinels were "all' erta," and the necessary reparations of the columns of the sea angle have been successfully carried out. That many portions of St. Mark's Church are undermined is now an accepted fact, and it is hoped that the precautions taken by Comm. Boni are not too late. But, so far from giving any credit to Vedrasco's warnings anent the enlarging "rift" in the Campanile, the regional guardians seemed bent on its destruction.

Why the custodian of the tower should ever have been allowed a habitation within the walls instead of in an adjoining house is not known, but this custodian, "a saintly person," it is said, and the Benjamin of the pious guardians, was indulged in every whim; a commodious kitchen involved the dislocation of several large stones in the wall. There the rain water dribbled into the Loggetta, and the guardian of the tower actually removed a large stone in the corner of the base, substituting others, "inflicting a wound of several metres in the foot of the Colossus." The old rift widened and deepened, the new wound festered and swelled. All this became visible to the naked eye. Venetian citizens of note clamored; the grand guardian was "interviewed," and, deriding the fears of the profane, he scornfully rejected the warnings of experts. Suffice it to remember that the drawing of the weekly lottery was held as usual in the Loggetta on Saturday afternoon, the 12th of July—only forty-two hours before the fall. The prefect of Venice, however, on his own authority, though assured by the "lawful guardians" that the tower was in "no danger," forbade the Sunday evening concert in the square of St. Mark's, which prohibition alarmed the populace, especially as stones were falling from the tower. Yet many who saw the custodian remove his bed from the ground floor had been assured by him that there was no danger; that he was only doing it to stop his wife's silly fears. Some anxious lovers watched all night on the Square, angry with their own anxiety, for had not every mother's son transferred Byron's lines from Rome to Venice?

> "When falls the Campanile, Venice falls;
> When Venice falls, the world."

When the Library in construction by the beloved Sansovino fell, the *repubrica* imprisoned the architect and kept him in durance vile till Titian and his other friends proved that the disaster was no fault of his, but was caused by the violent cannonading of galleys just arrived from Beirut. Sansovino, liberated, went on with his Library, whose first instalment of books came from Messer Petrarca, enriched later by Cardinal Bessarione. The republic forbade any cannon to be fired off in the lagoons. The Austrians, to give them their due, were extremely careful of Venetian monuments, and received just meed of praise from Ruskin, who considered that the Venetians had "no single definite ground of complaint against the Government." During the bombardment of 1848, nearly all the palaces were injured, and Tintoret's pictures in the Scuola di San Rocco suffered badly; but the capitulation came in time to save St. Mark's Square, though the shells had reached to within a hundred yards of the Church itself. Since the entrance of the Italians, every birthday or death - day of the royal house, every festival, national or local, has been celebrated by the cannon's mouth; now, not even the midday or sunset gun is allowed to be fired, and you miss them as you miss in far greater degree the familiar call of the Marangona, the bell so named because it summoned the carpenters and other workmen of the Arsenal to their daily toil. Venetians, too, miss the *mezzana* at 9 A. M., the midday bell and the bell at 2 P. M. This, too, was the signal for the pigeons to their "dinner" in the Piazza. When the belfry fell, they all fled in alarm; then towards two o'clock many ventured back, but, hearing no summons, very few descended; even now they seem very uncertain and unhappy, though the people assemble and encourage them by scattering bread and maize besides the regular supply. "You see," said a woman who was encouraging them, "we *must* have our bell-tower; we are like the doves—we never know the time now." "And who is to warn us when a fire breaks out at night?" asked another. Truly, they *must* have their tower, but how and when?

"The same tower on the same spot; only with broader foundations, can be erected in five years," Comm. Boni said yesterday, in a notable interview. "Is it so?" I asked his *alter ego*, Ing. Rosso, who lives, moves, and has his being among the ruins or in his office on the first floor of the Ducal Palace, and whom you would scarcely distinguish from the workmen themselves, as he passes from barrow to barrow, taking a specimen here and there of bricks made at different periods—Roman and Venetian, some curiously colored by the action of fire—or bits of marble from the cells of the different bells.

"It may be so, can be so, ought to be so," he answered. "As far as we can yet ascertain, there is no subsidence in the foundations, but the whole basement will be removed, and the deepest depth fathomed, and new piles driven down, but by hydraulic pressure, so that no harm will result to the surrounding monuments. The steps forming the basement will all be seen above the pavement, and will probably be broader than the old ones."

"Then you do not consider them sufficient to sustain the weight and height of the tower?"

"Not so; the basement sustained the tower for over a thousand years; as far as we can yet see, it had no share in the causes of its fall, but we do not know what weight it has sustained, for the 80,000 tons of material said to have fallen is a mere guess; nor can we know what will be the weight of the material of the future tower."

"Will it have to be all new; will modern bricks be equal to these old, strong, tough, compact specimens?"

"We hope so. Comm. Boni is reported to have said that a great portion of the brickwork was old Roman of the first and second centuries, with the impress of Nero, Claudius, Pius Antoninus. The Roman cement was very strong. The Venetians, during the Middle Ages, used a new cement —Istrian lime, mixed with sand—not nearly so secure. Now we must find material to match in strength the strongest of the Roman material, and Boni thinks that he has discovered it. As for cement, it suffices to mix Roman pozzolana with Istrian chalk. There will be no difficulty about the materials."

"When is it possible that the actual rebuilding may begin?"

"Not till the spring. Assuredly months will be occupied in the researches among the old foundations, in ascertaining the nature of the various sediments. This, if ever, is a case for going surely, no matter how slowly."

"And the cost?" I ventured to ask.

"He must be a wise man who could make a true estimate beforehand."

"They say two millions will suffice."

"When a contractor pledges himself to rebuild the tower on such a model, of such a height, using certain prescribed materials, and gives guarantees for the fulfilment of his pledge, then one may begin to examine his estimates; at present, all is the talk of irresponsible individuals. Meanwhile, it would be well to have even the two millions safe and put out at interest."

Minister Nasi, who arrived on the day after the disaster and promptly discharged the faithless guardians, naming Comm. Boni in their stead, is pledged to bring in a bill for a subsidy. But will it pass in the present Parliament, which will be occupied with projects for the relief of the unutterable misery of the Basilicata and the sister provinces which brave old Zanardelli is now visiting? The refusal of the wealthy and usually generous city of Milan to contribute 10,000 lire for the reconstruction of the tower, as proposed by the venerable Senator Massorenti, came as a surprise and disappointment; but the fact is accounted for by the refusal of the Venetian municipality to abstain from holding its international artistic exhibition in order to ensure greater success to Milan's proposed exhibition. At the present moment, the sum subscribed does not yet reach a million and a half.

All that is decided on is the excavations, to be made as soon as all the materials of the fallen tower are removed. Comm. Boni is the man best fitted for this work, not only because of his successful excavations of the Roman Forum, but because in 1885 he assisted Mr. C. H. Blackall, a Boston architect, to ascertain how and of what material the foundations of Venetian monuments were composed; Mr. Blackall paying a portion of the expenses, and the publisher of the grand illustrations of the Basilica and the belfry tower defraying the remainder. By demolishing a bit of the pavement they found that the tower, which was nearly 100 metres high (far higher than its original founders intended), rests on the solid, compact white clay covering the alluvial soil of the Venetian estuary, into which piles are driven very close to each other. The raft is of oak, whereas that of the Basilica is of pine (*pinus larix*), both foundations laid in the ninth century, before the Venetians had become masters of the terra-firma provinces. J. W. M.

## LAST YEARS OF CHATEAUBRIAND.

PARIS, September 27, 1902.

M. Edmond Biré, well known already by several works of literary criticism, has given us very recently a valuable volume, under the title of 'The Last Years of Chateaubriand (1830-1848).' We are familiar with the young Chateaubriand and the Chateaubriand of the Restoration. There is nothing to be compared, as a literary as well as an historical document, to the famous 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe.' Chateaubriand may be called the father of Romanticism. His Celtic genius broke away from all the ties of the classical school, which was still in the ascendant during the first years of the eighteenth century. A *romantique* in literature, Chateaubriand was a *romantique* even in politics; he differed from the school which always accommodates action to circumstances, a school of which Talleyrand may be considered the most remarkable type. Chateaubriand treated monarchy and liberty like two goddesses, to whom he was devoted like a knight of the feudal ages. He served the cause of the Bourbons with the spirit which is well described in his own verse—

"Sombre fidélité pour les causes tombées."

But his fidelity to their cause was never separated in his mind from his fidelity to the cause of liberty. He remains, on the whole, in literature as well as in politics, a solitary genius, representative of his native province, Brittany; and he will always deserve to be studied by those who prize originality and poetry.

Chateaubriand's correspondence has never been published as a whole. We know it only in fragments. In the 'Complete Works,' published by Ladvocat, there is a 'Journey in Italy' in 1827, which opens with three letters written by Chateaubriand to his friend Joubert. In the two volumes of the 'Congress of Verona' there are several letters of his addressed to Villèle, De Serre, Canning, La Ferronays, M. de Montmorency, Hyde de Neuville, Polignac, Gen. Bourmont. Many letters appear in the 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe.' Out of a hundred, thirty-one are addressed to Madame Récamier. We find many letters also in the biography of Chênedollé, published in 1849 by Sainte-Beuve. In them revives the little society which met in the salon of Madame de Beaumont, and in which everybody had a nickname. Chauteaubriand was the cat, his wife the *chatte;* Madame de Beaumont was the swallow, Madame Joubert the wolf, Fontanes the boar, Joubert the stag. As Sainte-Beuve remarks, one had never seen so many beasts with so much *esprit* together.

Madame de Beaumont became consumptive, and died in Rome in 1803; Chateaubriand gives an account of her last moments in a letter addressed to M. de la Luzerne. Joubert, who shared the reading of it, says: "Nothing is more capable of drawing tears than this account. It is, however, consoling. . . . One feels, when one has known her, that she would have given ten years of her life to die so calmly and to be so regretted." Chateaubriand's relations with Madame de Custine have been the subject of much discussion. The documents concerning them are to be found in a volume by M. Paul de Raynal, 'The Correspondents of M. Joubert'; in the volume by M. Bardoux, 'La Comtesse Pauline de Beaumont'; in a volume published in 1893 by M. de Robethon, under the title, 'Chateaubriand et Madame de Custine: Épisode et Correspondance Inédites.' (Madame de Custine died in 1826.) These two episodes of Madame de Beaumont and Madame de Custine show us Chateaubriand as a young man, in a select and small coterie. He had not yet risen quite to fame. "When out of my woods and out of the obscurity of my life," he says in his Memoirs, "I was still truly savage; I hardly dared to lift my eyes to a lady surrounded by admirers."

Chateaubriand made the acquaintance of Madame Récamier, who was to become the great passion of his life, in 1801, at the time when he had just published 'Atala, or the Love of Two Savages in the Desert.' He was presented to her by a friend, but saw her again only twelve years afterwards, at the house of Madame de Staël.

Their correspondence, beginning with a short note on the 28th of November, 1820, ends twenty-seven years afterwards on the 28th of July, 1847. It never was interrupted during Chateaubriand's embassies, his tenure of office as Minister of the Foreign Office, his long stay in Rome.

"In Rome," says M. E. Biré, "amidst these illustrious memories, the sepulchre of Scipio and the charming tomb of Cecilia Metella, on the spot where the dust of heroes is mingled with the dust of martyrs; in this city, unique in the world, an unrivalled medley of architecture and of ruins, of glory and solitude, of sadness and greatness, Chateaubriand finds himself in his true country, where his imagination discovers all its power and brilliancy."

It was at Rome that he wrote his "Letter to M. de Fontanes," the finest pages of the 'Martyrs,' and the most eloquent of his many letters to Madame Récamier. These last were published by Madame Lenormant, the niece of Madame Récamier, in their integrity.

We possess now nearly all the letters written by Chateaubriand. Of the many different publications in which they are scattered I will cite the 'Souvenirs d'Enfance et de Jeunesse de Chateaubriand,' manuscript of 1826, followed by inedited letters by Charles Lenormant (one volume, 1874); the 'Débuts Diplomatiques de Chateaubriand,' by Count Édouard Frémy, a collection of articles published in the *Correspondant* in 1893; the 'Politique de la Restauration en 1822 et 1823,' by M. de Marcellus, published in 1853; a volume of Villemain's, published in 1858 under the title 'La Tribune Moderne: Étude sur M. de Chateaubriand, sa Vie, ses Écrits et son Influence'; the 'Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de Mon Temps,' by Guizot; the 'Mémoires et Correspondance du Comte de Villèle'; the 'Mémoires et Souvenirs' of Baron Hyde de Neuville. To this list, which is already very long, must be added the 'Correspondence of the Count de Serre'; the 'Souvenirs of the Baron de Barante,' published by his grandson, Claude de Barante; the 'Correspondence of the elder Ampère, and his son, Jean-Jacques Ampère,' published by Madame Cheuvreux. I will not cite the numberless articles published in reviews and magazines, in which here and there are found some lines by the great writer.

M. Edmond Biré's volume is very rich in letters of the last period of Chateaubriand's life, beginning after the Revolution of 1830. On the 7th of August, 1830, the throne was proclaimed vacant in the House of Peers and the crown conferred on the Duke d'Orléans; at the same time several modifications were introduced into the Constitution. A vote took place on the motion proposing these fundamental changes. Chateaubriand attacked it in words which have remained famous, beginning with "Useless Cassandra, I sufficient-

ly fatigued the crown and the country with my disdained warnings," and ending with his refusal to renounce the Bourbons "at the moment when, for the third and last time, they take the road into exile." The next day he wrote to his friend, M. Fraser Frisell, a letter, reproduced by M. Biré, in which he repeats less eloquently the same sentiments. M. Fraser Frisell belonged to an old Scotch family; he travelled in France during the Revolution, and was for a time thrown in prison. He made the acquaintance of M. and Madame de Chateaubriand under the Empire, and remained their friend till he died at Torquay in 1846. Chateaubriand, on the 10th of August, sent in his resignation as a Peer and a minister of state. He renounced the pension of 12,000 francs which had been allotted him to maintain the dignity of his office.

Among the letters published in 1832, and printed anew by M. Edmond Biré, I notice those exchanged with Prince Louis Napoleon, the future Napoleon III. The Prince writes from Arenenberg, May 4, 1832:

"I have just read your last pamphlet. How fortunate are the Bourbons to have for their supporter a genius like yours! You renovate a cause with the arms which have helped to strike it down; you find words which will go to all French hearts. Whatever is national finds an echo in your soul; when you speak of the great man who made France illustrious for twenty years, the elevation of the subject inspires you. Your genius embraces it in its entirety, and your soul, flowing naturally, surrounds the greatest glory with the greatest thoughts. . . ."

To these high-sounding phrases Chateaubriand answers in the same vein:

"We, meet, sir, in a common sympathy. Your youth, like my old age, wishes the honor of France. . . . Where is your uncle, sir? To others, I would say: Where is the tutor of kings and the master of kings? In defending the cause of Legitimacy, I have no illusions; but I believe that a man who wishes for public esteem must be faithful to his oath. Lord Falkland, friend of liberty and hostile to the court, was killed at Newbury in the army of Charles I. You will live, sir, to see your country free and happy; you will go through ruins, among which I shall remain, since I am myself one of those ruins."

What would Chateaubriand have said, or not said, had he seen the Prince to whom he wrote these lines Emperor of the French, and afterwards discrowned and exiled?

M. Biré's volume deserves to be read. In all of Chateaubriand's letters will be found those flashes of imagination which characterize his genius; as well, I may add, as the proofs of his unfitness for the concrete duties of the ordinary politician or statesman. He had a certain sort of unpracticality in him; he was a *romantique* in politics, as he had been in literature.

# Correspondence.

## OBFUSCATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is it not about time to ask the Bishop Potters and the Dr. Lyman Abbotts to say precisely what they mean by their term "justice," which unionistic literature, under their tutelage, has adopted in the form "fairness"? One supposed the sole purpose of the law was to formulate, as well as men can, that tentative, unsatisfactory working rule of justice which is all that is possible in such a world as ours. Evidently the obstacles which have hitherto barred the way to the establishment of criteria of absolute justice have, in recent years, been removed. Seemingly, the excellent gentlemen who teach credulous men that there is somehow a measure of fairness superior to, and outside of, the law of the land, to which appeal may somehow be had, have light which some of us lack. If they really mean anything determinate when they speak of justice, what is that meaning? If they have no new meaning, let them say why they lead men to suppose that they have.

The confusion of the "ought to be" and the "it is," to which most preachers and moral enthusiasts are so prone, is accountable enough; but when the confusion is embodied in the practice of unionistic sympathizers, and a pandering, temporizing, politics-playing journalism tacitly encourages this confusion for partisan ends, the time seems to have come when the least a man can do is to say what he thinks, even though it involves a serious charge against well-meaning men.

Yours truly, S. D. Merton.

St. Louis, October 8, 1902.

## LODGE-IC IS LOGIC.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have it that although logic is taught in Massachusetts universities, little of it got into the Republican platform. Those nearer the scene beg to differ, as it is apparent there was a great deal of Lodge-ic there.—Yours truly,

Edward Brooks.

Andover, Mass., October 11, 1902.

## ETHICS OF THE WILDERNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was very much interested by your recent article on "The Law of Forest and Mountain," and also by the letter of J. Richards touching on a phase of the same law observed in Sweden. It may be of interest to your readers to know that a similar high degree of honesty and confidence prevails among natives in various parts of the Far East. I remember once, when making an excursion in central Java from Buitenzorg out to Gunong-Salak, to have seen along the path in several places little tables with fruit on them exposed for sale. The owners had come out to the path in the early morning, put the fruit in its place with a box for money near it, and then returned to their work. Any traveller who wanted to refresh himself took what he desired, dropped the recognized price in the box, and went his way. So far as I could learn, the thought never occurred to any one to plunder these fruit-stands, or defraud the owners in any way.

Very truly, R. Clyde Ford.

Marquette, Mich., October 10, 1902.

## DOCTOR DISSERTATIONS ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Professor von Klenze's protest against certain strictures of mine upon a doctor dissertation prepared under his guidance convinces me that it was, after all, worth while to perform the unpleasant task which I felt bound regretfully to take upon myself; for his remarks clearly show that it is not so much the author of the dissertation in question as certain tendencies of our graduate instruction which must be held responsible for the lamentable shortcomings of a treatise deemed worthy of the official imprint of one of our foremost universities.

I confined myself in my letter to quoting some of the conclusions which the author, in the "Summary" at the end of his dissertation, formulates as the outcome of his whole investigation. A summary of a scientific discussion may rightfully be expected to contain either some new principle or at least some new fact. Neither of these is to be found in the "Summary" of this dissertation; as a matter of fact, it is made up wholly of reiterations of some of the miscellaneous statements found in the body of the dissertation itself.

As to this main body of the dissertation, I characterized it as a "stringing together, through more than a hundred pages, of random excerpts from poems, letters, and descriptions of travel." This characterization, which I fully maintain, I feel now compelled to supplement by the statement that nowhere in the whole dissertation is there to be seen an attempt at entering into the spirit of the writers from whom the excerpts are made, and that the author throughout shows no evidence in himself of that "sense of nature," the absence or presence of which in these writers he undertakes to discuss. As a single instance of this fundamental defect, I mention one of his quotations from Opitz:

"Ihr Birken und ihr hohen Linden,
Ihr Wüsten und du stiller Wald,
Lebt wohl mit euren tiefen Gründen
Und grünen Wiesen mannigfalt."

These deep-felt and graphic lines, alive with genuine and instinctive joy in forest and field, figure among the author's quotations intended to prove that "the treatment of nature in the works of Opitz is almost altogether conventional"!

I am not surprised that this dissertation should have met with the approval of Professor Biese, for it clearly shows the influence of this voluminous compiler. Indeed, what I said of the "hackwork of the ordinary German doctor dissertation" was meant, in part, as a warning against the importation and blind imitation at American universities of the methods of literary study employed by him and his like. In closing my part of this controversy, I wish to add that I should not have called public attention to this dissertation had it not seemed to me a typical indication of a danger besetting all our graduate study—the danger of training plodders rather than thinkers. Kuno Francke.

Cambridge, Mass., October 8, 1902.

## ORIGIN OF MARINE INSURANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being a lawyer and law-writer, and having, moreover, some acquaintance with the Talmud, I was chosen by the editors of the 'Jewish Encyclopædia' (Funk & Wagnalls Company, publishers) to write most of the articles on Jewish jurisprudence. Among these, Commercial Law was allotted to me. I started with the idea that the Israel-

ites of Bible and Talmud times were thoroughly uncommercial and knew very little about mercantile contracts, least of all about insurance. But I set out investigating, and, to my surprise, found a *Baraïtha* in the Babylonian Talmud, Baba Kamma, 116 b, to this purport:

"Our Sages have taught: When a ship goes upon the sea and a squall strikes her, and, in order to lighten her, they throw some of the cargo overboard, they make their calculation not according to the money value, but according to the weight of the different goods, and they should not depart from the custom of skippers; *and skippers have the right to contract*, that whosesoever vessel is lost, they will find him a new vessel; but if it be lost through his fault, they do not find another vessel for him, nor if he deviates into a course on which it is not customary for vessels to go."

Here are all the elements of mutual marine insurance; and the same page gives another *Baraïtha* on similar mutual insurance among the muleteers travelling in the same caravan.

The Babylonian Talmud was published about 500 A. D. It is a current discussion about the Mishnah, a compilation made by the Patriarch Rabbi Jehudah in North Palestine about 210 or 220, of the traditional or "Oral Law" as taught in Palestine down to his time. But a great many of the traditions or authoritative sayings remained outside of his compilation, and were known as *Baraïtha*, that is, "outside." They are quoted in the Talmud under "It was taught," or "Our Sages have taught," and are, moreover, distinguishable from the current of the Talmud by being written in the same language as the Mishnah. They are of the same age, and must often, in tradition, have come down from a much earlier age. It is thus very clear that, at or before 200 A. D., mutual insurance among ship-owners was in use along the eastern shores of the Mediterranean; that these had their customs, and that the judges regarded these customs as binding. None of the law-text writers on insurance trace it back within even 500 years of this time.

Hoping this will interest both lawyers and antiquarians, I remain, yours truly,

L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., October 5, 1902.

# Notes.

The current issue of the *American Historical Review* announces the practically complete arrangement with Messrs. Harper for a twenty-six-volume coöperative survey of "The American Nation," of which Prof. A. B. Hart of Harvard will be the general editor. "A History, from Original Material, by Associated Scholars," is the sub-title, and these scholars, beginning with Prof. E. P. Cheyney for the European Background of American History, end with Professor Hart for Ideals of American Government—a theme for the hour if there ever was one. The work is distributed into five groups. Three Southerners, at least, are among the writers.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready 'My Life in Many States and in Foreign Lands,' by George Francis Train, and 'Animals before Man in North America,' by Dr. F. A. Lucas of the United States National Museum at Washington.

The anonymous romance in prose and verse, 'Nova Solyma,' or Jerusalem Regained, attributed to Milton by the Rev. Walter Begley; 'Henry VIII.,' by A. F. Pollard, sumptuously brought out; 'Raleigh in Guiana,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; 'New York Sketches,' by Jesse Lynch Williams, illustrated by various hands; and 'Hegel's Logic: An Essay in Interpretation,' by Prof. John Grier Hibben of Princeton, are shortly to be published by Messrs. Scribner.

E. P. Dutton & Co. announce 'Kentucky Poems,' by Madison Cawein, and 'The Primrose and Darwinism,' by a field naturalist.

The 'Confessions of a Wife,' which has been running in the *Century Magazine*, is set down for publication as a book on October 22.

A. S. Barnes & Co. announce 'Two on their Travels,' by Mrs. Archibald R. Colquhoun.

The "Arnheim Edition" of Poe's works in five octavo volumes, tastefully bound (Putnams), falls short of the highest excellence typographically. The letter is, to our thinking, too full-faced, as may be tested in the italic; and in other respects we think the pains bestowed on the page have not been rewarded. Professor Richardson's critical introduction, too, betrays no master hand, though it is not without interest and information. There remain Mr. Frederick Simpson Coburn's numerous full-page illustrations, which together constitute a remarkably even body of drawings, evincing sympathy with his author, imagination, and a power not always gloomy. This part of the enterprise we find entirely adequate. We may cite the plate "Eleonora" in volume iv. (p. 312); and especially "The Shadow," in volume ii. (p. 178). In the frontispiece to this latter volume Mr. Coburn is perhaps at his worst, when attempting to depict a horse "leaping with impetuosity." But on the whole he carries off the honors of the Arnheim Edition.

The remainder of the "Swastika Edition" of Kipling's works, in fifteen volumes, plainly bound in green cloth, emerges upon the market in a curious manner. It was bought back into the regular trade from the dry-goods firm of H. B. Claflin & Co. by Doubleday, Page & Co., and is now procurable only in sets bearing the diverse names of houses involved in Mr. Kipling's complicated experiments in copyright, among which the present publishers (or marketers) do not figure. Thus, we have Doubleday & McClure Co., Appletons, and the Century Company. The letterpress within varies correspondingly, and the edition is in other respects a "popular" one; but it will go upon one shelf or (as it comes to us) in one box, and will satisfy all the intellectual need of readers.

There is a pathetic strain in the preface to the new (third) edition of Sir Leslie Stephen's 'English Thought in the Eighteenth Century' (Putnams). Some errors he has remedied, but strength fails him to make such a general retouching as the artist or the lover of truth sees possible in a work laid aside for a period and then scrutinized afresh. One particular instance of unwitting injustice Sir Leslie confesses respecting Thomas Paine, and this he discovered through Mr. Conway's Life, which he cannot follow entirely in its estimate of Paine. He does not name the page on which this rectification will be found, and the curious will have a fine exercise in agility who make use of the index, where reference is by chapter and section, not by volume and page, and unitemized. For the benefit of such we will say that it is embodied in a footnote at page 261 of volume two.

Carlyle's 'French Revolution' for the pocket is well contrived in the Edinburgh Edition of Messrs. Scribner. Three volumes are combined into one by means of thin paper (but not too thin) and small, yet legible, type. There is an index and a portrait. The binding is pretty and flexible.

The same firm send us the fourth edition of Baedeker's 'Southern France, including Corsica.' The generous guide-maker's definition, by route and map, of Southern France reminds us of the dog whose tail was cut off just behind the ears; it embraces the country from Tours and Bourges and Dijon to the Mediterranean.

Mrs. R. L. Devonshire's translation of the 'Life and Letters of H. Taine' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) is a faithful, literal rendering of the original already discussed in these columns. Indeed, there is little attempt, if any, at giving a truly English dress to the version. *En passant* is good French; is "in passing" the only possible English equivalent? The transcription of Greek and Latin quotations is here and there faulty. But as, in this earlier correspondence of the great critic, style counts for little, the present rendering may do good service in spreading the knowledge that, although Taine's political and social ideas underwent some change in later years, his principles of conduct proclaiming the gospel of work were formulated before he had reached twenty-five.

Volumes xv.-xviii of Professor de Sumichrast's translation of Gautier are as remarkable as their predecessors for the extreme precision of mere verbal rendering without serious sacrifice of spirit or style. A careful examination of 'Avatar,' for instance, reveals hardly more than the slip (p. 129) which, by omitting the final *r* in *oreiller*, substitutes "the ear" for "the pillow." In the 'History of Romanticism' we should suggest that "en tira une *chevelure*" (p. 58) finds more graphic representation in "drew out a *wisp*" than in "drew out *some*." In the same volume (p. 151), the equivalent of *cheville* produces a singular incongruity: "a splendid bit of *padding*, wrought by powerful hands out of the cedar of the celestial abodes." It is in the descriptive and narrative passages of 'Le Capitaine Fracasse' that the translator's finest skill appears. The introductory critical notices are in every respect excellent.

A finely illustrated work in two volumes, entitled 'The Guardian of Marie Antoinette,' by Lillian C. Smythe (Dodd, Mead & Co.), tends, in spite of its professed purpose, to reduce the part played by one of the ablest diplomats and administrators of those troubled times to that of a reporter and supernumerary. Florimond Claude, Comte de Mercy-Argenteau, ambassador of the Holy Roman Empire at Versailles from 1766-1780, is obscured by over-elaboration of

"The little great, the infinite small thing,
That ruled the hour when Louis Quinze was King."

Marie Antoinette's character and conduct are exalted at the expense of her surroundings and her husband, "a waddling, blinking, corpulent, bungling, incapable imbecile," etc. (i., 229). The writer had command of excellent matter, comparatively

new, which the work presents in imperfectly unified form. Still, the spirit with which some of the historical portraits are touched off may commend the book to popular taste.

One of the most extensive essays that have appeared on the economic topics now prominent, is entitled 'The Plain Facts as to the Trusts and the Tariff,' by George L. Bolen (Macmillan). The author has labored patiently to collect a quantity of statements of the kind which pass for facts, and of opinions delivered by wiseacres of various degree. He declares his aim to be to impart sound knowledge to the ignorant; but they will be only bewildered by this confused mass of information and misinformation. Nevertheless, the book has value as showing with much completeness the state of public opinion on the topics of current discussion.

The views of the early Christians concerning property are considered by the Rev. Orello Cone in a book entitled 'Rich and Poor in the New Testament' (Macmillan). Jesus and his followers apparently thought that the world was soon to come to an end, and, consistently with this expectation, despised the accumulation of wealth. To a generation inclined to believe that there is no world but this, the ethics of the New Testament are visionary. They can, of course, be modified and adapted to changed conditions, a process here illustrated; and there are always many readers interested in Biblical exegesis for itself, to whom this book may appeal.

The pick of Mr. Peter Newell's comical 'Topsys and Turvys' of 1893-94 has been reissued in the familiar form by the Century Co., and will give pleasure from the nursery up.

The *Mayflower Descendant* for October publishes the appeal of the Cape Cod Pilgrim Memorial Association which aims to set up a monument at Provincetown, Mass., the scene of the first landing. The Treasurer is Howard F. Hopkins of Provincetown. This magazine, just closing its fourth volume, offers numerous attractions for volume five. "Stephen Hopkins and his Descendants" will be begun in the January number. Sundry facsimiles promised include autographs of the *Mayflower* passengers at scale. Governor Bradford's Letter-Book is to be reprinted.

The instalment of John Brown letters in the October number of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* contains nothing more curious than a request for the autograph of the prisoner at Charlestown from a Connecticut Yankee. There are numerous epistles from sympathizers, enemies, cranks, detectives, with anonymous warnings of rescue, etc.; one from Frederick Brown of Pecatonica, Ill., to his uncle; one from A. D. Stevens to his uncle James (withheld from transmission); and one from Copeland to A. W. Halbert (endorsed "Shouldn't go"), which furnishes some details of the catastrophe to the detachment under Capt. Kaga. Both Copeland's and Stevens's letters are manly and courageous in the face of their approaching execution.

The success of the commercial bureaus of Philadelphia and San Francisco has been so marked, according to the London *Times*, as to have impressed Lord Curzon with the desirability of doing something in the same direction for India. Accordingly, a scheme has been outlined, in a letter addressed to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce requesting suggestions, for the establishment of a Bureau of Commercial Intelligence. Its object will be to "procure and publish all information likely to be of use to commercial men, including matters relating to foreign and internal trade, the industrial and mineral resources of India, the competition of foreign staples with local Indian products and of Indian staples with foreign commodities abroad, the development of existing markets and the discovery of new ones." This information will be communicated through three principal channels, a public library of books, reports, etc.; an inquiry office; and a periodical journal containing statistics, analyses of consular reports, etc. The success of the scheme, the Viceroy recognizes, will depend largely on the spirit with which the Director-General approaches his task, and the active coöperation of the commercial public.

The manner in which the Anglo-Japanese alliance was received in Japan shows most strikingly the change that has come over that people. In the inland town of Sapporo, on the northernmost island, Yezo, the alliance was celebrated by a public meeting and a banquet. At the appointed time some 500 people gathered, and the exercises began with "God Save the King," played by the band, which was followed immediately by the Japanese national anthem. On the invitation of the Mayor an English missionary lady, the only representative of Great Britain in the town, made a short address, which was interpreted by a Japanese lady. Other speeches of a political nature followed, and the meeting closed and the banquet commenced with three cheers for England and the "great Empire of Japan."

Konrad von Maurer, the leading authority on early Scandinavian jurisprudence, died September 18, at Munich. He was born April 29, 1823, son of the historian and statesman, George Ludwig von Maurer. In 1847 he became professor extraordinarius of history at the University of Munich, and in 1852 professor ordinarius in Northern jurisprudence, in which position he remained until a few years before his death. Maurer published weighty monographs on the early Icelandic and Norwegian laws, edited several of the sagas, and made other important contributions to the literature of the North. His 'Conversion of the Norwegian Race to Christianity,' in two volumes (1855-56), and 'The Origin and Constitution of the Icelandic State' (1852), are still recognized authorities on those subjects. In celebration of the Icelandic millenary in 1874, he wrote an exhaustive history of Iceland down to 1262. Maurer's interest in Iceland, however, was not limited to the period treated in his history. He visited the island several times, and took an active part in the Icelandic Constitutional struggle. On his seventieth birthday, he was honored by the publication of a *Festschrift*, containing contributions from German and Scandinavian friends and former pupils.

Miss Foxcroft, who conceals her sex behind initials on the title-page of her 'Supplement to Burnet's History of My Own Time,' recently reviewed by us, will be the last to blame us for falling into the trap, as a correspondent kindly points out that we did. With their extended educational privileges and growing recognition for individual scholarly and scientific worth and attainments, women have a corresponding duty to declare themselves when going into print, *pour encourager les autres* as well as for the enlightenment of reviewers.

—The eighth of the contemplated ten volumes of the Oxford English Dictionary (H. Frowde) is begun this month with Q, under the immediate direction of W. A. Craigie, M.A., who takes his place beside Dr. Murray and Mr. Henry Bradley. The quarterly instalment contains the whole of the above letter, whose personal history is extremely interesting. Its invariable coupling with *u* in ordinary English words is more and more departed from by scholars in transliterating the Semitic *kōph*, as in Quabbala, Qurán. We remark that out of 80 pages given to this letter, qua- fills 37, qui- 26, que- 13, quo- but 4. Both Tennyson and Swift rhyme *quay* with a long *a*. *Quandary*, for which there is no derivation, is here stressed by preference on the penult; *quinine* on the ultimate, with first and second choice of long *e* or long *i* sound, the American usage being to stress the penult, with long *i* in both syllables. The *k* sound often heard among us in the word is not noticed. Etymology is baffled in the case of *queer*, *quirk*, *quiz*, *quod*, and *quoit*. While George Fox was very likely the first of his sect to be stigmatized as *Quaker*, according to his own account, there is some doubt whether Justice Bennet so dubbed him "because I bid them tremble at the Word of the Lord." The name appears three years earlier (1647), applied to the members of some foreign religious sect, from whom it was perhaps taken over. Roger Williams in 1643 first described the round clam *quahaug*, which he spelt "poquauhock." *Quassia*, curiously enough, was "named by Linnæus, about 1761, after a Surinam negro, Graman (= grand man) Quassi or Quacy (= Quashee), who discovered the virtues of the root in 1730." The verb *quail*, very common in literary use from 1520 to 1650, practically disappeared till revived by Scott, apparently, in the early part of the last century. *Quaint* fell out of sight in the course of the eighteenth century, and after 1800 came into vogue in the present, previously unusual, sense.

—The British School at Rome was opened in the spring of 1901, with scope and purposes similar to those of the American School in the same city founded six years earlier, but with an annual expenditure only about one-sixth of the amount at present required by its American forerunner. Its first volume of papers is at hand (Macmillan). The general style of publication is like that of the British School at Athens, in large octavo bound in boards, with open pages of print and ample margins, making a volume most dignified and pleasant to the eyes. Contrary to the custom of our American School in Rome, which publishes in the *American Journal of Archæology* papers by its youthful and previously untrained students, the British School prints in this volume but two papers, both of monographic length and character, and both by men of training and experience. The first is by the Director of the school, Mr. G. McN. Rushforth, on the Church of S. Maria Antiqua, recently disclosed under the

northwest corner of the Palatine Hill behind the Fountain of Juturna. "From the ruins of the abandoned church, which never knew the hand of a restorer, the religious interests and tendencies of the Romans of [the 7th and 8th centuries], their standards of art and the kind of pictures they were accustomed to see, their dress and personal appearance, their manner of burial, have been brought home to us more vividly" than has before been possible. Mr. Rushforth's article covers 119 pages, with illustrations, and pays especial attention to the accurate description of the decoration of the church, being "chiefly a contribution to our knowledge of Byzantine iconography as it was understood and practised at Rome in the eighth century." The second article is from the pen of Mr. Thomas Ashby, jr., whose studies in the topography of ancient Rome and its neighborhood have been well known through the pages of the *Classical Review* and other periodicals, and who has shown much kindness to American students. His present article is of the highest interest to the classical topographer, presenting in somewhat more than 150 pages of printed text the first instalment of his minute and thorough investigations into the Classical Topography of the Roman Campagna, a field of study which has up to this time been but fragmentarily treated. The districts discussed in this first part of his publication are those lying along the routes of the Via Collatina, Via Prænestina, and Via Labicana from Rome to Segni. Eight detailed maps of the region on the large scale of 1:25000 accompany the article, and the whole furnishes a most welcome and intensely interesting contribution to topographical knowledge. The School deserves the congratulation and thanks of the world of classical archæologists for its initial volume.

—The convention of German jurists recently held in Berlin passed a resolution recommending, among other reforms, a revision and radical change of the law concerning lese-majesty, which is declared to be injurious to the sovereign, whom it is intended to protect, prejudicial to the monarchical principle, and wholly incompatible with the spirit of the age. The German Staatsanwalt or prosecuting attorney discovers insults in the most harmless expressions of disapprobation, and exhibits a ludicrous excess of zeal in the indictment of the supposed offenders, hoping thereby to win royal favor. The imprisonment of the editor of *Simplicissimus*, a Munich comic journal, for lese-majesty, added at once several hundred names to the list of his subscribers, and the prosecution of the Bavarian poet Friedrich Benz for criticising the Emperor's public utterances on art and artists, although resulting in his acquittal, greatly increased the sale of his works. Indeed, this method of protesting against such judicial proceedings is quite common in Germany, and very gratifying to the accused. Still more antiquated and absurd, if possible, is the paragraph of the German criminal code punishing offences against religious bodies which are recognized by the state. About a year ago a journalist was sent to jail for speaking with disrespect of the holy coat at Treves; and in September of the present year Julius Bruhns, editor of the Breslau *Volkswacht*, was condemned to fourteen days' imprisonment for denouncing as pious frauds the relics worshipped at Aix-la-Chapelle, the most important of which are the shift worn by the Virgin Mary as she gave birth to Jesus, the swaddling-clout of the new-born child, the sponge with which the crucified Saviour was given vinegar to drink, the winding-sheet of the decapitated John the Baptist, the linen waistband of Mary, the cord with which Christ was bound when scourged, his leathern girdle, the forearm of the aged Simeon, and two teeth of the doubting Thomas. These things and the adoration of them belong in legal phraseology to "the institutions and usages" of the Catholic Church, and any attack upon them is a penal offence, according to paragraph 166 of the German criminal code. Whoever asserts that they are spurious, insults a religious society under the protection of the Imperial Government, and thus renders himself liable to severe punishment. On the other hand, religious sects and associations not recognized by the state may be abused even in the grossest terms with impunity. Professor Kaufmann of the University of Breslau publicly protests against this injustice, and urges men of all confessions and all parties to unite in a petition to the Imperial Diet for the abolition of a law so inconsistent with the principles and tendencies of modern civilization.

—The friends of Theodor von Heldreich in this country will learn with sincere regret of the loss which science has sustained in his death on September 8, at the advanced age of eighty years. Born in Dresden in 1822, he gave himself from his early youth with ardor to the study of botany, at first at the University of Freiburg, later at Montpellier, where he studied under Duval, and later still at Geneva, where he continued his studies under the famous brother-botanists De Candolle. After travelling extensively in Italy, he came to Greece in 1843, to begin his lifework in the study of the Greek flora. Here, with the exception of a few years passed in Crete, he spent the remaining fifty-nine years of his life, making scientific journeys throughout Greece proper, the coasts of Asia Minor, Macedonia, and the islands of the archipelago; the results of which are embodied not only in his writings, but above all in his magnificent Herbarium of Greek Plants, which is absolutely unique in its completeness and scientific accuracy. More than 700 new species of plants in Greece and the Levant were discovered by him, as well as seven new genera; and, of the above, more than seventy species bear his name. In entomology also his researches were fruitful, and several species of Greek insects bear his name as their discoverer. His published writings were chiefly in the form of monographs on special subjects, contributed to the periodicals of the numerous learned societies of which he was a distinguished member. Some of the titles of the longer of these treatises are as follows: 'Flora of Crete,' 'Flora of Cephalonia and Aegina,' 'Flora of the Attic Plain,' 'Homeric Flora,' 'The Useful Plants of Greece' (Die Nutzpflanzen Griechenlands), etc., etc. Also, with Edmond Boissier, he compiled the 'Diagnoses Plantarum Orientalium.' In 1851 he was made Director of the Botanical Gardens at Athens, and this position he continued to hold until his death. From 1858 to 1883 he was Curator of the Natural History Museum at Athens.

—The literary as well as the botanical side of the Greek flora found in Heldreich an able expositor. The identification of the numerous plants mentioned by classical writers, from Homer down to Theocritus, is a branch of research which must always appeal strongly to the lovers of Greek literature. The discussions as to the botanical identification of such famous flowers as the Homeric ἴον, the lotus, hyacinth, etc., have been endless, involving as they do the greatest variety of opinion on philological as well as botanical questions. One of Heldreich's most recent identifications, which has found general acceptance, was that of 'Parietaria Judaïca L.' with the much-disputed *Parthenium* mentioned by Plutarch in the well-known passage in the Life of Pericles, relating to the building of the Propylæa; so that now the visitor to the Acropolis may recognize growing in profusion among the ruins the famous herb whose medicinal virtues were recommended by the Goddess of Healing herself, and it gives an additional touch of reality to Plutarch's anecdote to find the plant growing at the base of Hygieia's statue. This is but an isolated instance of the services which have been rendered to all lovers of the classics by Heldreich and his predecessors in this field. It is rumored that negotiations for the Herbarium have for some years past been pending, with regard to its acquisition by the Berlin Museum. At all events, there is no doubt that it will ere long find a permanent place in some one of the greater scientific collections of the world, where it will be more generally accessible than it has been hitherto.

—We venture to call that a "masterly inactivity" which has resulted, after a long interval, in such a stupendous success as Gustav Kruell's new portrait of Beethoven. Already it seemed as if this engraver had exhausted the possibilities of the wood block, but no one familiar with his unapproachable series of portraits of great Americans can fail to be impressed by the technique of his latest and certainly grandest production. So free, so fresh, so different—it is the old story, but how incredibly free and fresh and different! From the lawn of the master's bosom kerchief to his dusky wreath of hair, his chin as of hammered metal, the aerial background—all is playfully and caressingly light. It is well known that no satisfactory likeness of Beethoven has heretofore existed. Mr. Kruell's task was both creation and interpretation, in which latter respect he has no equal among living portraitists in black and white. He has conceived Beethoven in the prime and vigor of manhood, with all the energy of his genius speaking in every lineament. Imagination and art can hardly further go than in this instance, and, once seen, this veritable "symphony" will be coveted until it can be owned. The block is about nine inches by eleven, and the prints on Japan paper. Mr. Kruell's address is East Orange, N. J.

## HIGGINSON'S LONGFELLOW.

*Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.* By Thomas Wentworth Higginson. [American Men of Letters.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

The elusiveness of Longfellow's personality is hardly less than that of Tennyson's. That personality was made more rather than less bodiless for us by the Life

written by his brother Samuel, of which the dominant aim was apparently to achieve an impersonal biography. Mr. Higginson, on the contrary, would gladly help us to visualize the man, and prizes every scrap of information that is contributory to this consummation, while at the same time he is rich in personal recollections and in knowledge of Longfellow's Cambridge environment. He warns us in his preface of three special characteristics of his book. The first of these is his use of a considerable amount of fresh material drawn from the manuscript letters of the first Mrs. Longfellow; the second, his use of material obtained from the "Harvard College Papers," manuscript accounts of college business preserved in the College Library; the third, his use of some of Longfellow's undergraduate and other early writings to enforce the moral of his predilection for a distinctly American type of literature. The value which Mr. Higginson assigns to these sources is a reflection of his modesty, as if he were required to justify a new life of Longfellow by the discovery of fresh material; as if we did not care much more for the writer's judgment of the man and his works than for a few additional details. Not but that these are welcome, especially those drawn from the letters of the young wife whose death was such a tragic incident of the poet's European journey preparatory for his Harvard professorship. Longfellow's correspondence touching his professorship is less interesting, but it is significant of the slight degree to which the poet qualified the business of the professor. The entire story of the professorship suggests that if Longfellow, like a much greater poet, laid upon himself "the lowliest duties," he grudged the time they took from more congenial tasks. Pegasus in the pedagogical harness chafed more than a little, and the day he broke loose from it finally was one of the happiest of his life.

Mr. Higginson's third novel source is possibly more eloquent of his own doughty Americanism in letters than indicative of any early predilection of Longfellow for a form of literature shaped on the peculiarities of our American life. He returns so often to Longfellow's Americanism that his plea for it must be regarded as fundamental to the structure of his book, and he has little difficulty in supporting it by the main pillars of Longfellow's literary production, 'Evangeline,' 'Hiawatha,' 'The Courtship of Miles Standish.' He is, of course, contending with the critics who have charged Longfellow with a foreign accent in his verse. But have not these been more concerned with the manner of the poet, his literary allusiveness, than with the material of his poems? We have imagined so, and also that Longfellow's choice of American subjects for his leading poems was significant of his wise economy of the criticism of Margaret Fuller and others on his early work as parasitic. It is certainly interesting that Longfellow's first published poem had an Indian subject, but there was less here of idiosyncrasy and prophecy than of conformity to popular standards. Indian tales and poems were the staple of popular domestic literature in 1820 and thereabout, many of them passing round in manuscript, and one, at least, of these a favorite in the family into which Theodore Parker was born. The Maine border had suffered so much and so recently from Indian warfare that some echoes of it must have lingered in the common air and found easy entrance to the mind of an imaginative boy. Longfellow's Commencement oration, "Our Native Authors," lends itself more cordially to Mr. Higginson's argument, while still its character is representative of ideas common to many heralds of the American literature that was to be. Of similar import is a list of American subjects for sketches made up in Europe, on his first visit, and sent to an American publisher. That the sketches were not written, but 'Outre-Mer' instead, was only natural. In the "Defence of Poetry," which appeared in the *North American Review* in January, 1832, Mr. Higginson finds a prediction of Emerson's "American Scholar" of 1836. There was in it one exact prediction of Mr. Higginson's persistent demand for a sincere poetical botany and ornithology. "Let us have," said Longfellow, "no more skylarks and nightingales." What remains true is that Longfellow was preëminently a closet poet, that he shaped his words and thoughts more upon books than upon natural objects and appearances. And, in his eagerness to prove him dominantly American, Mr. Higginson has done less than perfect justice to his service in bringing to the relief of our American poverty the wealth of European associations with things venerable and beautiful.

In an introductory chapter, Mr. Higginson brings statistics to confirm his confidence in the permanence of Longfellow's vogue. In the catalogue of the British Museum he has 357 titles to Tennyson's 487, Poe's 103, and Swinburne's 99. The list of translations of his works given in an appendix is even more strikingly to the same effect. Of the whole body of his verse and parts of it we have 100 different versions in eighteen languages. This, too, without any such assistance as Poe has had from a defective character. Wordsworth's admirers, we are told, were able to take courage from a report that he had once been intoxicated at Cambridge. Longfellow's have not had even so much of doubtful consolation. How little honor the poet had in his own country in the middle forties is indicated by a list of fifty-four authors, eligible for an American anthology, sent to Dr. Furness by Mr. Andrews Norton, in which Longfellow was not included. But twenty-four minor authors were also given, Longfellow at their head.

There is a careful study of Longfellow's "First Flights in Authorship." Particularly interesting are his poems running parallel with Bryant's in the *United States Literary Gazette*, in 1824 and after. Although Longfellow paid to Bryant the tribute of a sincere imitation, it would appear that he did not much impress Bryant with his rival powers. In 1841 Bryant edited 'Selections from the American Poets,' and gave Longfellow only four pages, though his 'Voices of the Night' had appeared in 1839, and had met with much favor. He allowed himself eight pages, Pierpont nine, Percival and Carlos Wilcox (!) eleven each. Stedman, in his 'Poets of America,' refers to Wilcox as a mild celebrant of our natural scenery, but gives no example of his manner in his 'American Anthology.' There was certainly something remarkable in Longfellow's devotion of himself from his college days to a purely literary career. His teaching at Bowdoin and Harvard was merely a device to enable him to pursue this without the money-stamp upon his work. In 1834 there was some talk of his going to Northampton to take the famous Round Hill School. Longfellow was very sanguine about it, his wife in gentle opposition: "I do not think Henry calculated for such a situation. If he dislikes so much the care of such a little family as ours, how can he expect to like the multifarious cares of such a large one!" Before the year was out, he had been offered and had accepted the Harvard professorship, and in the spring of 1838 was off to Europe for a year of preparatory study.

Every lover of Longfellow will be grateful to Mr. Higginson for the pathetic story of Mary Potter Longfellow's short married life, which began in 1831, and ended with her death in 1835. Mr. Higginson writes with the books of her girlish library before him, marked by her hand. In one of them, Bryant's "Death of the Flowers" is marked with special emphasis, as if she feared a prophecy in it of her own early death. She went abroad with her husband on his second visit to Europe, and several of her letters home are given. They are characterized by extreme simplicity, and the last was written only a few days before the beginning of the end. The poor child was nearly frozen to death in Sweden, and when she writes of "a long and tedious mile and a quarter" (Swedish), we know how tired she was, and how great her need of rest. The various emotions of this journey Longfellow eventually recollected in tranquillity, and 'Hyperion' was the outcome. Mr. Higginson treats the book as tenderly as possible, while noticing that the ardor which created it had begun to cool before it saw the light, and a cis-Atlantic current had set in. The style of the book was formed on that of Richter, whom Longfellow at this time preferred to Goethe, though less foolishly than George Bancroft, who wrote of Goethe, "His chances at popularity are diminishing. Twaddle will not pass long for wisdom."

There is acute and interesting comment on Longfellow's major poems and his different collections in the order of their appearance. An apology is offered for the omission of the anti-slavery poems from the Philadelphia collection of 1845, and no one could offer such an apology with better grace than Mr. Higginson. It is, that the Philadelphia edition was an illustrated one, not aiming at completeness, as did Harpers' edition of the next year, in which the anti-slavery poems appeared despite the Harpers' sighs. The Union apostrophe in "The Building of the Ship" was denounced by Garrison as "a eulogy dripping in the blood of imbruted humanity." The writer of this review remembers the use of it by Wendell Phillips as the climax of one of his great Music Hall speeches after the war had actually begun, and when even Hawthorne could say, "I rejoice that the old Union is smashed." 'Evangeline' has due honor, but Mr. Higginson thinks that Longfellow never nodded worse than over 'Kavanagh,' Hawthorne and Howells notwithstanding. Slight emphasis is laid on 'Hiawatha,' and there is an appearance of hiding an unfavorable opinion under the shadow of great names. But our space does not permit us to follow Mr. Higginson through the entire length of his genial com-

mentary. He gives a chapter to the translation of Dante, expressing a preference for the early translations made by Longfellow, unassisted, to those made in conference with the Dante Club. "It is also to be observed that Professor Norton, in the original preface of his version, does not so much as mention the name of Longfellow." The trilogy that was no trilogy, "Christus," is exhibited as a painful evidence of Longfellow's unconsciousness of his waning power. The best of its three parts was the earliest, 'The Golden Legend.' What we most miss is some comparative criticism of the minor poems, of which Longfellow and Bayard Taylor are said to have thought "Chrysaor" the most admirable, perhaps because of its subtle and exquisite rhythm. The chapter entitled "Westminster Abbey," giving the account of the installation there of Longfellow's bust, anticipates by two chapters that on "Longfellow the Man," which contains an account of his death. Yet we would not have the book end on a different note from that which sounds the praise of Longfellow's life as an antidote of incalculable value to the materialism of the present time.

## BALLAGH'S SLAVERY IN VIRGINIA.

*A History of Slavery in Virginia.* By James Curtis Ballagh. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. 1902. Pp. viii., 160.

Mr. Ballagh's work, awarded the John Marshall prize at Johns Hopkins University, and published as an extra volume in the "Studies in Historical and Political Science," is the first thoroughgoing attempt to trace the development of slavery, as a legal institution, in one of the States of the Union. It is not a little to be wondered at that, with all the contemporary activity in the study and writing of American history, work of just this character should so long have remained undone; yet it is obvious that only after every slave-holding State has been thus dealt with, will it be possible to write with adequate information the history of our most distinctive American institution.

Mr. Ballagh's history falls into three parts, the first of which deals with the slave trade and the slave population, the second with the development of slavery in colony and State, and the third with manumission, emancipation, and the status of free negroes. Noting the distinction between slavery and servitude, and the presence in Virginia of both servants and slaves, the author traces with much detail the growth of slavery in the colony under the stimulus of the slave trade, and the persistent efforts of the Assembly from an early time to regulate or prevent the importation of negroes. That slavery in Virginia was not so much a natural growth as an institution forced on the colony by England, and, even so, taking many years for its establishment, can no longer be doubted.

"From 1664 to 1671, several shiploads of negroes were brought in, but servants continued to be imported at the greater rate of 1,500 a year, and in 1671 there were 6,000 servants to 2,000 slaves in Virginia. By 1683 the number of servants had doubled, while that of the slaves had increased by only one-third. From this time forth servitude gave way before slavery, which was forced on the colony in the large importation of negroes by the Royal African Company under its exclusive charter. It was the policy of the King and of the Duke of York, who stood at the head of the Company, to hasten the adoption of slavery by enactments cutting off the supply of indented servants, at the same time that large importations of slaves were made by their agents. The laws of 1676 and 1682 which legalized Indian slavery co-operated still further to increase the slave population. In 1698 the African trade was thrown open to separate traders. An active competition at once sprang up with the African Company, the separate traders importing large numbers of negroes and attempting to undersell the Company" (pp. 10, 11).

Beginning in 1699, accordingly, the Assembly sought to guard against the dangers of negro slavery by subjecting negroes and alien servants to discriminating duties. The attempt was only partially successful, however, and the influence of the slave traders was sufficient to secure "the withholding of the King's assent to as many as thirty-three different acts passed . . . prior to 1772 to discourage the slave trade." During the eighteenth century, the negro population rapidly increased, by 1756 outnumbering the whites in four-fifths of the counties, and causing general fear of insurrection. By this time it was the independent traders who were bringing in far the larger number of slaves, but Virginia was powerless to control its economic development where the interests of the colony conflicted with the colonial policy of England. Jefferson's arraignment of the King, in the first draft of the Declaration of Independence, for inciting the negroes to arms while forbidding the colony to prevent their importation, is well known, and the feeling thus expressed doubtless had much to do with the change of sentiment in Virginia towards the mother country. In 1778, when English control had been thrown off, Virginia promptly prohibited the slave trade, being the first organized political community in modern times to do so; and from this date the slave population, with some fluctuations, on the whole declined.

The long chapter on the development of slavery, comprising about two-thirds of the volume, is, perhaps, the one in which Mr. Ballagh makes his most important contribution to knowledge. The steps by which the legal status of the slave was settled are followed in great detail. The earlier ownership seems to have been regarded as a right to services rather than to persons —in Roman law, a right of *possessio* rather than of *dominium*. In Virginia, as in the other colonies, however, servitude of negroes and Indians passed historically into slavery.

"The first essential element in the change of status consisted merely in the modification of an incident, the extension of the term of service from a period of years to that of natural life. What is termed perpetual was substituted for limited service, while all the predetermined incidents of servitude, except such as referred to ultimate freedom, continued intact. . . . Apparently there was no marked change of condition either practically or legally as regarded the individual" (p. 37).

From this the step was short to the conceptions of the slave status as attaching to the issue of the slave, and of property in the person of the slave. Mr. Ballagh's account of the legal status of the slave as property—at first real, then personal—is particularly valuable.

When to the sanction of slavery based upon racial differences was added the sanction based upon religion, the difficulty occasioned by Christian baptism early presented itself. One of the ostensible reasons for the enslavement of the negroes was the pious pretence of thereby bringing them to a knowledge of the true God; but when baptism had certified to the accomplishment of this high purpose, it would seem that the slave should be thereby freed. The Virginia Assembly, equal to the occasion, voted in 1667 the naïve declaration that "Baptisme doth not alter the condition of the person as to his bondage or freedom; in order that diverse masters freed from this doubt may more carefully endeavor the propagation of Christianity"; and "in 1670, when slaves were for the first time legally designated in Virginia, the benefits of Christianity as to freedom were limited to servants imported from Christian lands" (p. 47).

The legal disabilities incident to slavery are considered under the heads of property status, with the consequent separation of families, civil restrictions, denial of marriage and trade, exemption from militia service, etc. On the other hand, the slave had by custom a limited property right, and a restricted right of contract with the consent of his master. A certain degree of personal agency attached to him, as shown particularly by penal legislation; and he had limited capacity as a witness. By an act of 1732, the slave was entitled to notification of his disabilities, the legal notice being given by the public reading of the act at stated times by the church wardens and sheriffs. Personal freedom of movement on Sundays and holidays was not restricted until 1680. The personal security of the slave was safeguarded by the provision of severe penalties for masters and others who maimed or injured him without cause, or who were guilty of cruelty in the infliction of the recognized punishment of whipping. "Prior to 1692, slaves guilty of capital crimes were entitled to the same procedure, including jury trials, as free whites" (p. 82), but the unsatisfactoriness of this method led to the substitution of a special tribunal. The harsher features of the criminal code were largely done away with by the end of the eighteenth century, and even while they lasted were the result, in the opinion of Jefferson and St.-George Tucker, not of inhumanity, but of "those political considerations indispensably necessary where slavery prevails to any great extent" (p. 89). The danger of slave insurrection, though widespread, was, in Mr. Ballagh's opinion, more imaginary than actual. After the Nat Turner insurrection, however, there was added to the disabilities of the slave the denial of instruction in the elements of secular education, though religious instruction was not greatly interfered with.

Finally, the slave was entitled to support and protection, laws being passed to secure this right, especially to the old, sick, or infirm, and to prevent it from being shifted onto the county. That the treatment of the slaves under average conditions was considerate, and that relations of affection and regard were often established between master and slave, is abundantly proved, while the lack of absentee landlordism and the generally small holdings of slaves were distinctly advantageous influences. "More

than 55 per cent. of Virginia slaves in 1860 were held by owners of 1 to 20, and half of these by owners of 1 to 9. . . . Twenty slaves were considered the minimum under an overseer for a successful tobacco plantation. . . . The very small planters had a minimum of at least 200 acres, requiring but four or five slaves, and even the holders of 5,000 or 6,000 acres had often only sufficient slaves to clear and cultivate but a small proportion of their holdings" (pp. 104, 105).

We have space for little more than a mention of the chapter which Mr. Ballagh devotes to the legal development of manumission and the status of the free negro. Virginia seems to have had free negroes as early as 1668, and there came to be in time a considerable body of legislation and legal decision regarding the way in which manumission might take place, and the rights and duties of both master and slave in connection therewith. In 1795 the slave was allowed to sue *in forma pauperis* for his freedom, while the incidents of the suit were at the same time much modified. Further, a strong feeling in favor of general emancipation several times showed itself, and, "but for the unfortunate reaction produced by outside interference, the cause of freedom might possibly have triumphed in the Assembly of 1831-32" (p. 127). We remark that the acute "outside interference," at that date, consisted of two factors—the colored Bostonian Walker's two-year-old pamphlet 'Appeal,' and the white Bostonian Garrison's one-year-old *Liberator*, which were foolishly connected with Nat Turner's contemporaneous rising. The "cause of freedom," as presented in the Assembly, was inseparably identified with expatriation of the emancipated. It had no philanthropic basis whatever.

Mr. Ballagh's book is confined almost wholly to the legal aspects of slavery, economic and political considerations being comparatively little referred to. Within its field, however, it is to be cordially praised as a first-rate piece of work, and a good illustration of the wealth which still, for the most part, lies buried in the mine of American institutional history. The style, though at times involved and inelegant, is on the whole more than ordinarily readable, but it is a pity that the punctuation should so often have been left to shift for itself.

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*George Eliot.* By Leslie Stephen. (English Men of Letters Series.) Edited by John Morley. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

To speak as an authority about George Eliot's work would be to lay down the law about many vexed questions of life and art—would be, indeed, to bring up the whole terrible question of the proper place and the importance of the novel as a form of literature. Mr. Leslie Stephen, from whom a sort of judicial decision might reasonably have been expected, cleverly escapes responsibility. In the course of his review, he does not ignore agitating topics met upon the way, but shirks them, by assuming to be a plain man with no pretension to esoteric knowledge. His book is an expression of personal opinion, and his manner that of one genially inviting correction.

His method is a little old-fashioned, for he applies himself to consideration of what his author did and the way she did it, instead of depreciating her at length because she did not do something else in an entirely different way. His opinions are, of course, informed with knowledge and critical discrimination, and expressed with clearness, moderation, and some grace; yet the tone of appreciation throughout is that of one who has always "highly considered," not of one who has ever been "quite devoted." In the narrative of his author's private life running along with review of her work, no new facts are presented, and those old facts which used to excite heated discussion are referred to with decent reserve. Her uncommon distinction is taken for granted, and tribute ungrudgingly paid to the range and power of her intellect and its high cultivation, to her talent for searching analysis, especially as regards her own sex, to her wit and humor, and her very rare power of reflection. The only personal opinion that Mr. Stephen urges eagerly, as if it had been or might be open to contention, relates to the intensely feminine quality of work which all the world except Dickens took to have been done by a man. "She was intimately feminine, though more philosophical than most women"—a recognition of her philosophical baggage that one hesitates to call "handsome." "In spite of her learning, she is always preëminently feminine," and then, almost immediately, as if by way of removing any doubt, Mr. Stephen points out that, in describing Adam Bede's passion for Hetty, she conspicuously shows "the kind of resentment with which a true woman contemplates a man unduly attracted by female beauty." A woman might wonder why he does not support this particular contention by his statement that "she always wrote with assent of mind, heart, and conscience, so that she might feel that she was doing something, however small, which wanted to be done in the world." What man ever so deliberately increased his share of the burden of sorrow that all must bear?

Mr. Stephen's general criticism may be fairly stated as an impression that, in spite of all her remarkable resources, George Eliot was weak on the creative side—a weakness particularly evident in that portion of her work which is not directly drawn from the scenes of her childhood and youth and the persons who then engaged her deep interest and everlasting affection. Ideas, he thinks, often presented themselves to her mind as abstractions, not concrete visions, and she then proceeded to construct character out of philosophical formulæ—which is obviously the wrong way about for a poet or a novelist. Undoubtedly she sometimes fell into an error very damaging to literature that pretends first of all to represent life. Her technically poetical works, parts of 'Romola' and of 'Daniel Deronda,' are much more certainly the offspring of reflection and knowledge acquired from books than of imaginative intuition, and knowledge derived at first hand from life. Yet, more than to frequency of this mental process, an apparent weakness of creative force may be due to the concentration of her vision on a few very impressive aspects of life, and the passionate intensity of their presentation. Her vision was profoundly tragic, embracing the tragedy of the soul at war with conditions, and the more awful spectacle of human character, capable of good, defeated by its own baser instincts and wholly abandoned to evil. For one of these tragic aspects she was always demanding sympathetic partisanship, and for the other she often exacted detestation. On the whole, she carried her own generation with the strong tide of her emotion, but there were always those who denied the truth of her vision, and who rejected the stern counsel she offered for the amelioration of a state of being in which happiness could not—indeed, should not—be hoped for. To be of the number that can get too much of solicitude for human destiny (especially in novels) is not a matter of just reproach. It is a disturbing solicitude, and unless one can heartily share it, one resents it, ends by being bored with it. In real life, we suspect that Dorotheas and Romolas, and, above all, Derondas, would bore Mr. Stephen to extinction, and that has perhaps more to do with his lack of enthusiasm than has a perception of a faulty process of literary construction.

At all events, he likes best an amusing imaginary world, rejoicing therefore in the whole proud family of Dodson, and in Mrs. Poyser, who "at once became immortal." Of the serious characters, Maggie Tulliver is his favorite, while Tito seems to him infamous, and Grandcourt detestable in a feminine rather than a masculine way. Perhaps he has not very deeply searched for a basis of character from which, as distinctive of sex, conduct could be inferred with greatest probability. Tito was a complex person with a simple scheme of life tenaciously adhered to. He never wanted existence to be an unhappy affair for any one; he only meant that it should be, no matter who paid, a very pleasant affair for himself. It seems to us that he tried for what he wanted in ways far more subtle and delicate than are the ways of any woman similarly constituted, and also with an agreeable unconsciousness of their sinfulness very masculine indeed. He incarnated, it is true, much of both men and women that George Eliot hated, and his characterization is a wonderful example of the illuminative power of the passion of hate. Rosamond Viney and (in a less degree) Gwendolen Harleth also illustrate the usefulness of hatred (under literary control) for exposing rather hateful characters. Grandcourt can be regarded most charitably as an indiscretion. George Eliot was not very familiar with the world from which he is drawn, and she shows her unfamiliarity and an undue desire to castigate. With him, and more still with Deronda, her sense of humor deserted her. There were moments when she was not saved from being tedious and absurd by being great.

In conclusion, Mr. Stephen remarks: "George Eliot's works, as I have read, have not at the present day quite so high a position as was assigned them by contemporary enthusiasm; this is a common phenomenon, and, in her case, I take it to be due to the partial misdirection of her powers in the later period." It is true that her popularity has waned, but that for novelists is an inevitable, not a phenomenal, destiny. Her eminence, however, has not been seriously challenged. More and more her preeminence among the Victorian group of novelists is beginning to appear, for, while she described as vividly as the best of them phases of the external life of their era, she added a record of prevailing

thought and interpreted the time-spirit. In this power of inward vision she had and has no rival. It is, indeed, not improbable that the literary historian who shall in the future sum up the Victorians and deliver a verdict, may award her one of the seats of the mighty in the classical Valhalla, one below Shakspere only for wit and wisdom, and above all for expression of passionate sympathy with the woes and aspirations of the lonely human spirit.

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*Homeric Society.* By Albert Galloway Keller, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co.

This study of the Iliad and Odyssey is a thorough piece of work which will be consulted by serious readers in general, and especially by students of social science and economics. It is an elaborate and technical analysis of the evidence afforded by the poems as to the society of the Homeric age, based more especially on a system and classification, as yet unpublished, devised by Professor Sumner of Yale. The author assumes that the Homeric evidence is direct and accurate, and that it has to do, in the main, with a single people and a single "culture epoch." Hence, the almost unique value of the poems as a social document. The Phœnicians are the chief influences with which this social sphere came in contact, and the Phœnicians had no intentional mission of either culture or religion, but were simply bent on cold self-interest. This sole motive, as Dr. Keller rather strikingly points out, "working through trade upon the material basis of less developed societies, has produced a maximum of result, with a minimum of pain, fruitless effort, and retrogression." The Phœnicians, then, were the agents through whom the Greeks first became acquainted with the culture of Chaldæa and Egypt. Of Chaldæa directly they seemed to know nothing. The Phœnicians they knew "from the standpoint of the lower civilization," as our author puts it. Homer's Phæacian episode is an imaginative sketch of an Oriental and maritime people; mirrored mainly from the Phœnicians, but far from being authentic and consistent in minor details. Nausicaa is a genuine Greek damsel; and, curiously enough, it is a Phæacian, Euryalus, who reproaches Odysseus with having the air of a mercenary supercargo. If there is a conflict of Phæacian and Greek ideals, Odysseus holds his own and a little more. His admiration for the accomplishments of his competitors is not unmixed; and there is certainly a slight undercurrent of contempt for their want of prowess in the more manly and warlike sports.

In connection with the Phæacian episode, it is a serious question whether the song of Demodocus on the amour of Ares and Aphrodite should be taken as testimony of the attitude of Homeric society towards adultery. That curious anticipation of the tone of opéra bouffe chimes better with the morals of the Court of Louis XIV. than with the total impression made by the portraits of Helen and Clytemnestra and Penelope and Andromache. At any rate, for linguistic and other reasons, the lay is unhesitatingly ruled out by many scholars as a later interpolation.

To most readers of the tale of Nausicaa it will seem a strange affirmation that "in the majority of instances modesty was formal and traditional, founded upon patriarchal restrictions, and not yet instinctive. Freedom of expression between the sexes points the same way; there was little or nothing to conceal." In reaching this conclusion, Dr. Keller probably begins with the Homeric bath, presided over by young women or maid-servants—no one knows just how—instead of taking the natural straightforward testimony of the narrative of the sixth book. A troop of handmaidens run away from the sight of a naked vagrant, while Nausicaa stands her ground, with a mixture of dignity, good sense, and right feeling which understands when to break conventions as well as when to preserve them; and this surely is the acme and the essence of the proprieties. As to the Homeric bath, the prevailing Japanese custom might throw some light on its decency; and the Japanese are long past the stage of patriarchal tabus. But nothing is so elusive and indefinable as the sentiment of modesty and the limits and conventions by which it is guarded.

The author's plan is a sound one, namely, to draw his evidence direct from the poems, and, as far as possible, from no other source. There are a good many points as to which it is hard to say any final word. He calls the Homeric knowledge of exterior geography *vague;* and yet, just now, M. Bérard is endeavoring to prove, in the most interesting manner, that the descriptions of Scheria and of Calypso's Isle are founded on a Phœnician periplus, and display a knowledge of localities so intimate and accurate that it can be illustrated only by the Admiralty charts. Dr. Keller thinks *chalkos* was copper, with possibly a natural alloy; and this proviso will serve to meet part way those who insist that it was bronze. The beads of the necklace in Od. Bk. xv., 460, he asserts, were made of *electros*, the metal, while Mr. Munro decided that they were of *electron* or amber. As to writing, Dr. Keller concludes that while the Phœnician settlers in Greece probably used an alphabet, the Greeks themselves were ignorant of it; "for them the art of writing was yet to come." In all these matters we may strongly hope for additional light, and that light will come from the investigations which are multiplying in the various centres of Mycenæan or Aegean civilization. Granted that the Phœnicians were the immediate conveyers of culture to the Homeric Greeks, these earlier factors must inevitably have left their traces. The researches at Crete and elsewhere will fill many a gap and reveal many secrets.

There is one riddle which our author does not pretend to solve, one unique social product which he confesses his inability to account for, and that is the Homeric Poems themselves. These, at least, owed nothing to Assyria or to Egypt, or to the trading ships of the Phœnicians. "Before the contrast between these consummate products and the civilization whence they sprang, however relatively advanced, the mind stands amazed." Their root may have been the national impulse created by a successful war. But there is one negatively favorable condition which must have contributed to the development of this superlative work of genius. "It was not dwarfed and deformed by a restrictive and despotic cult; Greek art was freed from a domineering and all-conventionalizing priesthood."

In general, Dr. Keller's work is not a mere collection of bundles of dry economic facts. His analysis is keen and penetrating, and his generalizations are often full of pith and insight. As to religions he remarks: "The Homeric Greek was not a 'primitive man'; like all other men, he came under the domination of a cult whose conservatism registered the past with strokes so deep that when the reason for usages was long forgotten, the usages themselves remained." The Homeric religious ceremonial and sacrifice was a bargain with the gods, and "an insurance against the evil chances of life," an insurance effected even at endless waste and expense. On their part, the gods were well disposed if treated generously. And finally, "the expedition of Alexander the Great was far less national in character, led as it was by a despot, than the voluntary undertaking of the Trojan war."

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*In Sicily*, 1896-1898-1900. By Douglas Sladen. 2 vols. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1901.

If information were sold by weight, there would be a precious supply of it in these ponderous quartos, which hardly turn the scale at twelve pounds. In point of fact, they contain a good deal not at all heavy in character, and it is a pity that the bookmaker should have done so much to spoil its usefulness by printing it on such thick, loaded, glossy paper. The volumes are absurdly inconvenient to carry about with one, and the page unpleasantly shiny.

As for the text, the worst that can be said of it is that it is garrulous and slipshod, sometimes even ungrammatical. There are pages of description which do not describe, where the essential and the non-essential are thrown together higgledy-piggledy in a torrent of words, somewhat after the manner of Mrs. Nickleby. And yet the book turns out to be, on the whole, pleasant reading, and in its way it makes a good companion for the traveller in Sicily, at least for one who does not object to paying for extra luggage.

Its way is this: according to the title-page, the book is the record of three visits made to Sicily, yet it reads as that of a single visit made in company of a young American lady and her betrothed, to whom the author plays the part (very much emended and brought up to date) of Piscator toward Venator and companions. Among the emendations is that of making Miss Heriot and Witheridge something more than empty names at the head of the sentences. Each has a distinct personality of his own, and their figures move through the pages with every appearance of life. The incidents bear the stamp of genuine personal experiences; some of them—*e. g.*, the episode of Stephana Heriot with the students at Cefalù—adding greatly to the charm of the narrative. The human nature is exceedingly well observed, though it might be objected that the vocabulary of the young lady is not always that of a Bostonian avid of culture, but would seem to be alloyed with that of some more untrammelled Western sister. The conversational *déshabillé* of Witheridge, who, though a graduate of Yale, would seem to owe his training largely to the boat club and the football ground, one may accept as exactly reported. He is rather out of his element in Sicily, except as an attendant on Miss Heriot; he possesses no

language but his own peculiar variety of English; he has no interest in art or antiquity, and very little in scenery; he is careless and bored, but he is a capital good fellow, and his complete contrast to all his surroundings gives a slight tang to the narrative that is far from disagreeable. In fact, there are some of his sayings that one would be sorry to miss, as, that "There is very little a goat does not know, except how to behave." He and pretty, eager, unaffected Miss Heriot fairly divide with Sicily our interest in the book from beginning to end.

And as for the other half of the subject which gives its title to the work, it really does not suffer by the division. We simply make the tour of the island in pleasant company. It is the day-by-day record of the winter of a little party of indefatigable tourists, just like many another party, who want to see everything there is to be seen, and to know as much about it all as intelligent people, without pretensions to high scholarship, care to know. They suffer somewhat from the extortions of *facchini*, and they learn the lowest price for which a cabman can be induced to serve them, but their curiosity and enthusiasm are boundless, at least in the case of Miss Heriot and Mr. Sladen, and they are interested not only in churches, palaces, and ruins, but in the wild flowers, in chaffering with the dealers in curios, and in the people of the country. Mr. Sladen does the learning for the party with copious extracts from Cicero against Verres, from Professor Freeman and from Cardinal Newman. It has been already said that he is garrulous and discursive, which implies that he tells us a great deal that the fellow-tourist is always glad to hear: the comparative desirableness of the various hotels and pensions, the price of everything, from the weekly "arrangement" down to the samples of native pottery that he collects as souvenirs, the thousand little incidents of contact with the people of the country which make travelling a lesson in humanity. The reader gets to feel that he is making the round of Sicily with the Sladen party, and they are all so natural, so friendly, and communicative that he quickly becomes intimate, and ends with a sincere liking for their company. He gradually quits the critical for the sympathetic attitude, and when he learns the modest pretensions of the party leader as given in the closing sentence of the book, he has already accorded to him an unbegrudged esteem.

"I have given our itinerary in such detail, perfectly aware of the fact that it is very small beer. I have not given it because I think that the public will be in the least interested in what we did for any reason but one, and that reason is a highly important one—we contrived to get a vast amount of enjoyment at a very small expense. And I have yet to meet the traveller of modest means who does not want that recipe."

And so we have renounced all idea of carping at small inaccuracies in botany, in architecture, in Italian, or in English, and we gladly concede that the public may be interested in the book for other reasons than that assigned by the author. Neither Vuillier nor Paton nor Rod condescended to the "small beer" of the daily chronicle; but whatever they may have gained in dignity was at the loss of that sense of participation which Mr. Sladen inspires in his readers. Together with an unusually minute enumeration of the treasures of Sicily, he manages to give also an unusually strong impression of the peculiarities that make travelling there so delightful. Part of the secret of this is that the author is thoroughly in sympathy with his subject—he is enthusiastic over the beauties of the country and he makes light of small discomforts; and part is in the system he has adopted. He is, moreover, fairly free from the ordinary prejudices of the English traveller, and when the weakness crops out, it is so obviously weak as to be harmless. He indulges in the common British fling at the stupidity of Italian doctors, and gives a case in point that conclusively shows the ignorance and stupidity of the British patient. He atones, however, for such lapses by frequent flashes of insight or good-natured tolerance; with regard to a certain philanthropic meddlesomeness, he remarks that, "like Neapolitan cabmen, Sicilians do not like being put right by foreigners, odd as it may seem"; and again, with regard to the social code, he decides ("but with no touch of scorn"), "One thing is certain, that the Sicilian Mrs. Grundy would not pass muster in England."

We only regret that so light and gossipy an entertainment should be given in so unwieldy a setting. The volumes are copiously illustrated from photographs and other sources, often satisfactory, and exasperating only when they are the flabby oil paintings of an artist whom there is no need to name.

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*Mind in Evolution.* By L. T. Hobhouse. Macmillan & Co. 1901. Pp. xv., 415.

Among standing divergences of opinion, that on the subject of animal intelligence holds an interesting place. The lovers of animal pets naturally lean to a generous interpretation of their favorites' actions, while nothing seems to afford greater satisfaction to hypercritical professors than to explain away the pleasing yarns of the enthusiasts. The general public varies its sympathies according to the speculative fashion of the day, inclining now to disavow, now to insist on, the continuity of the lower animals with man. And, as the same facts lend themselves to different inferences according to the prejudice with which they are regarded, the dispute goes merrily on. As Mr. Hobhouse well says, the question, *e. g.*, whether animals reason, is one which people will go on putting for ever, until they arrive at a definition of reason which will satisfy everybody. It is in one sense a question of terms; in another, a question of degree. Nevertheless, Mr. Hobhouse has succeeded in making a distinct contribution to comparative psychology, not only by his well-conceived and interesting experiments with animals, but also by the moderation and impartiality of his interpretations. His general thesis is that mental evolution proceeds continuously, but that, at certain points, increase of quantity produces changes of quality, by rendering possible new achievements with their whole train of consequences.

We have emphasized Mr. Hobhouse's contributions to animal psychology because it is in this that the main value of his book will probably be found. In other respects it is not quite so satisfactory. He has, *e. g.*, difficulties with the conception of Evolution, which, following popular usage, he takes as a process rather than as a resultant of a number of processes. But he sees the need of distinguishing progressive evolution from degeneration, and assumes that the former, which he calls orthogenic, consists of the growth of mind (p. 5). Later on (ch. 16), it is described as an advance toward a *higher* organization, and the higher is distinguished by the double test of organic unity and differentiation or "wider scope." But we are not told how to decide cases in which these two criteria act antagonistically.

The assumption, also (as Mr. Hobhouse admits it to be), that progress is due to the evolution of mind, seems beset with difficulties. He neglects to define his attitude towards the fashionable doctrines of mechanism and psychophysical parallelism before ascribing causal efficacy to mind. Again, on his own showing, mind at first was merely a successful device which was useful in the struggle for existence. Why, then, should it not remain such, and how can he legitimately arrive at his intellectualist vision of "Mind as the dominating principle in this world" (p. 398)? The part played by feelings and volitions in arousing the intellect seems to be seriously underestimated throughout. And finally, even if all orthogenic evolution were mental, it would hardly follow that only one ideal of social organization would be aimed at; for at every point in history there seems to be a number of alternative ideals, good or bad, or merely different, and which rather multiply with mental evolution. This conception, therefore, will hardly dispose of the possibility of degeneration, nor help us to decide whether, *e. g.*, a socialistic or an individualistic organization will be higher.

The metaphysical account, also, of the purposiveness immanent in evolution seems to be very obscure, and to shed no light on a very similar discussion of teleology in Mr. Hobhouse's 'Theory of Knowledge.' On the other hand, Mr. Hobhouse clearly sees that Natural Selection, taken as a model of social organization, is a method of barbarism, and that "organized life rests not on internecine rivalry, but on mutual interdependence." Liberal and progressive thinkers just now have the arduous task before them of impressing the popular mind as deeply with this truth as their adversaries have succeeded in staining it with a consciousness of the ineluctable struggle for existence.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andrews, Jane. The Seven Little Sisters, Who Live on the Round Ball that Floats in the Air. New ed. Boston: Ginn & Co.

Arnold, Matthew. Literature and Dogma: An Essay toward a Better Apprehension of the Bible. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.

Atkinson, W. W. The Law of the New Thoughts. Chicago: Psychic Research Company. $1.

Barlow, Jane. The Founding of Fortunes. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.

Barton, W. E. The Old World in the New Century: Being the Narrative of a Tour of the Mediterranean, Egypt, and the Holy Land. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.

Black, Alexander. Richard Gordon. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. $1.50.

Bolton, C. K. The Private Soldier under Washington. Scribners. $1.25.

Brooke, S. A. The Poetry of Robert Browning. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.

Browning, Elizabeth B. Sonnets from the Portuguese. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.

Carroll, Lewis. Through the Looking-Glass. (Peter Newell Edition.) Harpers. $3.

Charpentier, Paul. Timber: A Comprehensive Study of Wood in All its Aspects, Commercial and Botanical. (Translated by Joseph Kennell.) London: Scott, Greenwood & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $6.00.

Colton, Julia M. Annals of Old Manhattan, 1609-1664. Brentano. $2.
Crane, Elizabeth G. The Imperial Republic: A Drama of the Day. Grafton Press.
Creelman, James. Eagle Blood. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company. $1.50.
Ford, P. L. Wanted—A Chaperon. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Frémeaux, Paul. With Napoleon at St. Helena: Being the Memoirs of Dr. John Stokoe, Naval Surgeon. (Translated by Edith S. Stokoe.) John Lane.
Games and Gambles. Illustrated by H. B. Neilson, with Verses by John Brymer. London: Blackie & Sons; New York: Scribner. $1.
Garis, H. R. With Force and Arms: A Tale of Love and Salem Witchcraft. J. S. Ogilvie Pub. Co.
Geoffrey Chaucer's Prologue to the Book of the Tales of Canterbury, the Knight's Tale, the Nun's Priest's Tale. Edited by Andrew Ingraham. Macmillan. 25 cents.
Gerrish, Claribel, and Wells, Webster. The Beginner's Algebra. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Gilson, R. R. In the Morning Glow. Harpers. $1.25.
Gordon, Emma K. The Comprehensive Method of Teaching Reading, Book 1. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Habberton, John. The Tiger and the Insect. R. H. Russell. $1.20.
Harboe, Paul. The Son of Magnus. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Harrod, Frances. Mother Earth: A Sentimental Comedy. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Hope, Anthony. The Intrusions of Peggy. Harpers. $1.50.
Hughes, R. E. The Making of Citizens: A Study in Comparative Education. London: Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York, Scribners. $1.50.
Innes, J. H. New Amsterdam and its People: Studies, Social and Topographical, of the Town under Dutch and Early English Rule. Scribners. $2.50.
Jackson, Gabrielle E. Little Miss Sunshine. J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.
Jacobs, W. W. The Lady of the Barge. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Knox, G. W., McGiffert, A. C., and Brown, Francis. The Christian Point of View: Three Addresses. Scribners. 60 cents
Leighton, Robert. The Boys of Waveney. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Lloyd, H. D. A Country without Strikes: A Visit to the Compulsory Arbitration Court of New Zealand. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Long, W. J. School of the Woods: Some Life Studies of Animal Instincts and Animal Training. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Lorimer, G. H. Letters from a Self-Made Merchant to his Son. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Lyall, Alfred. Tennyson. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan.
Lyle, L. D. Scott's Lady of the Lake. (Heath's English Classics.) Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Olston, A. B. Mind Power and Privileges. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
Robinson, E. A. Captain Craig: A Book of Poems. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Stevenson, R. L. An Inland Voyage. New edition. Scribners. $1.25.
Torrey, Bates. Instruction in Practical Shorthand. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Van Praag, F. W. The Weaving of Webs. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Waldstein, Charles, and Others. The Argive Heræum. Vol. I. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Walker, Frederick. Aerial Navigation: A Practical Handbook on the Construction of Dirigible Balloons, Aerostats, Aeroplanes, and Aeromotors. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
Warnock, T. B. Richard Hume. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Weed, C. M., and Crossman, R. W. A Laboratory Guide for Beginners in Zoölogy. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Wells, Carolyn. Eight Girls and a Dog. Century Co. $1.
Wood, Frederic. Government and the State: A Consideration of Elementary Principles and their Application. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.
Woolley, Charles. A Two Year's Journal in New York, and Part of its Territories in America. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co.
Worcester, J. E. A New Primary Dictionary of the English Language. Rev. ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.


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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 23, 1902.*

## The Week.

That the Hague tribunal has found for us in the case of the Pious Fund is gratifying, but the favorable decision is far less welcome than the fact that this long-standing issue has been duly presented to an international court, and that the United States and Mexico have the honor of first committing a case to this permanent tribunal. The court has decided that, since the Government of Mexico had undertaken the administration of a trust fund for the benefit of the Roman Catholic Church of California, it was bound to pay the interest to the beneficiaries, notwithstanding the cession of California to the United States. If the Republic of Mexico accepts the decision without appeal—and this may fairly be assumed—the principle will have been established that an eleemosynary or religious foundation is not rendered void by change of nationality on the part of the beneficiaries. This principle is not new. Generally, conquering or cessionary powers have respected private foundations in newly-acquired territory. But the particular application of the principle in the case of Mexico is unusual and interesting. The Hague tribunal finds that the mere relinquishing of all civic and political control of a given territory does not of itself terminate special fiduciary duties of a private or benevolent nature. Since the old trust, called the Pious Fund, is judged to be in full vigor, we shall have the curious spectacle of the Roman Catholic Church in California receiving a handsome annual subvention from the Government of Mexico. The decision of the Hague court will tend to give confidence to all donors whose gifts lie in debatable territory, while it should tend to make all governments loath to assume extraordinary fiduciary functions. A "Pious Fund" would have been an unseemly object for embittered diplomacy, and much more for war. The new court could have had no subject which better lent itself to calm and dignified deliberation, and the successful conduct of this first case will greatly enhance the prestige of the Hague tribunal.

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When the coal operators requested the appointment of a "sociologist" on the Commission of Arbitration proposed by them, they seemed to show the wisdom of the serpent, for no one knows what a sociologist is, and the appointee might easily have been President Baer, Senator Platt, or Mr. J. P. Morgan. It remained for President Roosevelt, assuming for the nonce the functions of an academy of letters, to determine authoritatively what a sociologist is. It means for the purpose in hand "a man who has thought and studied deeply on social questions, and has practically applied his knowledge," or, in more concrete language, it means Grand Chief Clark of the Order of Railroad Conductors. If the operators counted upon a pale, professor-like person, they reckoned without a President who makes not only appointments but definitions. A sociologist, then, is a leader of a labor organization, and preferably a railroad conductor. No one can complain of this decision, for there is no scramble for the appellation in academic circles. Prof. Walter A. Wyckoff, whose first-hand experiments as a wage-earner all will remember, writes to the *Sun:* "My subsequent work has not acquainted me with this science of sociology, of which I know nothing, but with the much more definite field of the science of economics." This disclaimer is characteristic of the academic feeling of today. It appears, then, that the word sociologist was going begging when the President took it up, restored it to honor, and gave it to the railroad conductors of the land, whose opportunities for observation and thought on society and social subjects are exceptional, as nobody can deny. This restitution should assure the President a place among humorists, at least.

---

It is in keeping with the solid traditions of Massachusetts law-making that a bill for the incorporation of labor unions is to be discussed at the approaching session. There is an especial appropriateness, too, in the fact that the first serious attempt to fix legal responsibility upon these powerful but irresponsible organizations should be made in a State which strictly regulates the incorporation of capital. If the trade-union bill should become a law, it would simply show that the State of Massachusetts is determined to control all great combinations which affect the common weal, whether composed of capitalists and investors or of laborers. Naturally, the labor leaders see in the proposed incorporation "disadvantages without corresponding benefits," but then, nobody likes to be deprived of power and saddled with responsibilities, while if the objection raised by a Boston labor leader, that "where you have law you have litigation," were valid, we should be obliged to abolish all laws whatsoever. The discussion of this bill cannot but be salutary, and we trust that many other legislatures will follow the example of Massachusetts in this matter.

---

At first reading the press abstract of President Eliot's notable address given on Friday before the Connecticut State Teachers' Association, conveys the impression of an unwonted pessimism. He declares that our common schools have failed signally to cultivate general intelligence, as is evinced by the failure to deal adequately with the liquor problem, by the prevalence of gambling, of strikes accompanied with violence, and by the persistency of the spoils system. In fine, he believes that the schools have failed at nearly all points in their task of training their pupils for citizenship. Such an indictment from such a source will receive the most careful consideration, and yet many will feel that the apparent gloom of President Eliot's survey is not without rhetorical intention—that he hopes to shake the country out of a too great satisfaction with itself, and to win a more liberal and intelligent support for the schools. Certainly, the task which lies before the schools of educating immigrant children in Americanism is unprecedented and of appalling difficulty, and it may well be that some such extraordinary effort as that recommended by President Eliot may be necessary to meet a pressing emergency. Yet it will not do to hope more from the schools than they can give, more than they ever gave when our forefathers held education in almost equal veneration with religion. A trained intelligence may indeed check the potential drunkard, wastrel, and rioter, but education readily becomes the tool of the unscrupulous boss, the professional gambler, and the corrupt labor leader.

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One "M. S. Quay, Chairman," has been caught violating a Federal law. Instead, however, of being haled into court and made to suffer the legal penalty of his misdemeanor, which, under the statute, is punishable by "a fine not exceeding $5,000, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding three years, or both," he has been let off with a sharp lecture and a warning from the President. The law in question is the one forbidding any Senator, or Representative, or any Federal officer whatever, to solicit campaign subscriptions, either directly or indirectly, "from any officer, clerk, or employee of the United States." Quay had unblushingly set about assessing Federal employees in Pennsylvania. Having appointed them himself, he naturally considered them his own. What had the President to do with the case except to act as the clerk of the Pennsylvania Senator? As for a little thing like a law, that was, of course, only a joke to Quay. But his unlawful course was brought to the attention of the Civil Service Commissioners, and they asked the President to get the opinion of the Attorney-General on the scope and validity of the

statute, and to issue an order. This Mr. Roosevelt did on Saturday, notifying all persons concerned that the provisions of law as construed by the Attorney-General must be "obeyed and enforced."

---

This is excellent, as far as it goes, and the President's order is said to have spread joy among Federal employees in Washington and elsewhere. They feel that they have found protection against their oppressors. They can show the President's signature to all "assessment" callers, and quote his words to prove that every employee of the Government may "contribute or not exactly as he pleases." But we cannot help feeling that a good way to make the country believe that the law is to be "enforced," would be actually to enforce it in the case of a man taken red-handed, as Quay was. It is all very well to protect the clerks, but it would be better to punish the Senator. Quay in court, Quay fined $5,000, Quay, better still, imprisoned for three years, would do more for the cause of civil-service reform than the most vigorous language in President Roosevelt's vocabulary.

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Expectations that, after the wholesale disfranchisement of the colored voters in the South, the whites would divide politically on more rational issues than the legacies of slavery and the war, and that what was left of the negro electorate would be treated fairly, seem far from realization in North Carolina. Although the operation of the new registration law in that State will reduce the colored vote to a negligible quantity, the bogey of negro rule is still dangled before Democratic eyes. A negro balance of power between a divided white vote is the form it has taken now; and therefore the ticket must be voted, as before, by the party label, and all agitation for needed reforms on which the Democratic party is not a unit must be tabooed, lest a growing white Republican organization should stimulate the negro to approach the ballot-box by way of the spelling-book. Meantime, extra-legal obstacles are being placed along that road. In some counties, according to one Democratic paper of the State, the registrars are excluding practically all the negroes; and one over-zealous board has earned the censure even of the Chairman of the Democratic State Committee by rejecting a negro preacher, who read and expounded the Constitution "beautifully," but who, in the writing test, spelled the word "divided" with an "e" in the first syllable. With such machinery in their hands, Democratic fear of negro domination is pure invention.

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In the expressions of administrative disapproval of the "Lily-White" Republican movement in the South, there is evidently a deeper purpose than the holding of the negro vote in the North at the November election. Delegates to the Republican National Convention are to be chosen in less than two years, and Southern Republicans can be largely instrumental in nominating a President, if not in electing one. Hitherto the vote of the Southern delegations has been too often sought by the distribution of patronage and the bald expenditure of cold cash. The present method, if our surmise of its purpose be correct, is much better. In the only two appointments of importance made by the President in Alabama —the District Judge and the District Attorney—he has shown no disposition to buy political favor with public patronage. The Palmer and Buckner Democrats chosen for those positions were selected because of their recognized ability, and, as they are again within the regular Democratic organization, their appointment cannot be charged to an attempt to build up a white Republican party. With the other plan of increasing the number of white Republicans in the South the President has no sympathy, and his recent official announcement on that point, coupled with the further assurance of Surveyor Clarkson in a letter to the North Carolina negroes, ought to remove a false impression which has prevailed largely in the South. The white Republicans, in both Alabama and North Carolina, who thought they were pleasing the President by their course, should have known Mr. Roosevelt better than to have supposed that he would desert the educated and property-owning negroes left in the electorate by the Democratic suffrage laws, whatever the spoils-seeking whites of the South or the Grosvenors and Crumpackers of the North might think about it. There is political acumen, too, as well as justice, in the President's attitude. Despite the unfair franchise laws, the colored voters in the Republican party in the South outnumber the whites, and it would be a reckless Republican Convention which dared to disregard that strength of numbers.

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In spite of general reports of a dull political campaign, the *Evening Post* published on Monday striking evidence that at least one class in the community is taking a deep interest in it. As the questions at issue are chiefly economic, inquiries were addressed to the gentlemen connected with the department of political economy in our leading colleges and universities, and the volume and outspokenness of the replies obtained from them are of great significance. On the subject of the Constitutional power of Congress to legislate directly against the Trusts, the answers reveal a becoming modesty. The professors disclaim any title to speak as Constitutional lawyers. Nor is there entire agreement among them as to the advisability of Congress exercising large powers of control, even if it possesses them. But on one point there is almost complete unanimity. Immediate repeal of tariff duties behind which the Trusts take refuge is pronounced to be the political duty of the hour. President Roosevelt's suggested plan of a tariff commission is treated with varying degrees of respect, but is, on the whole, roughly handled. "The alleged scientific, non-partisan tariff commission of experts is a humbug," writes Professor Daniels of Princeton. Nay, adds Professor Sumner of Yale, it is "an exploded humbug." Other professors speak of the plan with almost as great contempt and aversion. It is only a trick to "befuddle the public"; it is merely a way of "shelving the issue"; it is a "cloak," an "evasion," and so on. In view of the fiasco and failure which all previous tariff commissions present, it is evident that college opinion as a whole is not going to be caught by this mouldy corn. Will the President take heed?

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The lack of discipline in the army is well brought out in the annual report of Judge-Advocate General G. B. Davis. With a considerably smaller force in service during the year ending June 30, 1902, than in the twelve months previous to June 30, 1901, there was a decrease of only 754 in the number of trials. One out of every twenty men in the service was tried and convicted, and this in the face of the repeated assertions of Republican orators and newspapers as to the saintly character of the "boys in blue" engaged in killing off the Filipinos. Gen. Davis's figures show that a pretty serious condition of affairs has existed. There were, for instance, 760 convictions for drunkenness on duty, and 477 convictions for larceny, in addition to several hundred others involving robbery or larceny or attempts to commit them. Seventeen soldiers were convicted of rape or attempted rape, nineteen of murder or manslaughter, and forty-six of intent to commit murder. No less than 1,081 soldiers were punished for desertion, 846 for absence without leave, and 263 for sleeping on post. A new crime added to the category is "disrespect to the memory of President McKinley," for which four men are languishing in jail, just as men are punished in Europe for lese-majesty. Finally, 2,645 were dishonorably discharged.

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During most of the period under consideration the army has had an enlisted strength of about 70,000, exclusive of Filipino troops. In this connection the statement of an officer now on duty in the Philippines is of interest. His regiment, a new one, proceeded to the archipelago within eight months of its formation, composed mostly of beardless youths under twenty-one. The rainy season and the presence of cholera have made anything like strict discipline im-

possible. "The history of other regiments out here is simply degeneration, and I do not hope for any improvement in drill and discipline while in these islands." With officers talking this way, what will Secretary Root say? We suggest that he court-martial Gen. Davis for the publication of an outrageous libel on the army, in saying that one in every twenty of our mercenaries is culpable. No anti-Imperialist ever said so cruel and cowardly a thing as that, particularly in the middle of a Congressional campaign.

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The proposed subsidy from the British Government to the Cunard Steamship Line has called out Sir Spencer Walpole in a strong argument in opposition to it. He shows, first, that it is not true that Great Britain has been losing her relative position in the ocean-carrying trade during recent years. Although she allows perfect freedom to foreign ships in her own coasting trade, as well as in her colonial and foreign commerce, her own tonnage entered and cleared at British ports has been, for a period of thirty years, almost exactly two and one-half times greater than that of all other nationalities together. If other countries had been outstripping her, it is probable that some signs of the fact would be exhibited in the returns of British commerce, which is free to the ships of all nations. But it is said that Germany is forging ahead at a great rate by reason of subsidies paid principally to the North German Lloyd. Sir Robert Giffen has taken the trouble to procure the correct figures. He shows that the profits of the unsubsidized portion of the North German Lloyd fleet, from 1895 to 1900, increased from 1,900,000 to 21,700,000 marks, or elevenfold. The profits of the subsidized portion increased in the same period from 1,200,000 to 1,800,000 marks, or by only 50 per cent. The subsidized portion is composed of ships running to eastern Asia and western Australia.

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In the opinion of Sir Spencer Walpole, the very magnitude of British shipping makes a policy of subsidies impossible. If it were applied impartially and uniformly it would bankrupt the nation, but if it were confined to particular ships it would put their competitors at a disadvantage. "If, for example," says Sir Spencer, "a subsidy were given to exceptionally fast vessels sailing to New York, it would make it more difficult for other steamers, either with passengers or cargo, to hold their own on that route. For the sake of encouraging a service of some convenience and luxury, the subsidy would help to destroy a much larger and much more valuable industry." Moreover, he thinks that if subsidies were granted to the Cunard Company, the owners would rely on the Government rather than on themselves for the success of their line. They would fall into the habit of the captains of fishing-boats at the time when bounties were paid to them, of whom it was said that they went to sea to catch the subsidy, not to catch the fish.

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There was reason enough for an Irish night at the opening of Parliament on Thursday. The Irish members cannot relish the general application of the Crimes Act and the imprisonment thereunder of several of their members, and naturally they took the first opportunity of protesting. In the form of their protest they distinctly scored. Mr. O'Donnell, lately out of his patriot's prison, succeeded in being suspended; Mr. O'Brien, by demanding in a session which is to include the Education Bill, the London Water Bill, the Indian Budget, and the Uganda Railroad, at least one day for the discussion of Irish affairs, got Mr. Balfour to deny the request because it came from the Irish party. So the first day was made to yield a very colorable case of British oppression and Irish wrongs. "Tay Pay" O'Connor contrived to be silenced, if not suspended, and the climax of the evening was reached when the free lance Mr. Healy claimed his privilege "as a native of Uganda," and so thoroughly scarified the Government for its Irish policy that his Ugandan seemed to reading members to be of the family of Montesquieu's satirical Persian, or of Goldsmith's Chinese "Citizen of the World." Nobody, the dispatches report, enjoyed the performance more than Mr. Balfour, and yet he can have felt only a tempered joy, since Mr. William Redmond's statement for the Irish Nationalists, that they must take the first opportunity of "hurling the Ministers from office," should mean that the Irish members are going to withdraw their eighty-odd votes from the Education Bill, which, with 750 amendments (nearly 600 of which are from the Opposition), was already reasonably contentious matter. If the Irish prefer the chance of upsetting Mr. Balfour to bringing the Catholic schools under state support, Mr. Balfour will find the margin of safety for the Education Bill distressingly small.

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Chancellor von Bülow's attitude before the German Reichstag, as he pleads for reasonable grain duties, is very different from the manner of Bismarck in demanding support for a Government measure. And the milder tactics seem to promise smaller success than the old method of dragooning a majority. To the Chancellor's statement that prohibitive duties on grain and meat will prevent the negotiation of reciprocity treaties, paralyze trade, and discredit Germany before the world, the Agrarians reply in effect that they must have the duties reported by their committee, and that the Squirearchy must be first considered and its demands granted. Von Bülow's traditional allies have betrayed and flouted him, precisely as the ultra-protectionist Republicans humiliated President Roosevelt; and it is to be feared that the Agrarians are even less amenable to public opinion than our own Republican Bourbons. The personal intervention of the Emperor seems the only card unplayed. If that should be tried, and fail, the reciprocity treaties and the great canal scheme would go over indefinitely, and the Government would be forced to seek support elsewhere than among the Agrarians, to yield to whom, the Chancellor pointed out on Thursday, would be suicidal.

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It was hardly to be expected that the Chamber of Deputies which passed the Associations Act would fail to support Premier Combes for enforcing it. So Friday's vote of confidence, which gained the handsome plurality of ninety-six, must be regarded merely as a formal expression of party loyalty. Later, when the question of authorizing and reopening the suppressed monastic schools arises, the concrete and difficult question will first be before the Deputies, who have so far voted only on the general principle. M. Combes, in demanding supplementary legislation against the religious orders, breaks out the signal of no compromise, and engages himself to pursue relentlessly his anti-clerical campaign. It may be doubted if he can long survive as the pronounced opponent of the Church in a country which, despite the present Radical-Socialist majority in Parliament, is still profoundly Roman Catholic.

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The "rectification" of the Algerian-Moroccan frontier through the acceptance of the extreme French claims is precisely what might have been expected. It has been understood that, to the west and south of Algeria, France might make her own terms with the wild desert tribes and with the Sultan of Morocco, and that no other European Power would object to such extension of the French sphere of influence. Furthermore, the cession of the Tuat oases by the new treaty is the relinquishing of territory that the Sultan has neither governed nor possessed, and if the French gain control of the great caravan route to central Africa, they merely assume a useful function which no one has previously exercised. Accordingly, this accession of territory to the African domain of the French republic is without immediate significance. It opens possibilities of African trade, but then the French have shown little capacity for this form of commerce; and it brings somewhat nearer the time, still apparently distant, when the Moroccan question will become acute.

### *KILLING THE MANDARIN.*

Whether the President should or would have intervened forcibly in the late coal strike if the Governor of Pennsylvania had refused all military protection to the operators; whether (the protection actually extended having proved inadequate), had nothing come of the President's attempt at a peaceful settlement, he should or would have brought Federal troops upon the scene, or allowed the famine to drag on indefinitely—are questions which we shall not discuss. He chose, if we may use the expression, to exercise his good offices rather than his office. The *modus vivendi* which has resulted is wholly salutary in itself; but, so far as we know, this fact is due to the admirable firmness of the operators, for we are quite in the dark as to the arguments or entreaties addressed to them by the Administration after the futile conference of October 3. As in the Debs case, it has been made manifest that of some strikes *national* cognizance will be taken; otherwise, that precedent has been neither followed nor extended. Nor has anything been done to assure "the people of our country," in Mitchell's sovereign phraseology, that the same situation may not confront them hereafter if those whom he calls in the same breath "our people" are so minded. Indeed, in his patronizing letter to the President of October 16, Mitchell broadly intimates that no Federal force, however large, could have stamped out intimidation and persecution in the coal regions; in his own words, "a hundred thousand troops could not have enabled the operators to start their mines." This, though couched in the past tense, is intended to be prophetic and admonitory, with a confidence derived from experimental gauging of the time-fuse of Presidential resolution—five months at least.

Taking leave of these considerations, we invite attention to the moral aspects of the late strike in relation to the widespread distress deliberately engendered by it. At no stage was the miners' controversy with the operators alone, in the hope of constraining them by loss of profits to accede to redress of grievances and recognition of the union; just as at no stage did the striking miners depend upon their savings in the waiting game with capital. Their expectation of success lay solely in the cornering of an article indispensable to the life and trade of the country, and in making the need of it so acutely felt as to rouse a popular clamor for surrender at any cost of principle. The actual hardship and suffering and panic apprehension produced in the Eastern section particularly were watched by the strike leaders as the mariner watches his glass, and with growing exultation, inwardly; while their outward attitude towards these calculated effects of their machinations was one of pure detachment and irresponsibility—of hypocritical regret that the operators could be so unfeeling.

If we ask ourselves how any body of men professing to be Christians could, for no matter what grievance or injustice, make the misery of a community of millions—embracing the very poorest, and all innocent—a stepping-stone to the relief desired, we shall find one answer in the remoteness of the scene affected. There is a French proverbial expression, originating in an inquiry—fathered upon Rousseau—"Which one of us, if the pressing of a button would take the life of a rich mandarin in China, and make us his heir, would refrain?" In other words, the victim of our action being but the shadow of a name, and we not being in his accusing presence and witnessing his death, we press the button, kill the mandarin, and pocket the inheritance—with a clean conscience. Mitchell was at no time confronted by hospital managers imploring coal to keep their patients alive; by teachers beseeching him not to turn the children adrift and stop their training; by the poor whose occupation was menaced or destroyed; by the well-to-do confronted with conditions equivalent to poverty. In detail, such sights might have made some impression upon him, while in the mass and in the abstract they gave him only satisfaction. That way lay his advantage; he knew it and counted upon it.

The heathenishness of this is not peculiar to Mitchell or to other strike leaders. The force of a proverb lies in its universal applicability, and we are all capable of killing our mandarin. As a nation, we are now sustaining practices in the Philippines which, from beginning to end, have no moral justification whatever. Both the ordinary warfare against the innocent inhabitants, and the hideous forms of torture to which the water-cure belongs, are going on—have been going on for four years—because our Filipino mandarin is eight thousand miles away and completely invisible from this continent. For this reason, and because we expect to enjoy the swag of national aggrandizement and world-importance and commercial profits, the American conscience is easy. The latest handbook for American citizens, Dr. W. A. Mowry's 'Territorial Growth of the United States,' does not formally couple the acquisition of the Philippines with the manifestations of "the special favor of Divine Providence towards this country" from the Louisiana purchase to "the saving of Oregon from the grasp of England"; but this must be an oversight, for it fully justifies that acquisition. "Without doubt we need a large increase in our foreign trade; in other words, we want a much larger foreign market. Most certainly the possession and control of the Philippine Islands will be of great advantage to American commerce."

Had Mitchell, to return to him, actually appeared at the asylum or hospital or school door, dismissing the inmates in pursuance of his design of coercing the operators, it is conceivable that he might have encountered some resistance, or at least reprobation of his inhumanity. It would have been entirely in keeping with strike methods if he had done this very thing vicariously, by ordering a boycott of every institution, public and private, using coal that had issued from the mines since the strike began. This will seem anything but a monstrous supposition to those who are familiar with the condition of the mechanic trades to-day, with the chronic uncertainty fostered by the walking delegate, the cessation of work when non-union labor enters into any part of the job, the fine exacted before the construction is allowed to proceed, and the thousand and one modes of petty tyranny practised upon men who thought themselves free, by men who pretend to be free. In all these invasions of liberty we must not seek for the agent; we must recognize the Strike Power, a creature without soul, conscience or bowels of compassion, which consistently involves in its ruthless warfare both the unoffending and unseen members of society not a party to the immediate quarrel, and, by a forced tribute to its campaign chest, the equally unseen and unrelated unionized craftsmen who make up the federation of labor. To each his suffering.

We may set it down to a lack of imagination that this iniquity is not regarded in its true light by the American people. But we must have patience. Time was when men needed tales like 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' or collections of horrors like its 'Key' to understand the real nature of slavery—they could not deduce it from the bare fact of absolute control of one human being by another. And to-day the national imagination has only half grasped the essence of protective tariff legislation, though it has for forty years seen measure after measure framed under its very eyes, with all the clash and compromise of greedy interests, all the secret interpolations—like the Dingley tariff rate on anthracite coal—all the juggle of conference committees. The finished product of such a grab-game we still dub science and wisdom and sanctity—till greed again orders an overhauling.

### *THE REAL PROBLEM OF FUEL.*

Prof. Edward S. Morse, in his interesting book, 'Glimpses of China and Chinese Homes,' describes the fuel of the poor class of Chinese. Charcoal is used only by the well-to-do; for the poor, a pile of straw and twigs laboriously gathered from the roadside represents

the woodpile and coal-cellar of Western civilization; the cooking stoves and utensils are contrived to utilize every particle of heat emitted from the light material. "In our great country," declares Professor Morse, "with its long streaks of Oriental blindness and stupidity in not enacting and enforcing proper laws for the preservation of the forests, it will not be many generations before able-bodied Americans will be seen picking up dead leaves and dried pods along the road in order to cook their dinners." This prediction has had startling verification in recent days, when the wealthy have been sacrificing old shade trees, the poor of this city carrying away the splinters and débris of the subway construction, and a large portion of our Eastern population using various makeshift substitutes for the convenient anthracite. This recent experience confirms sensationally the truth fully realized by economists since Jevons, and by acute observers like Professor Morse, that the fuel supply of the world is limited, and the coal supply relatively near exhaustion. The lesson of economy enforced by our recent conditions of panic may thus prove one of the most important teachings of the strike.

European nations have already learned this lesson, and it is instructive to recall that a coal famine in Europe, while it would cripple the great industries, would hardly touch the average household. Such general distress and potential panic as lately loomed before the American public could not be brought about in France, Italy, or Germany by any conflict of mine owners and laborers. The European family is not upon the Chinese basis of burning rubbish, but it observes the strictest economy of fuel. Coal is used only by the moneyed classes. The poor burn wood sparingly (in the cities the old paving-blocks are a valuable resource), briquettes compounded of coal dust (generally wasted by us), pitch, and clay; artificial and natural peat—and all these in a great variety of convenient and compact forms. They not only use in general wood and vegetable fibre, of which a constant natural supply may be expected, but they burn just enough fuel to do the necessary cooking and heating, and no more. Reducing the case to terms of domestic economy, European housewives and servants are always making fires and letting them go out, while American housewives and servants are always keeping fires up.

It is not to be expected that we should all at once attain that Italian dexterity by which three burning twigs under a pan are made to last precisely the making of an omelet or the cooking of a chop, nor can we readily assume that German frugality which, in a climate quite as rigorous as our own, heats a room only moderately, and only when it is occupied. We are too near fire-worshipping ancestors who burned some cords of wood a week, and we are ourselves too habituated to over-heated houses for these sensible economies. But in spite of this tradition of wastefulness, the failure of the anthracite supply has shown us unmistakably that these thrifty people are right and we are wrong. Our need has brought many who never before gave a thought to the subject of the old-world practice of burning fuel only when it is actually needed. The kitchen range, that devourer of coal, has been disused in many families in favor of the gas or oil stove. It is to be hoped that the practicability of a system which lights a fire only when the food is ready for cooking, and puts out the fire when the cooking is done, will commend it to many long after the coal famine is past. If the price of anthracite should be high through the winter, as is likely, that might render us an indirect service in prolonging the experiments with substitutes for coal, and in teaching us to keep our houses at a temperature conducive to hardiness and health.

The great possibility of reform lies in sparing domestic habits. When hard coal is ten dollars a ton or so, many will study the mysteries of their furnace and kitchen range, and it will be found that with careful husbanding of heating and cooking fires, from a quarter to a half of the fuel formerly consumed can be saved. Once this economical mind prevails, invention will come to the aid of thrift. Already manufacturers and chemists are studying briquettes and the coking of peat. It will be generally perceived that in thickly settled communities there is a tremendous economy in turning coal into gas for the common use over burning it individually in ranges. This will put off the day that Jevons foresaw, when the coal supply will give out. The recent makeshift of burning kerosene oil upon porous bricks should open up the whole question—so far treated chiefly from the railroad point of view—of petroleum as domestic fuel. Finally, great relief is to be anticipated from the full utilization of water powers, tidal and fluvial, for the production of electricity. We see only the beginnings of these possibilities, but in France there was recently held the second "white coal" convention, the white coal *(houille blanche)* being the poetical name for the Alpine glaciers, which are the great source of hydraulic and, vicariously, of electrical energy. The discussion at this meeting was conducted not by visionaries, but by shrewd manufacturers who had a practical stake in the proposed transmission of heat and power.

But such speculations are for the distant future; for the present it is sufficient if we read the plain teaching of the strike, and realize that we are past the time of a pioneer profusion in fire-making, and that now a rational use of fuel must prevail, unless we prefer to learn by some still more bitter experience.

## *SECRETARY SHAW ON THE STUMP.*

Secretary Shaw arrived with the early frost in Indiana on Thursday. The unfeeling dispatches say that his speech at the Oakland City fair-grounds had been "widely advertised," but that "the railroad trains brought very few people," and that "one of the smallest crowds of the campaign was out to hear him." Under those circumstances, the Secretary naturally, or innocently, made "apathy" the chief subject of his story. Over the heads of the Hoosiers who were present he rebuked those who had not come out to hear him explain the importance of electing a Republican House of Representatives. He frankly confessed his "surprise" at the slight interest shown in his stumping tour.

It might occur to the Secretary, we should think, that he, as a member of the Cabinet, had been making himself a little too common, not to say cheap. As ornaments of special occasions, as delegates of their chief to utter in his name the correct nothings at civic or commemorative gatherings, Cabinet ministers are rightly in demand, and their presence lends fit grace. But when a political campaign is on, there are certain delicacies which they should observe. Neutrality is not expected of them. They are frankly of the party in power. But their honorable position demands that their public deliverances be dignified, and not of a sort to be bellowed from every stump. A Cabinet member in rough-and-tumble debate with objectors in the gallery is not a pleasing spectacle. It is eminently proper, and desirable as well, that the President's official family should expound and defend the policy of the Administration. Mr. Root's few speeches, Attorney-General Knox's careful and able statement of the intentions and hopes of the Government in the matter of regulating Trusts, the promised exposition of our foreign policy by Secretary Hay—these are examples of the fit and traditional participation of Cabinet members in a political campaign. But beyond such infrequent and weighty addresses, danger lies for them. It would be a public calamity were any of the President's Secretaries to make himself so weariful and hackneyed a rounder of the party stump as, for example, Mr. Depew.

The versatility of Secretary Shaw as a campaign speaker was newly illustrated at Detroit on Saturday evening. He took up the subject of our foreign trade, and found it to be in such a flourishing and progressive state as to suggest the advisability of subsidies from Congress to help it along. To the objection that this policy would impose a burden on the taxpayers in behalf of a private in-

terest, he replied that "the drain on the Treasury would be infinitesimal." Under the Senate bill, not more than $1,200,000 can be paid any one year until more ships are built, and this would be the merest trifle in comparison with the amount we pay for ocean freights now. But when more ships are built, 95 per cent. of their cost is paid for labor, "and I have never yet raised my voice," he continued, "against expending the public revenues, which come from the rich and well-to-do, in such way as throws 95 per cent. of it to labor."

This economic absurdity is gravely propounded by one of the chief officers of the Government at a time when socialistic ideas have received a dangerous impetus in our political life in consequence of the coal strike. The essence of Socialism is, that the Government ought to appropriate the public money so as to help citizens to earn their living. There are infinite varieties of method by which the Socialist philosophers seek to accomplish this end. The one most commonly advocated is that of public workshops, as, for instance, shipyards where a certain number of workers can always be sure of employment at good wages. Government coal mines and Government steel factories would naturally follow. Public bakeries would perhaps be more desirable than any other channel of state aid to industry, because the price of bread touches society more closely that that of any other article. Now observe how much stronger is the argument for subsidies to bakeshops than to shipyards.

Mr. Shaw says that 95 per cent. of all the money spent on shipbuilding goes to labor. Of course he includes in the 95 per cent. the materials of which the ship is composed, as well as the labor employed in putting them together. He means that only 5 per cent. of the whole sum expended goes to the builder himself. But (says the Socialist), according to our plan, labor will receive the full 100 per cent. Why should the capitalist receive anything beyond wages of superintendence? Besides that, who is to guarantee that under the capitalistic plan he will not take 10 or 15 per cent. instead of a beggarly 5 per cent.? Is it not evident that in a joint debate between Secretary Shaw and Karl Marx, or some acute disciple of his, the latter must get the better of the argument? The disciple of Marx would probably add, sneeringly, that any man to whom Congress should vote $100,000 could well afford to expend $95,000 of it for labor.

The Secretary declines to discuss the merits of the bill now pending in the House, but gives the weight of his influence to a different measure not yet reported in either branch of Congress—a measure for subsidies for ships running to "South American countries and the islands adjacent thereto." The only islands adjacent to South America which supply any trade, or are capable of doing so, are the West Indies. According to the Secretary, we are destitute of facilities for sending our goods to those countries, and we need ships for the purpose, or we need better and faster ones than we now have. Argentina, he tells us, exports $120,000,000, and takes only $12,000,000 from us. Brazil's imports and exports are in about the same ratio. Of the imports of those countries only a very small part is carried under our flag. "When a manufacturer desires to test the South American market," he continues, "he must first ship to Europe and then to South America, or he must send in sailing vessels or charter a tramp."

Chartering a tramp is no doubt disgraceful, especially in these days of large ship combines, but we venture to suggest that since all the shipping in the world is at liberty to carry goods from North American ports to South American and West Indian ports, and since large numbers are now so employed, the smallness of our exports to those countries cannot be due to a want of facilities of transportation. Possibly one cause of it may be the failure of the Senate to ratify the treaties of reciprocity with those countries negotiated by President McKinley. Nor is any reason apparent why the ships that bring our imports from those countries should not take return cargoes of equal value if we offer them our goods as cheaply as other nations do. We think, however, that our merchants and manufacturers are making very creditable gains in that part of the world, and that they will continue to make satisfactory progress in the future without any adventitious and socialistic aid from the public purse.

Secretary Shaw seems to have been rummaging the records of the Harrison Administration, when Secretary Blaine was working over the problem of South American trade, and trying to persuade his countrymen that the money we spent for foreign freights was impoverishing us, being virtually cast into the sea. We have since gone on wasting our substance in that reckless manner until we have grown to be the richest nation in the world. What can be the reason why we have not been sent to the poor-house in consequence of this drain upon our resources? Evidently the reason is that the price we paid for freights was worth the money. And this might have been reasonably assumed, considering that we are the universal Yankee nation and are proud of knowing on which side our bread is buttered.

## *THE DANISH ISLANDS TREATY.*

The treaty for the sale of the Danish Islands in the West Indies to the United States for the sum of $5,000,000 is now under consideration in the Landsthing, or upper house, of the Danish Parliament. The treaty was rejected once by that body, but the time for consideration was extended for one year. It may be inferred that this extension of time was made at our instance, since the Danish Premier, Mr. Deuntzer, in the debate last week, said that if he did not get a favorable vote now he should ask for a further prolongation, "provided the United States desired it." So it appears that we are in the undiplomatic position of asking a foreign nation to give more time, not to us, but to itself, to consider a pending treaty. This might be considered by Denmark as a hint from us that she did not know her own mind, or that, if she did not finally consent to the sale, we should take the islands by force. Indeed, the latter threat has been proclaimed in a portion of the press and by word of mouth, although, of course, there is no ground for such a charge of "criminal aggression" on our part.

All of our proceedings in the matter of the so-called "Christmas Treaty" have been undiplomatic. The man Christmas, who started the negotiation, is an ex-lieutenant of the Danish navy who had been court-martialled and dismissed from the service. He had become a *chevalier d'industrie* at large. He conceived the brilliant idea of selling the Danish islands to the United States, with the expectation, of course, of getting a commission out of the sale in some way. He came to Washington in December, 1899, with this object in view. Imperialism was at that time more rampant in the United States than it is now. Christmas managed in some way to get an interview with President McKinley, to whom he broached the subject of the purchase of the islands. Mr. McKinley referred him to Secretary Hay, and the latter gave him a letter of introduction to the American Embassy in London.

This was the first undiplomatic step taken, and the first one ever taken by the present head of the Department of State. There was a Minister of Denmark in Washington and a Minister of the United States in Copenhagen. Both of them were ignorant of the fact that a momentous negotiation was going on behind their backs, and that it was conducted by a common adventurer. Since these facts became notorious, efforts have been made to show that the negotiation was merely initiated by Christmas, but was not carried on by him. This is an error. Efforts were made to shake him off, especially by the Danish Government, but they were unavailing. He clung to it like a burr on a fleece. To him it was a golden fleece, and nothing could make him relax his hold.

Christmas accompanied Mr. Henry White, our Secretary of Legation at London, to Copenhagen. The Danish Minister of Foreign Affairs was astounded

when the nature of the business was laid before him by a discharged officer of his own Government. He received Secretary White with the courtesy due to his station, but refused to have any dealings with Christmas, or even to admit him to his room. Christmas had the audacity to appeal to the Premier and demand admittance to the Foreign Office as a party to the business in hand, and, by using Secretary Hay's letter, he actually carried his point, and not only joined in the negotiations, but got himself recognized by the Danish authorities as a party to the future conduct of the business.

How Christmas made use of this authority was disclosed in the Richardson investigation ordered by the House of Representatives last spring. He persuaded the Danish Ministry and Parliament and the Danish public that money would be required to carry the treaty through the Senate at Washington. This was an infamous lie, but it was believed in most of the countries of Europe to be true. People were accustomed to read of the corruption of some of our city governments and State legislatures. They were familiar with the names of Croker, Quay, and other political bosses, and were prepared to believe the worst things that could be said of our public men. Yet the Danish Government spurned the thought of bribing anybody to vote for the treaty. If Christmas had received any money for the purpose of putting it through the Senate, he would have pocketed it, of course. But he received not a penny.

The Richardson investigation in the House disclosed nothing except the method by which the treaty had been set on foot, but that was a revelation in itself. The facts did not become public until after the treaty had been ratified. If they had been known before, it is most likely that the Senate would have rejected it, not with the intention of rejecting the islands, perhaps, but to prevent the Christmas scandal from becoming a part of our national archives. The opportunity to do this is reserved for the House of Representatives, which can refuse to appropriate the money. It is sometimes necessary to break a limb that has been badly set, in order to make a good job and enable the patient to walk properly. Something of that kind would seem to be necessary here.

That strong pressure has been brought to bear on the Danish upper house to accept the treaty appears by the late dispatches. In the debate last week we read that "the Premier said he had received the written promise of the United States Government that, after the cession, free imports from the island into the United States would be granted." It would be interesting to know who promised that Congress would vote for free trade with those islands, when President Roosevelt, with his utmost efforts, could not get a bill passed reducing the duties on Cuban sugar 20 per cent.

## *SHALL WE RAISE A STATUE TO SHEPHERD?*

The expenditures for public works in the District of Columbia during the last thirty years, and, within the past year, the public approval of the magnificent plans of the Park Commission for the improvement of Washington, emphasize the desire of all our citizens that the visitor to the national capital shall see in it the expression of our highest aspirations. The lessons to be taught by its statues and monuments are not of merely local interest, but so deeply concern the nation at large as to merit attention throughout the land. The movement now being vigorously pushed to give a place to the late Alexander R. Shepherd among the chosen few whose public services are to be commemorated by a monument or other memorial, should therefore command general attention, especially in view of the great respectability of its promoters. One feature of the movement is especially fitted to excite sympathy. History has frequently to reverse the judgment pronounced upon a great man by his contemporaries, but one can hardly find so rapid a transition as that from sweeping condemnation to unqualified adulation within the lifetime of one generation, and it would be very pleasant to see historic justice executed so rapidly as it would be in the present case were the transition justified by the facts.

Were the question merely one of personal merit or demerit, we might perhaps inquire whether it were not better to follow an order of preference in the erection of our memorials, and whether statesmen like Jay, Madison, or Clay, and financiers like Gallatin or McCulloch, might not take precedence of one whose claims are merely local. But the great question in connection with such a civic memorial as this is, what moral lesson will it teach our youth? As the latter look at the statue, their question will be, "What is there worthy of imitation in the achievements of him whom it commemorates?" In answering this question, there is no necessity of our discussing any disputed facts in Shepherd's life. The change of sentiment to which we have referred has not risen from any discovery of new facts, but only from a different interpretation of those facts on which Senator Allison's committee pronounced its verdict. In stating who Mr. Shepherd was, and what he did, we shall confine ourselves to facts which all must admit.

In the Washington city directory for every year through Mr. Shepherd's governorship, including that of his downfall, may be found the following entry:

"SHEPHERD, ALEX. R. & CO., Plumbers and Gas Fitters, 910 Pa. Ave., n. w."

In stating this, we do not mean to imply that he was but a commonplace plumber. That he was much more—that he was a man of extraordinary activity and vigor—may be inferred from the finding of the Congressional Committee that the Vice-President of the Board of Public Works was practically the Board, and exercised its powers as absolutely as if no one else had been associated with him. Probably the same thing might have been said of the Legislature, and, in fact, of the entire District Government. Yet he had no business experience or training other than that of the head of an establishment like his, and such as he had acquired as an enterprising house-builder. With all his vigor, the results show that Shepherd was neither an administrator, an engineer, nor a financier. Had he been an administrator, he would have foreseen the results of his plan of letting out contracts for work to the amount of millions of dollars, without public competition, to a thousand different men to be selected by himself, at prices fixed by himself so as to insure the best of work with a reasonable profit. That the same facilities for evasion and for imposing bad work on inspectors existed under his plan as under any other, that the main difference was the greater chance for profit to be made under his arrangement, that every contract he let was a valuable franchise of which the possessor could readily dispose under the guise of subletting, and that the work would finally be done by those who would undertake it at the lowest rates, he seems not to have foreseen. Had he been an engineer, he would have seen the necessity of not commencing any piece of work until detailed surveys were prepared, showing exactly what was to be done in every street improvement. Had he been a financier, he would have seen the necessity of keeping a rigorous check upon expenditures and incurring no unauthorized indebtedness. Being none of these three, he proceeded to execute great public works with preparations more like those he would have made for the erection of a house than those required for his actual purpose.

The result hardly needs to be told. It is written in official documents. It is fresh in the memory of all who then lived in Washington or were connected with the Government. In the spring of 1874, when the Congressional Committee made its investigation, there was opened up from the first step a scene of confusion which is, we believe, without a parallel in the municipal history of this or any other country. Under authority to expend $6,000,000, the estimated or supposed expenditure had amounted to about $19,000,000, or more than three times that authorized. But this was a purely nominal amount. Multiplicity of contracts, the confusion of accounts, and the entire absence of order from begin-

ning to end, were such that the committee had to acknowledge its inability to get to the bottom of the affair, and recommended that the subject should be considered by some other authority. When this was finally done, the claims were found to be much greater than the total of the nominal amount. And this immense expenditure had been incurred in the short space of three years, and for a city of hardly more than 100,000 inhabitants. Indebtedness was being piled up at the rate of $300 or $400 per annum for every family in the city, with no immediate prospect of its cessation.

Commissioner McFarland, in a recent address stating the reasons for the proposed memorial, condenses the public services in question into a single sentence so happily that we can not do better than quote him:

> "Governor Shepherd, chiefly as a member of the Board of Public Works, in an incredibly short space of time, ploughed up the city so as to make necessary and inevitable that the plans of George Washington would be carried out."

The first thing to strike the reader of this would be that the same thing might be said of an invading army; the main difference being that in that case the ploughing up would have been done by cannon-shot rather than by spades and ploughs. But the final outcome might well have been the same. The fact is, that the crisis was such as to make it imperatively necessary to stop the career of the great actor in the affair. If he were allowed to go on spending ten or fifteen million dollars a year in this manner, where would be the end? The volume of indebtedness already accumulated was such that it was impossible for the city to bear it alone. Congress was obliged to come to its aid by assuming thereafter one-half of the municipal expenses. Through this help, and the adoption of rational methods, Washington was made what it is to-day.

We now reach the heart of the whole affair. From one point of view the position claimed for Shepherd may be that of one who voluntarily sacrificed himself to attain a great and good public end. We may suppose that he was profoundly struck with the indifference of Congress to the condition of the city, and the seeming difficulty of awakening the nation to a sense of its duty toward its capital. He seemingly saw but one speedy way of making Congress do what it ought to do, and that was to create a situation which would compel it to act, even though he sacrificed himself thereby. From this point of view, the more reckless the expenditure, the greater the destruction, and the more intolerable the situation, the more likely would be the attainment of the end in view. He himself might be condemned, but Washington would become what it ought to be, and posterity would praise him for what he had brought about. Whether these were the considerations which moved him, we do not pretend to decide. We leave that to the promoters of the scheme under consideration. But this is what seems to be implied in all the utterances and in all the proceedings when interpreted in connection with the facts. In no other sense than this was Shepherd the author of the Washington of to-day. How else can we interpret Commissioner McFarland's claim that he made the improvement of the city necessary and inevitable? And the question which we ask is, Is this the example which we are to show to our posterity to teach it a great lesson of national policy?

We commend another question to the very respectable movers in this scheme. Will it be possible to cleanse the proposed monument from all taint of association with the safe-burglary conspiracy? It may be admitted that no proof was or can be adduced showing that Shepherd knew of this nefarious plot; the fact being that the case was never brought under judicial investigation, owing to the burglar being released on straw bail, and never again heard of. But that a burglar was suborned to break into a safe of the District Government, take books out of it, and carry them to the house of the principal prosecutor, and that the plot was hatched by, or with the cognizance of, an official of the District Government, was established about as certainly as any facts well could be from the detailed accounts of the affair which appeared in the public prints.

## THE THREE-YEAR COLLEGE COURSE IN NEW ENGLAND.

BROWN UNIVERSITY, October 14, 1902.

With the beginning of the present academic year, Harvard College formally offers the degree of Bachelor of Arts at the end of three years of study. This important step, one of the most important in the history of higher education in this country, is no sudden move, but the latest of a series of steps reaching back over the history of the University for a number of years. Nor is the possibility of obtaining the degree in three years now for the first time held out. The catalogue for 1901-'02, embodying the practice of some years, gave notice that the degree might be obtained in three years, provided the student completed the requisite number of courses with such grades as would entitle him to graduation *cum laude*. This year the requirement of *cum laude* rank has been removed, and the degree is now open to all students in three years on the same terms, so far as scholarship is concerned, that it has hitherto been obtainable on in four.

While the action of Harvard in this matter is again in advance of the other New England colleges, there are significant indications that corresponding action may before long be taken elsewhere. The new collegiate department of Clark University, opened this month under the Presidency of the Hon. Carroll D. Wright, offers a three-year course to all comers, but with what is known as the group system instead of the elective system. At Brown, while a three-year undergraduate course is not yet offered, a regulation by which the degrees of A.B. and A.M. may both be obtained at the end of four years (provided a somewhat higher rank in certain extra courses be secured than is otherwise required) went into effect this year. Boston University offers the degree upon the completion of 120 semester hours, without limitation as to the number of years; and Dartmouth, which requires 122 semester hours, does the same. At Tufts the degree has, since 1893, been obtainable in three years by those students who received an average grade of B in the work of the 128 term hours required. At Bowdoin it is possible for a student who enters with three term courses to his credit, and who pursues in college five courses a year, to take his degree at the end of three years. At Amherst the student must have two term credits at entrance, take six courses each term (besides required work in declamation, debates, and hygiene), and maintain an average standing of "C plus." Amherst also allows the degree to be taken in three and one-third years, leave of absence being granted for the remainder of the fourth year, while at Dartmouth an appreciable number complete the course in three years and a half, using the surplus time in one of the professional or special schools. At Yale it has for some years been possible to obtain the degree in three years by completing satisfactorily the required number of courses, anticipation of college courses at entrance being allowed.

A further examination of the usage, or rather permission, of these different institutions discloses a situation of considerable educational interest. At Harvard the movement towards the three-year course has been accompanied by a gradual reduction of the number of courses required for the degree. The 21 courses required in 1880-'81 have been reduced, first to 20, then to 19½, then to about 18½, and finally to 17½, while this last figure may in practice be reduced to 16 by the anticipation of English courses at entrance. Further, the abolition of the requirement of a higher grade of scholarship on the part of three-year students than was demanded of those who had chosen the four-year term, puts the degree within the grasp of the average student in three years. Harvard, in other words, has now a bona-fide three-year course, unaccompanied by conditions tending to make its pursuit less free or more onerous than were the conditions which attended the older plan.

None of the other New England colleges, except the new institution at Worcester, has yet gone as far as this. The so-called three-year course, where such exists, is simply the old four-year course completed in three years, with the help, often, of permitted anticipation of courses at entrance or allowance for summer work, but with the additional requirement, in most instances, of a higher grade of scholarship on the part of the student who chooses the shorter time. It is not surprising, accordingly, to find that elsewhere than at Harvard the number of students availing themselves of the privilege of shortening their course is very small. At Yale, for example, only two members of the present senior class are reported as having attained senior rating after two years, while since 1886 but six students have graduated in

three years. At Tufts thirteen students have graduated in three years since the adoption of the plan in 1893, while as many more have taken the master's degree in four years, as a few seem likely to do at Brown. At Wellesley one student of unusual maturity and ability has taken both the A.B. and the A.M. in four years, and a member of the present senior class will, it is said, probably obtain the bachelor's degree in the shorter term from having entered in advance of the admission requirements in modern languages. For five or six years past an occasional student of exceptional power at Boston University has taken the bachelor's degree at the end of three years, while "probably three" students are reported to be now planning a three-year course. At Dartmouth, where there is said to be "no thought of shortening the college course to three years by a reduction of the number of courses required for a degree," not more than two men a year take the whole course in three years.

At first sight, this showing might be interpreted as an indication that the demand for a three-year course has been overrated, and that, even with such a course offered to them, the great majority of students, without regard to aims or financial means, manifestly prefer to spend four years in study for their degree. Such an inference, however, seems hardly warranted. With the exception of Harvard, where the requirements for the degree have been steadily reduced as the standard of admission has been raised, the three-year course, as has been said, is only the four-year course taken in three years. Precisely as much work must be done in the one case as in the other, only with a difference of a year in the amount of time spent upon it. That the average college course can thus, with profit to the student, be compressed at both ends, is at least questionable. Not that the average undergraduate at present works too hard; on the contrary, the oft-noted lack of robust intellectual interest among college men in the East to-day constitutes one of the gravest menaces to the standing and usefulness of many of our older institutions. But the four-year course, however variously contrived, is nevertheless a unit in which the order of subjects is determined, not only with reference to the total quantity of work to be accomplished, but also, and very considerably, with reference to the amount of time to be spent; and to attempt to do in three years what has been carefully planned to be done in four is seriously to disturb the logical arrangement of studies, and to bring into juxtaposition subjects which hitherto it has been deemed wise to keep somewhat apart. Further, the increase in the number of different subjects which must be pursued at any one time, under the compression plan, tends to work intellectual confusion in the average student, and so far to scatter his effort over a variety of topics as to make difficult the doing of good work in any of them. Few mature scholars would care to pursue even so many as four or five separate lines of study—say mathematics, a foreign language, history, chemistry, and psychology—at the same time, and it is not surprising that college students as yet show no great eagerness to take up six or seven. At Tufts, for example, the student who would complete his course in three years must carry a programme of over forty semester hours a year—a task which only those of exceptional ability are capable of performing; while at Wellesley it is frankly said to be "almost a physical impossibility" for a student to take the amount of work required for the degree in three years.

It seems clear, therefore, that, with the exception of Harvard, where the principle of fewer courses and greater content in each course prevails, the arrangements now somewhat widely in vogue in New England are hardly more than intimations of the kind of three-year college course which has of late come to be strongly advocated. Irrespective of the merits of the case, the demand for a course of study which shall lead to a first degree in three years is, obviously, not merely a protest against the amount of time which the present college course requires, but a criticism as well of the course itself as at present constructed. It is urged that the requirements for the degree are excessive in both variety and amount, and greater than preparation for business or professional life necessitates. To yield to the demand, consequently, involves something of what has been pointedly called the "degradation" of the bachelor's degree from the plane to which it has been, in the course of years, exalted. Clearly, then, the mere permission to do, if one can, four years' work in three, even though unaccompanied by special requirements as to scholarship, will not be regarded as fully meeting the case; it will still be insisted that the volume of work is too great, whether the period be three years or four.

The solution of the problem of a three-year course seems thus to depend upon the ability of the college to frame such a course out of the educational material at its disposal. The college must give up the notion that any existing four-year course can, with a little pruning and a good deal of compression, be made to work well enough in the new conditions, and, instead, must address itself to the making of a new programme, which, while demanding less time in years, will still offer to the student the substantial elements of a modern liberal education, and give opportunity for at least as sufficient a preparation for professional or business life as is commonly afforded now. Further, the college must make this provision for all students, not simply for such as have special ability or unusual powers of application; it must offer it as distinctly the kind of education which society now needs, and not as a concession to such as are poor or in a hurry. If it shall prove possible to do this successfully, the fear lest in the process the degree shall be "cheapened" will probably disappear, and the new course shortly be held in as high regard as the old. The problem is certainly one of the most vital with which educational reconstruction has now to deal.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

## THE INFLUENCE OF LAWS ON LEGISLATIVE OPINION.

LONDON, October 7, 1902.

That public opinion is the parent of legislation, is an important truth which is now so generally recognized that it passes for a truism. That laws themselves are in many countries, and notably in modern England, the creator of that public opinion which may be called legislative or law-making public opinion, and which leads in the long run to fundamental and even revolutionary changes, may sound a paradoxical assertion. My aim in this letter is to justify this paradox and to show the importance of the truth which it embodies.

Laws are often the creator of legislative public opinion; they gradually create, that is to say, a state of feeling which in its turn favors legislation of a particular character. It is not hard for any one who watches the course of legislative changes in England, to understand how it happens that an Act of Parliament may greatly affect public opinion. Statutes are more often than not passed, not with a view to carry out any wide and recognized principle, but with the object of meeting in the readiest and most obvious manner some special evil or hardship which happens to arrest the attention of the public. A member of Parliament is assaulted by garroters; the demand is immediately made that garroters shall be flogged. Some philanthropist discovers that the houses of artisans are ill-built and unwholesome; he draws a striking picture of the misery caused to the working classes by habitations which are productive of disease; a proposal is immediately made that a law of one kind or another shall be passed for the pulling down of dens of disease, and the erecting in their place of solid, wholesome dwelling-houses for artisans. A notorious usurer displays the cruelty as well as the craft of Shylock; general indignation is excited by the sufferings of its victims, who are hastily assumed to be as innocent as they are reckless; newspapers and the readers of newspapers forthwith advocate the revival of laws against usury. Children, it is found, are ill-treated in certain factories, and women who are not children suffer in health from overwork in ill-ventilated workshops; the suggestion is naturally made that factories and workshops shall be inspected, that the employment of children shall be regulated or prohibited, or that women shall be protected against ill-usage by being deprived of the right to dispose freely, on their own terms, of their own labor.

These demands and a score more like unto them may be reasonable or unreasonable—on this point it is my intention to say nothing whatever—but they and other popular cries, even when defensible as they often are on grounds of reason, have two alarming features in common, namely, that they are demands that a law shall be immediately passed dealing off-hand with some particular case or cases of great real or apparent hardship, and that Parliament shall, when engaged in meeting some patent evil, pay little attention to the general principles which govern legislation, and shall direct the whole of its power towards putting down some particular and definite abuse.

This being so, let it be further noted that such cries for a law which may put an end to a particular case of hardship have, during the nineteenth century—at any rate, since the passing of the great Reform Act—generally received attention and satisfaction; and laws, originally of an exceptional character, have been again and again passed to meet some particular grievance. The earlier Factory Acts had a limited scope and affected one particular class

of factories. The acts which have revived the punishment of whipping were, and are, enactments passed to punish particular offences which happened, at a given moment, to excite the indignation of the public. The recent Money Lenders' Act, 1900, may, without much exaggeration, be described as an enactment for the suppression of Isaac Gordon; but (and this is a point calling for special attention) a new kind of law framed to meet a specific and immediate evil always does, however little the legislature which passed the act may be aware of the circumstance, rest upon some principle or assumption which, whether sound or unsound, is of wide application. The first Factory Act contained within it the principle or admission that it was the business of the state to regulate labor in factories. The first enactment which, in a hesitating and very partial manner, provided for the housing of the working classes, involved the assumption that the supply of habitations for the mass of the people cannot be left, like other branches of trade, to be governed by the haggling of the market, but must be the special concern of the state. The revival of whipping as a punishment for crime rests on the old idea, attacked by the wisest philanthropists of a past generation, that the severity rather than the certainty of punishment is to be relied upon as a check upon crime. Isaac Gordon's Act—to call the Money Lenders' Act, 1900, by the name which best describes it—rests upon the assumption, for which as yet no argumentative basis has been found, that Bentham's argument against the usury laws admits of confutation, and that these laws ought to be more or less revived.

Now the one thing which is certain as to the course of legislation is, that principles which are the foundation of an actual law, must obtain thereby a certain weight or prestige among the ordinary public. It is also certain that a principle once recognized by law will, if of wide application, be, as time goes on, widely applied. To this we must add—and, as regards England, at any rate, the point is one of great importance—an act of Parliament is a precedent; and the well-known dictum of a judge that an ounce of precedent is of more importance than a pound of theory, holds good quite as much in Parliament as in the law courts. It is absolutely certain, for instance, that, to take an example from legislation which most persons rightly hold beneficial, the Married Women's Property Act, 1870, which to a very limited extent and in a very tentative manner gave property rights to married women, was, though ineffective in its direct results, the precedent which justified in the eyes of Parliament and of the nation the Married Women's Property Act, 1882, which, with some subsequent amendments, has bestowed on a married woman the property rights, and from one point of view more than the property rights, of an unmarried woman or of a man.

In dealing with the matter under consideration, I have purposely made use of the word precedent, for it suggests the true and most important conclusion that in England Parliamentary legislation, or, in other words, legislation by Act of Parliament, bears a very close analogy to judicial legislation—that is to say, to rules of law originating in the judicial decision of particular cases. It is admitted on all hands that judge-made law is in reality the gradual development, through adherence to precedent, of general principles involved in the decision of given cases. But Parliamentary law bears in this matter much the same character as judge-made law. An act is passed to meet a particular case, *e. g.*, the overworking of children in a particular kind of factory. Little attention is paid to the principle on which the act logically rests; yet it is soon perceived that, if a law regulating the labor of children in one kind of factory is beneficial, it is applicable to almost any factory or even any workshop. Meanwhile, as the sphere of the Factory Acts is extended, a public opinion is formed in favor of state intervention. A host of acts dealing with particular cases obtain more and more the force of precedent, till at last the long line of what we may call "Parliamentary judgments," beginning with the Health and Morals Act, 1802, is closed, for the time at least, by the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, and the state regulation of labor stands forth as a recognized principle of modern English law. Note, further, that this course of legislative action has at each step stimulated the growth of public opinion in favor of state intervention, and has produced a body of collectivist sentiment or conviction which, in its turn, has given birth to large bodies of collectivist or, as some would say, socialistic laws.

This action of law by way of precedent on the growth of law-making or legislative opinion, is important in at least two different ways. It explains a point which certainly requires explanation in the development of English law during the nineteenth century; it further reveals the existence of a danger which has hardly been sufficiently noted by the critics of English institutions.

Any one who studies the evolution of English law during the nineteenth century, is ultimately met by a problem which it is easier to raise than to answer. How has it happened that legislation which may be called revolutionary because it tends towards fundamental social changes, has in many instances been promoted by men who called themselves, and really were, Tories? The fact itself is past dispute. What is its explanation? It may partly, no doubt, be found in the desire of a party whilst in opposition to gain at any cost popular support. It may be found in part in a real affinity between a certain type of Toryism and socialism. Nor can any one doubt that Tory philanthropists, such as Southey and Sadler, did, even during the heyday of Benthamite Liberalism, propound doctrines which, whether their authors knew it or not, were more or less socialistic. But these explanations do not go very far in the way of answering the question I have raised; they hardly apply to the case of Lord Shaftesbury. He was, from many points of view, a genuine and even a stiff Tory. Socialism, as he understood it, was in his mind associated with infidelity, and he was not consciously a whit more inclined towards any kind of collectivism than towards religious scepticism, yet no one man did more than he to promote the factory movement; and this movement has developed into a system of state interference with the conduct of labor which, we may suspect, would have excited his Lordship's astonishment and condemnation.

One explanation, though a partial one, of the course pursued by Lord Shaftesbury, and by men like him, is to be found in the influence, which I have already traced out, of laws on the formation of public opinion. Lord Shaftesbury had certainly no intention of promoting any kind of socialism. When he became the advocate of the Ten Hours Bill, he was influenced wholly by religious and humanitarian feeling. His aim was to put an end to the overworking of children in factories; and he, in a manner very characteristic of English philanthropists, recommended legislation which he was convinced would free wretched children from ill-usage, without thinking it necessary to form any very clear idea of the principles on which the Ten Hours Bill was based. His intellectual dulness increased his moral authority; his obvious honesty and his sincere Toryism made it impossible either for himself or his followers to believe that he was the advocate of socialistic legislation. The moral and religious weight of his character had much to do with the success of the factory movement. The so-called Ten Hours Bill became an Act of Parliament; its provisions were gradually extended to one kind of factory after another, and Lord Shaftesbury naturally rejoiced over a triumph of legislative humanity. But to the end of his life, we may suspect, he did not recognize the real nature of his success. The Tory peer, whilst fighting for the humane treatment of children, had become the unconscious promoter of collectivist legislation, which in its turn produced a body of collectivist opinion destined ultimately to create a condition of things under which a leading politician of to-day could assert that nowadays we are all Socialists.

A danger with which English institutions are threatened is the occurrence of gradual though ill-considered revolution. This peril is immediately connected with the effect of legislative precedent on law-making opinion. At the present moment the English Constitution is not seriously threatened by sudden and avowed attacks upon its fundamental principles. The vigor of the resistance to Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule policy must convince even Home Rulers that the characteristics of the present time do not favor any course of action which is avowedly revolutionary; but the annals of the nineteenth century show that in England innovations which cannot be accomplished by a political *coup de main*, may often be achieved by the passing of laws which do not appear to effect any large change, but set a precedent for following some new and wide-reaching principle. Let any one who doubts this weigh the great effect which has gradually been produced by the passing of a number of acts, none of which, taken alone, may have appeared of great importance, but which, taken together, have gone a great way to sanction the principles of collectivism.

With this gradual process of change there would be no reason to quarrel were it not that the habit of legislating with a view to particular and exceptional cases introduces into English institutions wide and far-reaching innovations without the nation ever having had the opportunity, or ever having taken the trouble, to consider or discuss adequately the principles on which alone far-reaching changes can be defended. It is not my wish to express any opinion either against or in favor of the

Education Bill of the Government, but a critic may be allowed to note one indisputable fact. Habits of piecemeal legislation, combined with respect for precedent, have produced a condition of things which no man of sense, whatever his political or his religious beliefs, would have dreamed of creating if, from the first, the subject of national education had been discussed in Parliament as a whole, and an attempt had been made to deal with it on broad and intelligible principles. The influence of laws, as precedents, both on opinion and on legislation, is assuredly not without its obvious evils. AN OBSERVER.

# Correspondence.

## THE CAUSE AND EVIL OF OVERCAPITALIZATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is a pleasure to turn from the unbaked sciolism of cheap politicians to the serious, lawyerlike, and statesmanlike speech of Attorney-General Knox, before the Chamber of Commerce in Pittsburgh, on the 14th instant. Without the impudent efforts of the Senatorial style of statesman to deny or belittle the impending calamities of gigantic combinations of capital, it is a real and earnest effort to consider, and if possible to find, a legal remedy for them. It is not necessary to agree (as I certainly do not) with all of Mr. Knox's conclusions, in order to admire the spirit and intellect which he has shown in his treatment of the subject. There is, however, one portion of his criticism that I think invites more attention than he has given it.

Of the abuses of these organizations he says:

"Overcapitalization is the chief of these, and the source from which the minor ones flow. It is the possibility of overcapitalization that furnishes the temptations and opportunities for most of the others. Overcapitalization does not mean large capitalization or capitalization adequate for the greatest undertakings. It is the imposition upon an undertaking of a liability without a corresponding asset to represent it. Therefore, overcapitalization is a fraud upon those who contribute the real capital either originally or by purchase; and the efforts to realize dividends thereon from operations is a fraudulent imposition of a burden upon the public."

The greatest injury that is worked by overcapitalization is not "the efforts to realize dividends thereon." In the bulk of the modern corporations, the stock is not intended to represent assets. The property put in is not represented, or intended to be represented, by the stock—certainly not the common stock. The real money or property which the organizers of these corporations put into them is returned to the vendors in the shape of bonds or at the least preferred stock. The common stock is generally issued as gifts to the promoters, bribes to those granting the franchises, paying so-called "underwriters," or as a bonus given to float the bonds. It is not supposed or intended generally that the concern can or shall pay dividends on the common stock in the near future. It is sufficient for the purposes of the getters-up of these Trusts if its profits are sufficient to pay the interest on its bonds, and perhaps the dividend on the preferred stock. The real value to them of this common stock is the inflation of the public credit, without any responsibility. They create thousands of pieces of paper, which are called securities, which may be pledged and gambled with on the Stock Exchange. It is not to manufacture merchandise or furnish transportation that these immense stock issues are required; but it is for the purpose of making in a few hours the colossal fortunes which the manipulation of the stock market may insure them, that these countless pieces of paper are manufactured. It is the most dangerous form of inflated credit; like incontrovertible paper money, it is imaginary assets. It serves no useful purpose, but its object and end is gambling.

It will be observed that neither Mr. Carnegie, nor any of the sellers of properties which go to make up a large Trust, take any of their purchase money in common stock—they get bonds or preferred stock. Such of the common stock as has not been used in bribes or bonuses remains with the syndicate, who shove it off on the public or use it as counters to gamble with. The certificates representing stock are the chips—blue, red, and white—of the faro or poker table, with the advantage on the side of the latter that they are paid for in money, while the former are not.

This then—the undue inflation of credit, the inducement to and opportunity for gambling, and not merely the efforts to earn dividends on water—is the great injury which is done by these enormous and fictitious issues. J. S.

PHILADELPHIA, October 18, 1902.

## LEVYING TRIBUTE ABROAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The enclosed quaintly addressed and naïvely worded missive has just reached me, and I think it might amuse your readers as much as it has myself. The fact is, that I never had the chance of voting but once in my life. I have been kept professionally abroad ever since I was twenty-two. And, although I have no longer a vote, Mr. Quay—I suppose the person you have repeatedly exposed—seems to think I must still support the Republican machine in my native State. I am only too willing to do anything I can to support the United States, but I refuse to be blackmailed by the Republican or any other party. JOSEPH PENNELL.

LONDON, October 8, 1902.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., September 18, 1902. D.

*Mr. Joseph Pennell, 14 Buckingham, London, England:*

DEAR SIR: The Republican State Committee is greatly in need of financial assistance for the election of Republican Congressmen and State Officers, and will be greatly obliged if you will aid to the extent of your ability and inclination.

Yours, with much respect,

M. S. QUAY, Chairman.

## POPULAR INDIFFERENCE TO ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your issue of September 25 contains an admirable editorial on the lack of interest in art in this country, the point of which is, that Americans care for statues and paintings, but for intellectual rather than æsthetic reasons. The subject is everything, the art with which it is represented is a matter of indifference. With this conclusion I am inclined to agree, but certain implications of the writer are less satisfactory.

He plainly implies that portrait art is scarcely art at all, unless the subject be commanding or exceptionally attractive, and that the sculptor who is called upon to execute a monument to Gov. Flower or Dr. Channing has a barren opportunity unless he is permitted to introduce allegorical figures. In other words, the central theme of our monument art is hopelessly unæsthetic, and any art that is to be lodged in such a monument must be embodied in pretty, not to say arbitrary, accessories. Is this so? Is the only beauty in Saint Gaudens's Gen. Sherman to be found in the airily draped figure that leads his horse? Would it help Gov. Flower to surround him with angels or pretty girls on some allegorical pretext? Is there not here a narrow conception of art which may bias if not invalidate the diagnosis of the entire situation?

There are profound æsthetic possibilities in the treatment of even a commonplace face or figure. Scarcely an artist of the Renaissance can be mentioned who has not scored one of his greatest triumphs in portraiture. The subtle analysis of character, the discriminating choice of personal characteristics and their synthesis into a higher self that is both beautiful and true—this is a process which has tempted the greatest artists to the exercise of their highest faculties. This higher interpretation of personality is the highest type of idealization, one altogether transcending the possibilities of the allegorical figures with which the feeble artist is wont to surround his barren creations. It is doubtless true that our sculptors spend too much time "modelling trousers and hats," but the *artist* can inform these things with a higher meaning and beauty if he will.

Nor is the public quite indifferent to this higher meaning. Some statues wear and others do not. Slowly but infallibly this same popular judgment which is so much decried, puts one statue on a pedestal and casts down another, and all because the one has a beauty and a significance which the other has not. It must be remembered that we feel a good deal more than we can say, more even than we are conscious that we feel. The intellectual content of a picture may be all we talk about, all we can analyze enough to put into words, but half of the pleasure that we think we derive from the characters and the story, we really do derive from the art, from the poetry of line and color and the witchery of shadow which the artist has employed in their representation. Nor is it clear that we should enjoy these things more if we were conscious of the source of our pleasure and could talk learnedly about composition lines, values, and color schemes. The epicure is not less an epicure because he knows nothing of the jargon or the skill of the cook. We are dull enough, but we are neither so dull nor so perverse as we seem, and the popular insistence upon meaning in art, and its opposition to irrelevant prettinesses, is not unwholesome. It is but an expression of that requirement which is emphasized by the history of art in every age, namely, that the artist should find beauty and significance in the life and thought of his time. There is something the matter with

him if he sees in it nothing but trousers and hats, to be represented grudgingly and atoned for by cleverness in unmeaning detail. "The poor little accessory allegory by which the artist tries to escape from the hideous and the real" is too often a confession of failure on his part to comprehend the æsthetic possibilities of his subject.

Finally, if we are not greatly interested in art, we are willing to become so. A course in the interpretation of art offered for five or ten persons in Boston Museum brings sixty applicants the first day. Try to interest people in mere artists' biographies and gossip about painters and you will accomplish nothing, for this is not art. Take them to art by the back door through the studio, with shop talk and craftsman's perspective, and again you will give them no love for art. The epicure doesn't whet his appetite by loitering in the kitchen; the tapestry doesn't show its pattern when seen from the workman's side. But if you can see what it is in a picture that makes it art, and can tell what you see, there is no people in the world that will give you so eager or so intelligent a hearing. H. H. POWERS.

BOSTON, October 12, 1902.

[We were quite aware that we had presented only one aspect of a subject which has many others. Everything that Dr. Powers says may be true, and yet what we said be not untrue. No one would think of denying the artistic possibilities of portraiture—even of portraiture in sculpture—and yet the world would have lost something if Michelangelo had devoted himself to it. The qualities of great portraiture, moreover, are impossible when the statue is modelled after death from photographs, and it would do no harm if our sculptors were oftener asked for something more specifically sculpturesque than a portrait statue in modern costume can ever be. There is a great deal in a word. Dr. Powers speaks of "pretty girls" where we spoke of ideal figures, but if the Venus of Milo and the Victory of Samothrace are "pretty girls," then no one need be afraid of prettiness.—ED. NATION.]

## ETHICS OF THE WILDERNESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is related of Georgia moonshiners who took a liking to some sophisticated summer tourists, that one morning the tourists found paper-weighted along a favorite walk the confiding allurement: "Ef you-all wants whiskey & leaves a Quarter on this here stump y'll get it."

Which promise held good upon test.

Very respectfully, H. O.

October 17, 1902.

## A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Are you not in error in assuming that the Bodleian is a tribute to the enlightened management of Sir E. Maunde Thompson? As he has been connected with the British Museum since 1861, is there not some confusion in assigning him to Oxford?

ALBERT S. COOK.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., October 18, 1902.

[There is. We should have written the name of Mr. E. W. B. Nicholson.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

Readers of the *Nation* possessing letters of Stephen A. Douglas which have a biographical value are invited to correspond with Allen Johnson, Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa.

R. H. Russell announces a new volume from Mr. Dooley, and 'The Girl Proposition: A Bunch of He and She Fables,' by George Ade.

'Our Benevolent Feudalism,' by W. J. Ghent, is to be issued by Macmillan, along with 'Furniture of Olden Times,' by Frances C. Morse; 'Sun-Dials and Roses of Yesterday,' by Mrs. Alice Morse Earle; 'Memories of a Hundred Years,' by Edward Everett Hale; and the first of four volumes of 'An Illustrated History of English Literature,' by Richard Garnett and Edmund Gosse.

Mr. E. A. Abbey's illustrations to Goldsmith's 'Deserted Village,' already shown in *Harper's Magazine*, are to reappear in book form. The Harpers will also publish directly Justin McCarthy's 'Reign of Queen Anne.'

Thomas Whittaker will soon have ready 'Theology's Eminent Domain, and Other Papers,' by the Rev. W. R. Huntington, D.D.

A new volume of verse by Nixon Waterman, 'In Merry Mood,' is promised by Forbes & Co., Boston.

Forest and Stream Publishing Co. will make a more and a less expensive edition of Mrs. Llewella Pierce Churchill's 'Samoa Uma, Where Life is Different.'

Additional publications from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will be 'Grimm Tales Made Gay,' by Guy Wetmore Carryl; 'Penelope's Experiences in Ireland,' by Kate Douglas Wiggin; and a 'Guide to the Study of Reference Books,' by Alice B. Kroeger.

J. B. Lippincott Co. will publish 'Yachting: Historical Sketches of the Sport,' by Julius Gabe.

Arthur Upson's 'Octaves in an Oxford Garden,' decorated and lettered by Margarethe E. Heisser, is in the press of Edmund D. Brooks, Minneapolis.

Henry Frowde will extend the "Oxford Miniature Poets" series on Oxford India paper with Mrs. Browning's 'Aurora Leigh, Sonnets from the Portuguese, and Other Poems,' as well as with Longfellow's Poems in three volumes.

From Lemcke & Buechner is to be had the third edition of Alexander Schmidt's incomparable 'Shakspere Lexicon,' in two volumes, prepared by Prof. Gregor Sarrazin, who has revised and enlarged it in the light of Shakspere criticism of the past fifteen years. The new matter is in a supplement, but connected with the main work by references.

Prevailing good taste and decorative feeling characterize Margaret Armstrong's embellishments of Messrs. Putnam's dainty edition of Mrs. Browning's 'Sonnets from the Portuguese.' It is mostly floral and scroll work, and safest so, as the one figured drawing (for frontispiece) intimates. The coloring is delicate. The text is in brown ink.

Kipling's 'Just-So Stories for Children' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), gathered into a volume and illustrated by himself, confirm his reputation as a story-teller for the nursery. They are uneven, and the two non-animal tales about the origin of the alphabet and of writing are too elaborate fooling for the age addressed. Most of the verse thrown in could be dispensed with, and much of the legends attached to the illustrations (except as a hint to the parent who reads aloud). The designs are proof of visualizing with the pencil to a degree which Kipling's less imaginative father could, we think, hardly equal. There is choice, again, here, and at the head we should place the whale swallowing the mariner, at page 5, and the cat that walked by himself at page 207.

Mr. Peter Newell's return to the illustration of Lewis Carroll in 'Through the Looking-Glass' (Harpers) must be pronounced more successful than his similar treatment of 'Alice in Wonderland.' He has evidently endeavored to refine his Alice, with partial success—as much as was proper, perhaps, to be consistent with the companion volume. With chessmen he is altogether at home, and he has managed cleverly the designs for "The Walrus and the Carpenter"; particularly good is that of the eldest oyster winking his eye and refusing to leave his oyster-bed, whose counterpane has an appropriate design of star-fish. The fanciful borders are again printed in a pale tint, and the vellum-like covers invite clean hands on the part of the favored young person allowed to own this handsome book.

It has been said that the pension rolls of the civil war reach higher figures than its muster rolls; likewise, it seems probable that the heroes of historical novels will soon account for the full roster of the Revolutionary army. In 'The Maid-at-Arms' (Harpers), Mr. Chambers tells of the love of a Continental officer for a patroon's daughter. The scene is laid in the Mohawk and Sacandaga Valleys during the eventful summer of 1777, and the amatory portion of the tale is pleasing, although burdened with doubtful historical references and much valuable misinformation concerning that interesting people, the Iroquois. The "historical" ambition of this book and its predecessor ('Cardigan') are due to the fact that Mr. Chambers is partial to the geography of Broadalbin, Fulton County. The manners and customs of the patroons are somewhat startlingly portrayed, but let none say that they were wanting in deference to Mrs. Grundy. The patroon's daughter dons a man's buckskin suit for an evening ride in the forest with the hero, whom she had met for the first time on the day before, but the patroon counsels her to be at home "by the new moon rise," say about seven A. M. When the much-to-be-desired School of Elementary Astronomy for Novelists is established, Mr. Chambers should become one of its most diligent pupils.

The Sixth Annual Report of the Forest, Fish, and Game Commission of the State of New York, covering the year 1900, is but just issued. As in previous years, the for-

mal report is accompanied by essays on forestry topics, nor are there lacking the fine colored plates which have lent distinction to this series. The elaborate "Forest Working Plan for Township 40," published last year by the Division of Forestry, United States Department of Agriculture, is here reprinted, while of the new matter the most important is a "History of the Lumber Industry in the State of New York," by William F. Fox, the State Superintendent of Forests. This history is illustrated by a colored map of great interest, showing graphically the progress of the settlement of the State by towns, from New York, 1614, to Indian Lake, 1843. After much agitation, the game law was in 1896 amended to prohibit the hounding of deer. From the figures given in this report it would appear that the forebodings of those who doubted the wisdom of this enactment are justified. These figures "indicate that more deer are now killed by still hunting than were killed when hounding and jacking were permitted." Since the prohibition of hounding has also increased the proportion of does among the deer killed, and has added man to the list of animals shot in the Adirondack forests, the repeal of the prohibition is plainly indicated.

The third instalment of the 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana, 1847-1899' (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) comprises F and the greater part of G. Among the longer lists of works are, for native authors, those by Goldoni, who is still a live classic; Gioberti, Giusti, and Aurelio Gotti. There was a Galileo revival in the nineties, and Garibaldi's autobiography went into a tenth edition in 1895. Among foreigners, there was a translation of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' as recently as 1895. Such of Gladstone's works as were reproduced naturally had relation to Neapolitan tyranny; but his Homer was translated in 1881. The latest date for any of Gautier's works is 1892. Goethe's "Faust" shows numerous renditions, some as late as 1895, in which year, also, the 'Italian Journey' was revived.

A little work by Prof. Wilhelm Rein, 'Bildende Kunst und Schule' (Dresden: E. Haendke), is one of the many recent endeavors to cultivate in early life the sense for the beautiful in nature and art. It is distinguished, however, by pedagogical insight and a comprehensive survey of the leading thoughts and plans hitherto advanced. It is not so easy with us as it is in a country like Germany to provide a large amount of pictorial material of real value for educational purposes. Still, an earnest coöperation of artists, teachers, and publishers might accomplish a great deal, and Professor Rein's treatise is suggestive of the lines along which to proceed.

Two valuable contributions to the history of the South African war have been just published in Munich, Bavaria. The first of these is a volume of 314 pages, with eighty illustrations, entitled 'Unter dem Roten Kreuz in Transvaal,' by Dr. J. Fessler (Seitz & Schauer). The author is privatdocent in the medical faculty of the University of Munich, and conducted an expedition to the Transvaal sent by the Society of the Red Cross for the purpose of nursing the sick and wounded Boers. The record of his observations, while devoting himself to this humanitarian work, is exceedingly instructive. Richer in personal adventure, and therefore of a more popular character, is Franko Seiner's 'Ernste und Heitere Erinnerungen eines Deutschen Burenkämpfers' (Beck), of which the second and concluding volume has just appeared. It contains some entertaining anecdotes of Oom Paul, illustrating his peculiar humor. Thus, when the Jews complained that only half as much ground had been allotted to them for a synagogue as to the Hollanders for a church, he replied: "Well, that's perfectly fair; you believe only half of the Bible." The author praises the valor of the Boers, but criticises their lack of strategy and military discipline, due to excessive self-confidence and individual independence.

The growth of the Boston Public Library during the past year, as shown in the annual report, has not been in books and circulation alone. The agencies by which the books are brought within the reach of the public are now 128, an increase of 30. These agencies include 44 schools and 33 engine-houses. Nearly $50,000 was expended for books, "the largest sum ever spent in a single year," and the library has been enabled to obtain many valuable books and manuscripts, some of which are described in the report. Among the gifts specially noted are those "to the now very large collection on the abolition movement in the United States." We remark further the avowed intention of the trustees to commemorate in some fitting way the first half-century of this institution; and their expressed opinion that most current works of fiction "have little permanent or even temporary value," which has led to their diminishing the purchase of such books "until their value can be tested by time." In one month, nearly half of the 2,417 slips in the children's department were for Miss Alcott's 'Little Men' and 'Little Women,' Jacobs's and Lang's fairy tales, Mother Goose, and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' This raises the question whether Uncle Tom is not, in the infant mind, as unsubstantial as any character in nursery lore. The children will get small aid from their school histories to think otherwise.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for October contains an illustrated account, by R. H. Chapman of the Geological Survey, of a horseback journey across the northern Rockies, in the Lewis and Clark Timber Reserve in Montana. The limiting width of meander belts is shown by Prof. M. S. W. Jefferson, from numerous measurements of rivers in this country and in Europe, to be "eighteen times the mean width of the stream." Among the minor contents are Peary's official report of his Arctic work during the past year, and a description of the newly-established Reclamation Service for the construction of irrigation works in the arid lands of certain States and Territories.

Volume xxx., part ii., of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan (pp. 362), contains two papers of high literary value. One is a translation by Dr. G. W. Knox of the autobiography of Arai Hakuseki, the famous Japanese scholar of Yedo and virtual ruler of Japan, who wrote in 1716 when sixty years old. The other is a study of Bashō (born 1644) and the Japanese epigram, by Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain. Arai and Bashō were contemporaries, and both in their way representative of the best of the old Japan which has utterly passed away. Arai, born poor, became official scholar to the Shogun himself, a sort of "court preacher," so that, although without legal authority, as confidential adviser, through his master, he ruled the empire. Arai was scholar, poet, historian, economist, moralist, and statesman, and in native bibliographies the list of his writings fills many pages. His autobiography, which was prepared for his family, was printed only a few years ago. As a bit of the interior history of Japan, it has no match. By it a window is opened at the very centre of life and power in Yedo, and we see, not the imaginary Japan of foreigners, poets, and modern artists, but the real country and people. Arai, when in public life, succeeded the fifth Shogun (1681-1708), whose personal profligacy and superstitious practices and administrative looseness required the reforms of later years. A fanatical Buddhist, he became "the merciless protector of animals," often taking the life of a man for hunting a dog. On diplomacy and trade with China and Korea, the narrative sheds much light, and thus, both for politics and literature and for history, the work of Arai is unique. The paper on Bashō, besides being rich in flashes of native wit expressed in felicitous English, is a profound study of metres and literary methods, as well as of the limitations of the Japanese intellect; for the critic's frankness is equal to his scholarship.

—The fourth volume of Helmolt's 'History of the World' is the second to make its appearance in the English translation (Dodd, Mead & Co.). As we have already described the general scheme of the work, we shall say nothing now upon that score. The first volume, it will be remembered, dealt with prehistoric conditions, with America, and with the Pacific Ocean. Volumes ii. and iii., when they appear in English, will take up the countries of the Orient. In volume iv. Asia is left behind, and the scene of action becomes the countries of the Mediterranean. The task of bridging over the gulf between East and West was entrusted to that accomplished scholar, Edward, Count Wilczek, whose death, however, occurred before the German edition was completed. As his essay occupies the place of honor in this co-operative volume, we shall venture to single it out from the rest. Count Wilczek entitled his paper, which fills the first forty-five pages of the fourth volume, "The Inner Historical Connection of the Nations of the Mediterranean." This extensive subject he divided into four parts, each of which embraces several sub-headings. His main sections are as follows: "A Conception of the Mediterranean Race Derived from a Survey of the Mediterranean Nations," "The Part Played by the Various Nations in the Creation of the Mediterranean Spirit," "The Development of the Mediterranean Spirit," and "The Renaissance, or the Flower of the Mediterranean Spirit." The most striking feature of this thoughtful disquisition is its choice of the Renaissance as a culminating point in the development of the Mediterranean spirit. "The peculiar nature of the Mediterranean spirit finds its purest expression in the Renaissance, which comprises in itself material, moral and intellectual welfare, the beautiful and the useful, the rights of the state and the citizen, and the free unfolding of the individual. Rejoicing in the power of creation, it passed directly into the wider conception of European civiliza-

tion." In the allotment of other important subjects, "The Rise of Christianity and its Spread in the East" falls to Prof. Wilhelm Walther; "Greece," to Prof. Rudolf von Scala; "Italy and the Roman World-Empire," to Prof. Julius Jung. The illustrations, which are clear and good of their kind, include several large plates. Of these, a colored reproduction depicting the battle of Issus as it is represented in the Pompeian mosaic at Naples is the best. In the case of the Iberian Peninsula, the survey extends to the recent loss of Spain's colonial possessions.

—An elaborate study of hysteria, on the theory that it is, in great part, a mental malady, was completed and published in French ten years ago by Prof. Pierre Janet, Litt.D., M.D., of the chair of philosophy at the Collège Rollin. This has been translated by the late Mrs. Caroline Rollin Corson as 'The Mental State of Hystericals' (Putnams), and is a study of the subject from a philosophical as well as a medical point of view. As Professor Charcot remarks in the preface, M. Janet found it "necessary to bring together these two kinds of knowledge and these two educations in an effort to analyze clinically the mental state of patients." The conclusion of his study is the provisional definition that "hysteria is a form of mental disintegration characterized by a tendency toward the permanent and complete undoubling (*dédoublement*) [halving, splitting up] of the personality." This is not an explanation, but an attempt to summarize the observed phenomena. Of course, the primitive meaning of hysteria was long ago submerged and has no connection with the actual state. This the author classes among diseases due to weakness and cerebral exhaustion, the physical condition being that of general under-nutrition, and its psychical state being a weakening of the faculty of synthesis, an aboulia (a lack of will power), with the field of consciousness peculiarly limited. Certain elementary percepts appear suppressed, and the tendency is to a division of the personality into independent groups which alternate or coexist. This asynthesis favors the development of subordinate ideas which grow by themselves under the cover of personal consciousness, and manifest themselves by very varied but apparently only physical disturbances. It will be seen that this condition is much wider than that ordinarily designated hysteria, and embraces the phases of double consciousness, here called somnambulism, as well as those states, dependent upon suggestion, which lead to subconscious acts. Many of them are due to associate neuroses, rather than to open suggestion.

—President Atherton of the Pennsylvania State College has caused to be printed for private distribution a comparative view of the Barons' Articles and the Great Charter. The several sections of the two documents are translated and placed side by side, in such wise that the Barons' Articles occupy the left half of the page, and the corresponding articles of Magna Carta occupy the right half. Such a comparison is most useful. Indeed, on a smaller scale it recalls Gneist's edition of the Institutes, with Gaius at the left end and Justinian at the right. One point in the translation deserves to be specially noticed by students of English Constitutional history. The fourteenth section of Magna Carta begins, "Et ad habendum commune consilium regni." In turning this passage into English, translators have usually rendered *commune consilium* "General Council" instead of "common counsel," the version of President Atherton. For our own part, we are quite prepared to accept the latter form, both because *consilium* ordinarily means "counsel," and because there is such a reiteration of *consilium* at the close of the section as implies a connection between the two words; and in the second case, every one translates *consilium* "counsel." This fact President Atherton points out, but he would somewhat strengthen his argument if he placed more stress upon the cross-reference. Then a paraphrase of the passage would run after this fashion: "To elicit the common counsel of the realm, regarding the assessment of a certain type of aid, magnates of specified grade shall be summoned. . . . Should all of them fail to appear at the fixed day, the business shall nevertheless be transacted according to the counsel of those who may be present." We are inclined to allow greater weight to the obvious meaning of *consilium* in the present context than we should to the fact that it ordinarily means "counsel," for there are certainly exceptions to this usage. President Atherton does not raise the point for the sake of a verbal quibble. The usual translation implies that a "General Council" had been definitely constituted in the time of John as a first form of Parliament. "The correct view seems to be that in this, as in most of its other provisions, the Great Charter did not so much aim to designate a Constitutional arrangement already fixed, as to provide for the future a convenient *mode of procedure*. It prescribed the manner and purpose of calling the Magnates of the Kingdom together, but gave no name to the Assembly, nor even seemed to know a name, or to think one necessary." To us this seems a sound view.

—Two important works in Greek lexicography have been published this year, one in Holland and the other in Germany. Neither is intended for the use of college students, but both have great value for more advanced scholars. Van Herwerden's 'Lexicon Graecum Suppletorium et Dialecticum' (Leyden: Sijthoff), as the name implies, is primarily a supplement to existing Greek dictionaries, and in particular to the Paris edition of Stephanus's "Thesaurus Graecae Linguae,' nearly all of which was published half a century ago, before most of the now-known inscriptions had been found, and before the tombs and rubbish-heaps of Egypt had yielded more than an indication of their treasures of papyrus. In these inscriptions and in these private and public documents on papyrus, very many new words have appeared, and familiar words in strange uses, of which but a small part had been put into Greek lexicons. The two most important attempts, before Van Herwerden, to gather these new words and uses were made by the veteran Athenian scholar, Kumanudes, who in 1883 published a collection of words not in the 'Thesaurus,' which he had noted in his reading, and by an American young woman, Miss Helen M. Searles, who, in 1898, presented as her thesis for the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Chicago a 'Lexicographical Study of Greek Inscriptions.' Van Herwerden's work has 973 large octavo pages, with eighteen or nineteen articles on a page, [illegible] 000 articles in all, and a cursory comparison indicates that one-third or one-fourth of this matter is neither in Liddell and Scott's Lexicon nor in the 'Mega Lexicon,' of which the publication was begun in Athens a year ago, and which was designed to contain every known Greek word. For a long time the reading of Greek inscriptions was left to specialists. They were collected for publication first in heavy folio volumes, too expensive for the ordinary college library, and too clumsy for familiar use. Now, however, excellent collections have been published in convenient form, both of historical and of dialectic inscriptions, yet only specialists have been able to read these easily. A scholar might know well his Xenophon and Thucydides, but be puzzled by technical terms and dialectic forms not found in literature. Still more has the ordinary Greek scholar shrunk from the careful study of the collections of papyrus documents. But now one chief obstacle has been removed by the 'Lexicon Suppletorium.' For the compiling of such a work few men are better qualified than Van Herwerden, who published a score of years ago an important tract on the evidence of inscriptions with regard to the Attic dialect, and has honored for thirty-eight years the chair which he has just resigned in the University of Utrecht.

—Kirchner's 'Prosopographia Attica' (Berlin: Reimer) is intended to include all citizens of Attica, whether by birth or adoption, whose names are known from literature, inscriptions, or coins, from the earliest times to the age of the Emperor Augustus. Those whose Attic citizenship is questioned, even the orator Isaeus, are excluded. The first volume, including K, contains the names of 8,935 persons, on 601 pages. The labor of distinguishing persons of the like name, but of different parentage, residence, or age, must have been very great. For instance, 85 men are registered by the name of Diocles, and 186 by the name of Dionysius. Possibly fuller information might reduce these numbers somewhat, by showing that some details have been separated which should be combined, but the compiler distinguishes most of them clearly. Such a register shows the necessity for legal purposes of distinction by the addition of deme and father's name. For the chief known facts in the life of each of his personages, the compiler (who really deserves the name of author) gives exact and carefully arranged and sifted references to inscriptions or literature. In the case of prominent men like Alcibiades, Demosthenes, and Aristides, these references occupy several pages. Family trees *(stemmata)* are given for many families, some of which, as those of Callias and of the tyrannicide Harmodius, are followed for nine generations. For the study of Athenian history, this work of Kirchner will be invaluable. Since it is limited to Attica, it will not supersede Pape's lexicon of Greek proper names. A few omissions have been discovered, but evidently great care has been exercised in the collection of Athenian names.

## AVIATION.

*Travels in Space:* A History of Aerial Navigation. By E. Seton Valentine and F. L. Tomlinson. London: Hurst & Blackett. 1902. Pp. 328.

*Aerial Navigation:* A Practical Handbook on the Construction of Dirigible Balloons, Aerostats, Aeroplanes, and Aeromotors. By Frederic Walker. D. Van Nostrand Co. 1902. Pp. 151.

Should the reader entertain the theory that books showily printed on calendered paper, with abundant illustrations, more or less splurgy, are not particularly apt to prove attractive reading, we cannot say that 'Travels in Space' will tend to convince him he has been wrong; albeit the nature of its subject renders it readable. It would be unreasonable to expect it to present the strange experiences of ballooning with all that life and reality that Mr. Bacon's 'By Land and Sky' did, last year, because that was a masterpiece. A glance at the volume will inform him that it is not a work of research, like Mr. Chanute's 'Progress in Flying-Machines,' from which, by the way, it copies extensively, almost verbatim, without acknowledgment, and to which it is vastly inferior in all respects in which the two works come into comparison, excepting in a very few details. It is later in date by more than eight years, and its scope is wider. The field still remains open, however, for a really workmanlike history of aeronautics.

The building of an airship is as much more difficult than the building of a steamer, like the *Kaiser Wilhelm II.*, as the latter is than the throwing of a trussed suspension-bridge across the North River. Consequently, Mr. Walker has judged a duodecimo of a hundred and fifty pages to be the proper sort of volume in which to convey the airship-building art. For, once problems reach a certain pitch of difficulty, and the more profound they are, the less is the knowledge generally thought requisite for attacking them. The first chapter of Mr. Walker's "practical" book is entitled "The Laws of Flight." The only statement of a law which it contains is the following:

"When a moving body is directly opposed by a *vis mortua*, such as a pressure or resistance like that of gravity, the measure of such *vis mortua* required to neutralize the force [of the moving body] and bring the moving body to rest must form the basis of the measurement of the force."

Thus, the persons who Mr. Walker assumes are to undertake the construction of airships, and for whose encouragement he has provided his handbook, are supposed to be in need of this information; while further dynamical science, he would appear to presume, is quite beyond their comprehension. Later in the book, it appears that they are persons who need to be told what a sine and cosine are. What Mr. Walker fails to tell them, but, on the contrary, implicitly denies, is that, with such an outfit, they will make great fools of themselves if they undertake the building of an airship.

Vessels to sail the air are of four types. The first is that of a machine with ascensional power, but with no motor. Such is a simple balloon or other aerostat, a kite-balloon, or a system of attached balloons. Much may be done with a skilfully managed balloon. Its great advantage over other air-sailing vessels lies in its comparative safety. Let any other kind of airship decisively come to grief, and instant death ensues for all its crew. But if a balloon bursts, not too near the ground, the calm and skilful aeronaut can take measures to save himself. This accident happened to Wise in Pennsylvania in 1836, at an elevation of 13,000 feet, but he was so far from being reduced to a pulp by the fall that, jumping up, he remarked upon the heat of the lower atmosphere, and, before many minutes had elapsed, had determined to repeat the experiment at the first opportunity. The fatal falls (other than drowning cases) have usually been from moderate heights, or have been due to the fright or inexperience of the operator. When Simmons met his death in 1888, he fell only 50 feet; yet neither of his two companions was killed, and one of them was not even injured. Capt. Dale's balloon in 1892 burst at a height of 600 feet, he and Mr. Shadbolt, a professional aeronaut, being killed, while two amateurs who were with them escaped unhurt; but experts opined that with proper management all might have been saved. This comparative immunity arises from the fact that the lower half of a falling balloon of the ordinary shape invariably cups into the upper half, forming the best of parachutes. Immunity, therefore, does not extend to aerostats stiffened with hoops or made of aluminium. A serious fault of the ordinary balloon is that there is no level at which it is in equilibrium unless the gas be confined, which is too unsafe. When it goes up, it retains the same ascensional force, and continues to be accelerated upward until it loses gas; and its momentum of perhaps a couple of tons moving four or five hundred feet per second will carry it up long after the gas has so swelled and spilled that, by the time it ceases to rise, it is much heavier than the air, and would come down to earth if ballast were not thrown out; and so it goes, alternately rising and falling until its ascensional power is quite wasted. Mr. Walker does not make this matter at all clear, but talks, as aeronauts are apt to do, of the level "to which the balloon must rise," just as if it were a closed bottle. A metallic balloon would be free from this objection, having a definite level at which, if tight, it would remain in equilibrium, or oscillate above and below it, indefinitely. Schwartz's machine of 1894 demonstrated that an aluminium balloon can be made sufficiently light (its ascensional power must have been about 7,000 lbs.) and can be filled with hydrogen; but it is very unfortunate that the inexperienced operator took fright and destroyed the airship, though not his miserable self, before it had risen high enough to show whether or not at its level of equilibrium it would have been able to withstand the pressure of gas within. The excess of gas would naturally be allowed to escape; but if this escape were too rapid, all the advantage of the metallic construction would be lost, while if it were not very rapid, the excess of pressure from within would become very considerable. Though such things are subject to calculation, actual experience is extremely welcome. To-day it is probable that such a vessel would be made of magnalium, not of pure aluminium. Somebody with a spare million could make an interesting experiment by combining the metallic balloon with a suggestion of the celebrated Monge that has never yet been tried. He was eminently a practical man as well as a mathematician of the first order. His suggestion was that of an air-snake, to be composed of twenty-five aerostats strung together, the vermicular or serpentine motion being brought about in a vertical plane by the transfer of ballast from one to another.

The second type is that of machines having both ascensional power and motors. Mr. Walker maintains that this is the only practical form, on the ground that this alone affords safety in case the machinery goes wrong. Plausible as this sounds, facts are against it, and reason too. Notwithstanding the thousands of ascensions that still take place in vessels of the first type for every one in a vessel of this second type, four times as many men have been killed since 1892 in ascensions of the latter type as of the former. It would be quite absurd to maintain that carrying a motor adds to the security of a balloon. That the addition of a balloon to an airship with a motor is a most serious source of peril would seem obvious enough, even if indirect effects of danger are left out of account. It may, however, be that a ship of this type supports a minor accident better than does any other. The breaking of the steering-apparatus of Count Von Zeppelin's great air-ship at its grand gala trial on Lake Constance did not prevent its accomplishing a little excursion and effecting a beautiful descent upon the lake; and M. Santos-Dumont, on his first ascension in Paris, broke his rudder, successfully landed, mended it, and continued his performance. Many engineers of standing have declared in favor of this type, which is the only one that has as yet attained some undeniable success; yet those who have most deeply studied the problem are opposed to this type. Sir Hiram Maxim, in a preface which he has contributed to 'Travels in Space,' argues that "it is not possible to make a balloon strong enough to be driven through the air at any considerable speed [meaning above six or seven miles an hour] and at the same time light enough to rise in the air." But he gives no assurance that this judgment is based upon calculations relating to magnalium balloons. Besides, it has been urged in reply, by Von Zeppelin and others, that a velocity of seven or eight miles an hour, or even less, would be all-sufficient for the peculiar purpose to which air-ships must be restricted. For, it is said, it is quite unreasonable to suppose that a vessel sailing the air should ever be able to compete with an ocean steamer, and quite ridiculous to imagine it should ever carry freight or many passengers. Its distinctive superiority lies in the fact that, moving in the three dimensions of space, it can never be intercepted or obstructed except by the most improbable chance. Its service must, therefore, always be to go where nothing else can go, without carrying or bringing back anything but intelligence. Its function will be to hunt up lost explorers, to spy out an enemy's doings, to visit the upper atmosphere, and in short to act as a reporter. Now for this business it is contended that great speed is needless. One can but feel, however, that it is highly desirable that the reporting air-boat should not be carried quite away from its course by anything short of a moderate gale; which would demand a velocity of at least twenty miles an hour.

The third type is that of machines provid-

ed with motors, but heavier than the air. This is the form advocated by Langley, Maxim, Barton, Hargreaves, and, in short, the general body of those who have in our day studied the subject in a scientific manner. It is the only form which by any possibility could ever decidedly distance the "ocean greyhound" of to-day. Its real merits cannot be estimated until it has been embodied in some practical shape.

The fourth type is that of instruments neither possessed of ascensional power nor carrying any engine. To be sure, they may, and hitherto generally have, supposed a man to be kept hard at work during their trips. But how little this could amount to, as mechanical work, becomes manifest when we reflect that the more powerful of a man's muscles are unadapted to the long-sustained production of impulses at a greater frequency than, say, two per second. If, therefore, such impulses were to be relied upon to prevent the instrument from falling, since in the interval from one to another the machine would have fallen four feet, it follows that the labor the man would be called upon to perform would be equivalent to that of taking the instrument (say, a hundredweight) on his back and running up stairs with it at the incessant rate of eight feet per minute, or four hundred and eighty feet per hour. Each reader can speak for himself as to how many hours at a time he would contract to keep up that lively exercise.

It has many times been demonstrated that there is no very formidable difficulty in constructing an instrument weighing about a hundred pounds which shall lift a man, or even two men, up into the air in a fresh breeze, and carry them up into the wind. It is supposed that they could sustain themselves indefinitely, if they were skilful enough, without any particular expenditure of energy, in the same way in which birds ranging in size from the lark to the condor soar. A condor will weigh eighty pounds and will soar all day long without any sign of effort or of fatigue. Various facts go to support the theory of Professor Langley that it is by taking advantage of the puffiness of the wind (its "internal work," as he calls it) that birds soar; though it is not certain that other factors, of which three readily suggest themselves, may not contribute to the effect. It is quite certain that a considerable weight is one requisite. The most successful of the flights of Le Bris occurred one day when the rope by which his instrument (which was intended to carry only himself) became accidentally wound round a second man. Le Bris, not noticing what had happened, carried the man up two or three hundred feet into the air, and forward into the wind for a furlong or so, and could apparently have gone indefinitely further. But when he had descended sufficiently to set his captive passenger free, he found that without that ballast he could no longer fly. Thus far, however, no man has found it possible to acquire the necessary skill to manage such an instrument, in advance of getting killed by his blunders. The thing has not really had a fair trial. Le Bris was a very poor man, a common sailor, and circumstances prevented his practising on the water, although his machine had been specially constructed with a view to that. Consequently, before he could learn the art, his machine was smashed; and he lacked the means to reconstruct it.

Although Mr. Walker contemplates the construction of airships of the second type alone, yet, owing to this type reuniting the positive features of the others, his volume contains many facts pertinent to the construction of any airship. As far as our verifications have extended, his numbers are accurate. But nothing more inaccurate and unintelligible than his statements of mathematical rules and formulæ can be imagined. For example, on pp. 17 and 18 is an attempted explanation of the manner of calculating the elevation from the pressure of the air. Not until one has corrected several misprints, including the uniform printing of exponents as factors, do the difficulties of finding out what the man means (although the reader knows what he ought to mean) fairly emerge. They are not confined to any one sentence. A number has been obtained, and, being correct, there is substantially but one way in which it could have been reached; yet what relation there is between what is said and this operation, one cannot make out. So it is, in lesser degree, throughout the volume.

## RECENT NOVELS.

*The Wings of the Dove.* By Henry James. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Virginian.* By Owen Wister. The Macmillan Co.

*The Desert and the Sown.* By Mary Hallock Foote. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The Champion.* By Charles Egbert Craddock. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Typhoon.* By Joseph Conrad. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

*A Sea-Turn and Other Stories.* By T. B. Aldrich. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Bylow Hill.* By G. W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Way of a Man.* By Morley Roberts. D. Appleton & Co.

*In the Gates of Israel.* By Herman Bernstein. J. F. Taylor & Co.

Readers pretty well *en rapport* with Mr. Henry James will be put to it to tell what his latest contribution to psychological fiction is all about. In the case, the most useful office of the reviewer is to say at once what some of it is about, to declare the situation. In doing so he may acknowledge a sense of indelicacy, even coarseness, much as if he were tearing away the enveloping leaves of a rose just to show its heart, or denuding a much-swaddled infant only to prove that it is all there. As we make it out (with some vanity of intelligence) the actual situation imagined by Mr. James for what he might call a study of the abysmal in human consciousness is this: An impecunious young Englishman, a journalist by profession, named Martin Densher, is in love with, in fact secretly engaged to, Kate Croy, dependent for a luxurious subsistence on "Aunt Maud," otherwise Mrs. Lowder, who dwells in splendor at Lancaster Gate. Mr. Densher, humbly conscious that his only talent is a "talent for thought," recognizes with rapture in Miss Croy a "talent for life," and becomes, therefore, for the guidance of their affair, a pliable instrument in her capable hands. At an early age she had divined that it is "of the essence of situations, under Providence, to be worked"; so we behold her in her great situation electing to conceal from Aunt Maud how far she and Densher have gone, trusting to time and her wits to "square" her invaluable relative. Appears upon the London horizon Miss Milly Theale, an American of the richest, already in love with Densher, and, at the dawn of life, in full possession of its resources, stricken with some mysterious and mortal disease. Milly is the "dove," and has innocently nestled up to Miss Croy, unaware of any relation between her and Densher. When she becomes aware, it is by indirection, with the view advanced that Densher nourishes an unrequited passion for her friend—a view that Miss Croy herself resolutely maintains, for in Milly's passion she has perceived the situation to be worked, whereby Aunt Maud may be squared and Densher and everything else she wants eventually secured to her.

Exactly what she is driving at nobody can know till he approaches the middle of the second volume, where her plan is explicitly stated. It is Densher who states it. The poor young man feels that he is being pushed in directions too mysterious, through a fog too thick, and demands light. Miss Croy fences thus:

"'Don't think, however, I'll do *all* the work for you. If you want things named you must name them.'

"He had quite within the minute been turning names over; and there was only one, which at last stared at him there dreadful, that properly fitted.

"'Since she's to die, I'm to marry her?'"

"To marry her," Miss Croy assures him without blinking. He presses her further: "'So that when her death has taken place I shall, in the natural course, have money?'" Not in the least flustered, she replies: "You'll in the natural course have money. We shall in the natural course be free."

The situation, thus baldly stated, seems rather monstrous, but Mr. James saves some from moral indignation and others from nervous shock by swathing his situation in the speculative, wrapping it in the conjectural, and protecting it with infinite precaution from direct judgment. He removes it from contact and conflict with moral preferences and emotional susceptibilities, and presents it voluminously to the intelligence as a subject with a wonderful variety of points for subtle disquisition. The simple or superficial has never engaged his interest, and he has always been blessedly free from a desire to proclaim the obvious. Events and their possible consequences attract him only in so far as they prompt conjecture about how certain imaginable people might face them, what they might conceivably do with them. To read him (in his later days) without mystification and utter dissatisfaction there must be a clear understanding on these points; the reader must be able to take a cheerfully reciprocal attitude. For certain sentences, even chapters, the faithful should not be lured into defence, but declare boldly that the author has taken sanctuary and may be as cryptic as he pleases. In 'The Wings of the Dove' he frequently retires so deeply within himself that the more he labors to express his meaning, the more involved and incom-

communicative he becomes, which, of course, makes the scoffer free to declare that he has no meaning to express. The part played in the drama by Sir Luke Strett, a famous physician, remains to us an unfathomable mystery; Aunt Maud has flights that we do not pretend to follow, and Mr. Densher's "talent for thought" leads him into regions hypothetical quite beyond a humble gift of understanding.

Kate Croy, with her "talent for life," is less difficult. Her talent for life includes naturally a talent for lies, and with the benefit of her history a shrewd guess may be made at the unnamed crime for which her father had been rejected by society. It is not improbable that Mr. James, among other dark motives, has a rather far-reaching tragic one, and that Kate Croy stands for a victim of destiny rooted in character, destiny not unconnected with an inherited proclivity for wickedness that may long escape detection and can not be defined. In the first chapter she reflects on the humiliating worldly condition of her family, and wonders why a "set of people should have been put in motion on such a scale, with an air of being equipped for a profitable journey, only to break down without an accident, to stretch themselves in the wayside dust without a reason."

From the last chapter we infer (under correction) that Kate has lost Densher, for whom her passion is beyond question, and has lost him because of the existence of sentiments deeply rooted in his nature and her own on which she had not counted when she entered him in the race with death for Milly's fortune. Like the rest of her family, she has broken down, and, however vigorously she may rally, can never shake off the wayside dust.

Heroes of fiction, being scrutinized, so seldom turn out to be men, that the highest praise bestowed by authority on 'Tom Jones' is, "This is not a book, but a man." Presumably, women novelists can not draw a real man, and men are afraid to. Mr. Owen Wister's 'Virginian' is a "sure-enough" man, a male being, whom the most earnest female advocates of equality of the sexes could never convert into a thing like unto themselves. He is also a person to whom the much-abused word charming may be applied without a blush. As a Virginian he is exceptional, for he has no ancestors or family portraits or old furniture or silver—nothing common to his native State but a soft drawling speech and a chivalrous attitude towards the weak who happen to be women. As a cow-puncher of Wyoming he is, however, a historical personage, as genuine as George Washington. For Mr. Wister says that, during the last decade, cattle-thieves and politicians have ravaged Wyoming, and between them exterminated the cowboy with his high heels, his jingling spurs, and his awful readiness to shoot or to be shot. "He rides," says Mr. Wister, "in his historic yesterday. You will no more see him gallop out of the unchanging silence than you will see Columbus on the unchanging sea come sailing from Palos with his caravels." Many good stories about the ungoverned cowboy have been well told, depending mostly for effect on external picturesqueness and thrilling adventure. Mr. Wister, in a number of short tales, and now at length in 'The Virginian,' has given him character, connecting him with the rest of his species, while emphasizing a differentiation due to his career. Several chapters included in 'The Virginian' have been published separately, and are given rather more space in the novel than they are worth to its principal motives—characterization of the Virginian. The New England relatives of Molly Wood, schoolma'am at Bear Creek, are hypothetical New Englanders, so fearful of compromising their respectability. Throughout the tale, Molly Wood is never quite good enough for the pains and persistence with which the Virginian woos her, but in the last crisis she justifies his choice. As a test of character for both, the final moment of conflict between Molly and her lover is excellently devised. The dramatic thrill in it is very quick, and the outcome so satisfactory that one realizes an immense fear of a disappointment. 'The Virginian' has, we believe, been one of the most popular books of the season; it deserves to endure through many seasons.

The motive of Mrs. Foote's tale, ambiguously entitled 'The Desert and the Sown,' is too fanciful, too remote from the common, to permit so much real tragic intensity as she has tried to attach to it. Some ideals of self-sacrifice are a little too fine-spun for everyday use, and that which animated Adam Bogardus first to wander twenty years in a wilderness, and again to deny his identity, seems to us one of them. At all events, if such fantastically ideal conduct is to appear supremely noble and extract sympathetic emotion, the presentation should be direct, pitched in a serious key, and kept in rather stern poetic isolation from common occurrences. Mrs. Foote's method of presentation is very defective—a matter for wonder, since in her earlier days she showed a strong sense of the value of form and knew how to use her subject for all it was worth. In this case she approaches her subject through garrison gossip and chatter about weddings and clothes, and, even after reaching it, she continues to offer the diversion of not very relevant triviality. It is given to few to expose a soul's tragedy coherently, and the most vivid impression to be derived from 'The Desert and the Sown' is that Mrs. Foote's aspiration has flown a little beyond her power of performance.

In the days, now long ago, when Charles Egbert Craddock wrote tales of strange and warlike folk who dwelt in remote mountains, engaging in bloody family feuds, in the illicit distilling of whiskey and in uproarious dances at the cross-roads, some good people were more shocked by the unconventional matter than pleased by the vigorous vivacity of her narration. Surprise when this supposedly bold, bad man turned out to be a woman was great, yet hardly greater than that experienced when, taking up Miss Murfree's latest book, 'The Champion,' one finds a chronicle, not of wild deeds done under the light of the famous Tennessee moon, but of a good little "printer's devil" whose bad companion persuaded him to enter a theatre without the preliminary formality of paying for his ticket. The consequences of the "devil's" irregularity were dreadful, and the activity of his conscience points unmistakably to a tendency of his enlightening occupation to convert devils into angels. The inferences, too, that he drew from strange things seen and heard behind the scenes are clearly beyond the mental range of a small boy whose days are spent in blacking boots, for instance. When he is safely out of his scrape, his cultivated conscience and mind together arrive at a reflection which marks him for a predestined prig. Mr. Gorham, the manager of the theatre, has helped the devil to clear himself of accusation of arson and robbery, but this kind deed, we are given to understand, was prompted by impulse, and was not an expression of character founded on righteousness; therefore, "In his observation of Gorham in those days, Ned [the devil] became more and more aware that impulse is a poor substitute for principle as a basis of action, and that although impulse may serve as an excuse for much that is fierce or weak, it detracts from the merit of what is good." Miss Murfree's moral excursion will not, we think, add to her reputation either as an observer or delineator of life.

Mr. Joseph Conrad, who has written some stirring tales of the sea, becomes in 'Typhoon' too obscurely nautical for easy understanding by land-going people. What the captain and the mate, the engineers and the two hundred Chinamen between decks were all about, individually and in relation to each other, while the typhoon was playing with the steamer *Nan-Shan*, is matter easily grasped, perhaps, by experienced sailormen, but surely most bewildering to any other. There can be no mistake, however, about the man at the helm and his business, and we cannot but think that he is clearly seen because he is so vividly presented:

"He had flung down his cap, his coat, and stood propped against the gear-casing in a striped cotton shirt open on his breast. The little brass wheel in his hands seemed a bright and fragile toy. The cords of his neck stood out hard and lean, a dark patch lay in the hollow of his throat, and his face was still and sunken as in death. . . . His head didn't budge on his neck—like a stone head fixed to look one way from a column."

It is a matter of common report that some fortunate men have followed the sea through a long life without encountering a big blow. Captain MacWhirr of the *Nan-Shan* had been one of these until the typhoon surprised him, and the circumstance is noticed by the author in a way that makes his accumulation of detail and technicalities, his toil and care for great effects, seem singular waste of time. This about Captain MacWhirr comes so naturally:

"The sea itself had never put itself out to startle the silent man who seldom looked up, and wandered innocently over the waters with the only visible purpose of getting food, raiment, and house-room for three people ashore. Dirty weather he had known, of course. But he had never been given a glimpse of immeasurable strength and of immoderate wrath, the wrath that passes exhausted, but never appeased—the wrath and fury of the passionate sea. . . . He sailed over the surface of the oceans as some men go skimming over the years of existence, and sink at last into a placid grave, ignorant of life to the last, without ever having been made to see all it contains of perfidy, violence, and terror. There are on sea and land such men thus fortunate or thus disdained by destiny or by the sea."

The collection of tales which have been written by Mr. Aldrich for magazines may be best described without disparagement as

neat little nothings. The subjects are thin, requiring for their development neither force nor passion—very easy things for a practised writer to turn out without any sweating of the brow. The title tale is light comedy of a mechanical sort, and suffers from that blight of affectation or insincerity which affects many American representations of compatriots who are persons of fashion. A young man who betrays his genuine Americanism by saying to his servant, "If there's a bottle of Bass on the ice, serve that," and immediately becomes so Anglo-Indian (presumably) as to say to himself: "The boys can't have finished tiffin yet," strikes us as a young man with a false note in his character—one who must be living a double life, who, linguistically and otherwise, doesn't know "where he's at." "An Untold Story" is, from every point of view, the best in the book. The feeling of the scene and of the tragic circumstance in the garden at Budapest is admirably given, and one recognizes a poet in the observation of a group of children, curious, yet afraid, who "stood in an attitude of hesitation, ready for instant flight, like a flock of timid sparrows."

Mr. Cable's 'Bylow Hill' is a domestic drama, showing how one man's insane jealousy destroyed the peace and comfort of several of the most virtuous and amiable people in the world. The trouble appears to have arisen from the too great amiability of Miss Isabel Morris, who, under pressure, married Arthur Winslow, feeling that she was not too fond, and wishing she were "fond in the old, mad way the word meant when it was young." It may be supposed that Winslow is not quite sane, and that, therefore, in his passion, he is always cowardly and violent. The assumption naturally deprives the delineation of his jealousy of the interest with which its development may be watched in a man normally strong and courageous like Othello. The book is very prettily done up with large, clear print, wide margins, and colored illustrations.

Several men are prominent in 'The Way of a Man,' by Mr. Morley Roberts, and there is no indication of which man's way he wishes to celebrate. The book is an example of romance gone mad, and worth notice only because it may indicate that the tale of adventure in revolting South American states is in the death-throe. Bad as it has been, however, it might in decency have been permitted to die without positive ignominy. No subject is bad enough to be mauled and battered and travestied with the incoherent fury displayed by Mr. Roberts.

Much that is interesting about Jews (as Jews) may be gathered from the tales by Mr. Herman Bernstein, collected under the title 'In the Gates of Israel.' In the heart of New York they live, in the shadow of the Goddess of Liberty, yet moving and breathing under the personal supervision, as it were, of the denunciatory prophets. The marriage broker alone appears quite to escape their gloomy domination, but his clients do not appreciate the joke of his occupation. Mr. Bernstein's literary manner is direct and sincere, and he shows no desire to sentimentalize the sorrows of his people. There may be no English equivalent for some words he uses (Hebrew, Yiddish, Russian), but in the interest of the reader he might contrive to do without unpronounceable symbols.

*An Introduction to the Scientific Study of English Poetry.* Being Prolegomena to a Science of English Prosody. By Mark H. Liddell. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902.

We have an abiding and unflagging interest in all phases of all questions relating to poetry, versification, and kindred topics; we approach every new book on any such subject with a thrill of hopeful expectancy. Be it never so volcanically flamboyant or never so shapelessly hazy, still, at first glimpse, we hope that each may be the pillar of fire or cloud to lead us divinely out of the desert wilderness of our present state of English verse criticism. We do not shrink from the ugliness or thorns of the most repulsive weed in the hotbed of prosodial treatises, hoping to discover therein the beginnings of the mighty tree that shall overshadow with its branches and fill with its perfume all the garden of poetics. We have a soft place in our hearts for all attempts, however ridiculous, because there is merit in the effort. The world of literature needs light on the verities of English versification; let every one who feels capable, try to give us that light. We shall praise the intention no matter how inadequate the result. But here we have a book almost impossible to read at all. Many pages are defaced by the heavy sprinkling of pseudo-algebraic formulæ. For example, $X+HI^n+VF$ is the "formula" for poetry.

In the author's expression of what he means by "Human Interest" (HI) in littrature he says (p. 39):

"Macbeth goes not alone and unaccompanied to his final damnation, but draws us along as protesting witnesses, crying for the mitigation of his inevitable punishment—the very essence of tragedy."

This has a familiar ring to our ears, but it cheers us on our way. On pages 130, 131 we find, in what is said of "the poet," this really true and felicitous statement:

"Because he makes the selection at once, he does not do it either by chance or by inspiration. The happy coördination of the craftsman's physical activities is not essentially different from the happy coördination of mental activities which produces the poet's verse."

On page 172 we find:

"When English poetry is set to music, the impulses are given an artificial time-duration to suit the music. That it is an artificial apportionment of time is evident from the fact that a single hymn can be sung to a number of different tunes in which a given thought-impulse may have a number of different time values."

This just observation is wholly misused in the attempted demonstration of which it forms part.

At pages 140, 141:

"The general notion of poetry we thus obtained was: ideas normally formulated in the terms of correlated sound-group-images, possessing the general and abiding human interest of literature, and rendered æsthetically interesting by being couched in some recognizably æsthetic Verse Form. Or, stated as a formula: $X+HI+VF$."

This is the author's definition of poetry. It seems superfluous to characterize it.

On page 17, we find:

"According to this theory, an English unaccented syllable corresponds to a classic short syllable, and an English accented syllable corresponds to a classic long syllable. A great deal of printer's ink has been wasted in trying to show that this is really the case in English speech; in other words, that accent lengthens a syllable."

The misconception expressed in the last clause is not original with Mr. Liddell, and it is true that much printer's ink has been wasted as he says. The point is, that the question whether accent in English lengthens the syllable upon which it falls has nothing to do with the structure of English verse. A running pattern can be made with wooden blocks of two colors or with any materials of two distinct kinds. So classic verse was a running pattern of long and short syllables. So English verse is a running pattern of accented and unaccented syllables. The accented syllables in the scheme of verse-patterns in English *correspond* to the long syllables of analogous verse-patterns in Latin and Greek. This is not asserting or implying that an accented syllable is long in English. Not at all.

On page 97 we read:

"Alliteration is the only arrangement of impulses according to their articulation-character that has been largely used as a punctuating element."

What of rhyme? Rhyme punctuates, and the lines of a stanza are an arrangement of impulses according to their articulation-character.

With a sinking of the heart we view the heading of one chapter: "Nomenclature and Notation." Like most recent books on poetry, this proposes a new set of technicalities; as in all the rest, the new terms, if they mean anything, mean precisely what the old terms meant, and are longer and far clumsier than the old. Mr. Liddell calls words, phrases, clauses, and sentences "thought-moments," and uses the term "emotion-stress" for what is usually called tonic-accent or inflexion. After two hundred and sixty-eight labored and laborious pages we find: "Single rising rhythm, single falling rhythm, double rising rhythm, double falling rhythm," offered as improvements on iambic verse, trochaic verse, anapæstic verse, dactylic verse. We do not see that the new terms make us any better off, nor are they original. The chapter bristles with "may" and "might." This tentative presentation is justified. Is the term "wave of impulse" an improvement on "foot," or "five wave-rhythm" on "pentameter"?

"Here we part company," we read on page 304, "with classic prosody, and say farewell to 'iambus,' 'trochee,' 'dactyl,' 'molossus,' 'tribrach,' and all the unctuous fictions which the Renaissance schoolmaster has introduced into our English system."

That is as if we were to say: "From henceforward there shall be no more murders in the world; we'll call 'em all homicides."

In common with many other laudators of the English language and poetry as superior to all others, Mr. Liddell speaks of the old English alliterative poetry and of its rhythm in a tone of hushed awe, as if the mere mention of it were a talisman to dissolve all difficulties in modern English verse-study and to furnish light in all dark places. In common with them, again, he ignores almost entirely all forms of English versification except the blank-verse line. Yet, again in common with them, in expounding his examples and citations from the poets, he has no conception which features of the character of a passage belong to rhetorical effects and which to effects of verse-form. This appears all through the book and vitiates most of the deductions. The author's method

is toilsome in the extreme and seemingly well-intentioned. His fashion, however, of attempting to illustrate the beauty of a citation by translating it into phrases of his own, which retain the general meaning while altering some of the words and their order, is wholly useless for the purpose for which he designs it, especially when applied to passages from Virgil, Milton, or Shakspere.

Sidney Lanier, in his 'Science of English Verse,' set forth that when we recite poetry we utter sounds, when we listen to poetry we hear sounds, when we read poetry the letters recall sounds to our mind, when we remember or conceive poetry we imagine sounds. This is good physics, good physiology, and good psychology. It is a plain statement of plain facts. It is universally accepted by competent thinkers. This does not prove it, but is a point in his favor. All the critics of his book agreed, and have since agreed, that, whatever it failed to do, it furnished in its chapters on poetic form and sound a point of departure for all future treatises. The book before us is an attempt to take the study of verse-form out of the safe province of acoustics, an attempt to argue the facts of verse-form altogether out of the category of objective realities, and to banish them into the nebulous realm of subjective phenomena.

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*Westminster.* By Sir Walter Besant and G. E. Mitton.—*The Strand District.* By Sir Walter Besant and G. E. Mitton.—*Chelsea.* By G. E. Mitton, edited by Sir Walter Besant. [The Fascination of London.] London: A. & C. Black; New York: The Macmillan Co.

Readers of the Autobiography of Sir Walter Besant will remember the great scheme for "the survey of London" on which he was engaged at the time of his death. This project, according to his own account, fascinated him more than anything else he had ever done. It included a regular and systematic perambulation of London by different persons, with a view to the writing of a history not only of every parish, but of every street that possessed associations worth recording. There have been innumerable guide-books and historical and antiquarian compilations of various kinds, but since the time of Stow there has been no such elaborate attempt at exact description as that which employed the enthusiasm of Sir Walter Besant.

In these three volumes we have the first-fruits of this new survey. The mechanical production leaves nothing to be desired. This series will undoubtedly be of value to the traveller in giving him various particulars of literary interest which are not to be found in the ordinary guide-book, especially in the identification of the houses in which distinguished writers have lived. Here and there, too, may be found curious details such as the fact that in 1656 there were more than 300 watercourses crossing the Strand between Palace Yard and the Old Exchange.

Unfortunately, when this has been said, the special merit of these books appears to be exhausted. On the whole they are very disappointing. Anything like a complete survey would have supplied much fuller information. Each volume has one map and one picture, but there is not a single plan to illustrate the description of a building, even in the case of Westminster Abbey and the Houses of Parliament. And some of the omissions are inexcusable. Imagine a book on Westminster, running to nearly a hundred pages, without even a bare reference to the Westminster Assembly or the Westminster Confession! In guiding us through Downing Street, the editor does not take the trouble to give the number of the Prime Minister's house, nor does he think it worth while to mention that cabinet councils are held there. The Privy Council Office finds a place on the list of public buildings without the reader being reminded that there sits in one of its rooms a court of appeal which performs a unique function in binding together the colonies of the British Empire. Of the present Houses of Parliament we learn scarcely anything except the inept comment, that they "have been the cause of much of that criticism which is applied to the work of some people by others who certainly could not do so well themselves." The West End clubs are pointed out to us, and named, but, except in the case of the Travellers', nothing is told the distinctive features of their [illegible] ship. The American memorials in St. Margaret's are recorded, but Dean Farrar, to whose interest during his rectorship they were largely due, is entirely ignored. There is a paragraph about the old Kitcat Club near the Strand, but, though it is stated that the portraits of the members were painted by Kneller, there is no reference to the origin of the "Kitcat" style. The National Portrait Gallery receives mention without a word as to its contents. Several other instances might be added of the undue brevity with which the authors have treated some of the most important buildings in London. It cannot be said that the omitted facts would be outside the scope of the series, for some of the descriptions and associations included in this survey are of recent date and trivial interest. Space has been found, for example, for a list of places with which the New Scotland Yard has telephone connection, for particulars of the Ladies' Dwelling Company, and for the bill of fare at the Duke of York's school at breakfast and dinner respectively.

Occasional repetitions give further evidence that sufficient pains have not been taken in putting the collected material into shape. On page 101 of the book on the Strand it is said that Long Acre, a piece of land consisting of seven acres, was granted to the Earl of Bedford in 1552. On page 108 we are back again to Long Acre, which is now mentioned as having been granted to the Duke of Bedford. In the same book, we find on page 21, "For St. Martin's Lane, see page 16," and a paragraph about the Public Library in that street. Referring to page 16, we discover nothing but a reference to the fact that the Lane once continued as far as Northumberland House. The fullest account of St. Martin's Lane actually occurs on page 109, with a description of its various buildings, except the Public Library, for which we are referred back to page 21. The same volume contains such errata as "Earl of Shaftsbury" (p. 41), the statement that the University of London is now in Burlington Gardens (p. 44), and the mention of "Sir John Lubbock" as the occupant of a certain house in Charles Street. The latter anachronism is the more surprising from the fact that on the very same page another house in the street is said to be owned by Lord Avebury.

Two sentences in the Westminster volume deserve a paragraph to themselves:

"On that black day, when England shamed herself before the nations by spilling the blood of her King, the scaffold was erected before this building, though the exact site is unknown. It is believed that the window second from the north end is that in front of which it stood, and that the King stepped forth from a window in a small outbuilding on the north side; he came forth to die, the only innocent man in all that great crowd, who watched him suffer without raising a finger to save him."

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*A Short Life of Abraham Lincoln,* Condensed from Nicolay and Hay's Abraham Lincoln: A History. By John G. Nicolay. The Century Co.

No word of explanation as to the principle that has controlled this condensation accompanies the above volume. Perhaps the death of Mr. Nicolay accounts for this silence. In the main the elimination, heroic in its proportions, has been of those parts which make the original biography a history of Lincoln's time. But much of the properly biographical matter has also vanished—fortunately, sometimes, as where we are spared the misleading account of Lincoln's religious opinions. The abridgment is made so well that no one ignorant of its relation to the larger book would suspect it of being one. It preserves, however, the disposition of the 'History' to gloze the homelier and less impressive aspects of Lincoln's life. The squalor of his early years is not rendered so sincerely as by Herndon and Lamon, and the wonder of his successful emergence from it is by so much diminished. That dreadful letter to Mrs. O. H. Browning about Mary Owens is shorn of its more draggled plumes, but the mistake of calling it "grotesquely comic" is not made again. The eccentricity of Lincoln's love affairs in general, following the Anne Rutledge episode, is discreetly veiled. So is the freak of September 22, 1862, when the anticipatory emancipation proclamation was introduced to the Cabinet with a reading from Artemus Ward. The statesman is not made to appear greater than he was, but of the shrewd politician there is less than just measure, and in general the presentation tends to such an effect as a statue of Lincoln in a Roman toga would produce. This is better than to exaggerate, as some have done, the rougher side. It seems not quite fair to relegate to anonymity the speech made by George William Curtis in the convention of 1860, which brought back Giddings into the convention and the Declaration of Independence into the platform. There is no retraction regarding Lincoln's mooted influence in favor of Johnson's nomination as Vice-President. Such influence is denied with emphasis and supporting facts. An absolute silence for the six years from Lincoln's Congressional term to the outbreak of the Kansas-Nebraska legislation is a too violent sacrifice of the historical to the biographical method. Two chapters, covering twenty-five pages, exhaust the most significant part of Lincoln's Administration—the steps leading to emancipation, and that climax itself. This is scant measure, but, on the other hand, there is an agreeable absence of Mr. Morse's acrid girding at the radical anti-slavery men, for whose ardent temper Lincoln's was too cool and slow.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Mary. Confessions of a Wife. Century Co.
Adler, Cyrus. The American Jewish Year-Book, 5663. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Atherton, Gertrude. The Splendid Idle Forties: Stories of Old California. Macmillan. $1.50.
Austin, Alfred. Haunts of Ancient Peace. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bain, C. W. The Poems of Ovid: Selections. (Macmillan's Latin Series.) Macmillan. $1.10.
Bangs, J. K. Bikey, the Skicycle, and Other Tales of Jimmieboy. Riggs Pub. Co.
Bayard's Courier: A Story of Love and Adventure in the Cavalry Campaigns. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bennett, John. Barnaby Lee. Century Co. $1.50.
Begtrup, Julius. The Slide Valve and its Functions, with Special Reference to Modern Practice in the United States. London: E. & F. N. Spon; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.
Bolton, Sarah K. Famous Artists. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.
Bradford, A. H. Messages of the Masters: Spiritual Interpretations of Great Paintings. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Brown, Francis. The Bible for Children, Arranged from the King James Version. Century Co. $3.
Cherbuliez, Victor. Le Roi Apépi. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Connolly, J. B. Out of Gloucester. Scribners. $1.50.
Cross, A. L. The Anglican Episcopate and the American Colonies. (Harvard Historical Studies.) Longmans, Green & Co.
Daskam, Josephine D. Whom the Gods Destroyed. Scribners. $1.50.
Die Disconto-Gesellschaft, 1851 bis 1901. Berlin: Printed for the Bank.
Engels, Frederick. The Origin of the Family: Private Property and the State. (Translated by Ernest Untermann.) Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co. 50 cents.
Frieze, H. S. Virgil's Æneid, Books I.—XII. (Revised by Walter Dennison.) American Book Co. $1.50.
Gates, Eleanor. The Biography of a Prairie Girl. Century Co. $1.50.
Gilbert, George. In the Shadow of the Purple. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.50.
Hart, A. B., and Hill, Mabel. Camps and Firesides of the Revolution. (Source-Readers of American History.) Macmillan. 50 cents.
Hart, A. B., and Hazard, Blanche E. Colonial Children. (Source-Readers in American History.) Macmillan.
Ireland, Industrial and Agricultural. Dublin: Browne & Nolan; New York: Scribners. $2.50.
Irving, Washington. The Legend of Sleepy Hollow. (Written in shorthand.) Cincinnati: The Phonographic Institute Co.
Jerrold, Walter. The Reign of King Oberon. (The True Annals of Fairyland.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Kelman, John. The Holy Land. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Le Feuvre, Amy. A Daughter of the Sea. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. $1.50.
MacDonald, William. The Government of Maine: Its History and Administration. (Handbooks of American Government.) Macmillan.
McMaster, J. B. Daniel Webster. Century Co.
McNeill, J. C. Mental Arithmetic. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Mitton, G. E. Hampstead and Marylebone. (The Fascination of London.) London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Newspaper Rate-Book, including a Catalogue of Newspapers and Periodicals in the United States and Canada. Pittsburgh: Nelson Chesman & Co. $5.
Pages Choisies des Grands Ecrivains: Beaumarchais, avec une introduction par M. Paul Bonnefon.—Mme. de Staël. Avec une introduction par M. S. Rocheblave. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50, each.
Riley, J. W. The Books of Joyous Children. Scribners.
Robins, Edward. Romances of Early America. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co. $2.50.
Selections from the Thoughts of Pascal, Translated from the French, with an Introduction by Benjamin E. Smith. Century Co.
Serao, Matilde. The Conquest of Rome. Harpers.
Sharp, Evelyn. The Other Boy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Shelley, P. B. The Sensitive Plant. (Flowers of Parnassus—xiii.) John Lane.
Sheridan, R. B. The Rivals. Century Co.
Six and Twenty Boys and Girls. Pictured by John Hassall, with verses by Clifton Bingham. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
Slade, A. F. Mary Neville: The History of a Woman Who Attempted Too Much. Brentano.
Spofford, Harriet P. The Great Procession, and Other Verses for and about Children. (The Arcadian Library.) Boston: Richard G. Badger.
Stanton, F. L. Up from Georgia. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Strange Lands Near Home. (Youth's Companion Series.) Boston: Ginn & Co. 25 cents.
Stuart, Ruth M. Napoleon Jackson: The Gentleman of the Plush Rocker. Century Co. $1.
The Temple Bible: (1) Proverbs, Ecclesiastics, and the Song of Solomon, edited by D. S. Margoliouth; (2) The Book of Job and the Book of Ruth. Edited by W. E. Addis. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 60 cents each.
The Works of Rudyard Kipling. (The "Swastika" Set.) 15 vols. Rev. ed. Doubleday, Page & Co. $15.
Thwaites, R. G. Daniel Boone. (Appletons' Series of Historic Lives.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.
Wendell, Barrett. Raleigh in Guiana, Rosamond, and A Christmas Masque. Scribners. $1.50.
Williams, M. B. The House Building, and Other Poems. London: R. Brimley Johnson. 3s. 6d.
Zueblin, Charles. American Municipal Progress. (The Citizen's Library.) Macmillan. $1.25.


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 30, 1902.

## The Week.

Senator Morgan of Alabama continues in a state of moral deafness or judicial blindness in reference to the coming election. In a recent interview he is quoted as saying:

"I do not see that the Democrats have anything to gain by controlling the next House of Representatives. I do not believe the Democrats of this country want to constitute themselves a clog to legislation; yet that result would naturally follow. With the two branches of Congress of opposite political faith, the Government will be seriously embarrassed. There is nothing to gain by a condition of this kind. It would not be any advantage to any one."

The Senator's argument would be equally valid against any attempt by the Democrats to carry any election unless they could secure the House, the Senate, and the Executive, all at once, since gaining one of the three without the others would be a clog to legislation. But there is something else besides legislation which the House or the Senate can usefully employ. It can investigate even if it cannot legislate, and investigation is needed at the present time even more than legislation. Six years have passed since the Democrats have had a sufficient number of votes in either house to investigate anything on their own initiative. All inquiries into the doings of the executive branches of the Government, the army, and colonial affairs have been conducted under Republican auspices, and in some cases have been extremely unfair and partisan. Nothing is more needed at the present time than a searchlight directed by persons who want to find out facts instead of those who want to conceal them. For this reason, if for no other, the election of a Democratic House this fall would be a blessing to the country.

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It is the most natural thing in the world to find Lieut.-Governor Woodruff caught, as Senator Quay recently was, violating the civil-service laws. Politicians of their kidney never think of the law against political assessments as a statute to be obeyed. It is, to them, simply a thing to be got round in the safest way possible. There stands the law of the State, declaring it a misdemeanor for any officer of the State of New York to sign his name to such a coercion circular as went, bearing Woodruff's signature, to every place-holder in Brooklyn. Of course, he may plead, as Quay did, that it was put there without his knowledge or consent; but it is safe to say that, if he did not authorize it, it was placed on the illegal circular by some one who was very sure that Woodruff would not object—unless, indeed, it should turn out to be in violation of the Eleventh Commandment of small-potato politicians (the only one they really care about), "Thou shalt not be found out."

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"I can see no serious national ills at present." Thus, in the *Independent*, writes the Quay Governor of Pennsylvania, one William A. Stone, whose name stands in the public mind for official incapacity and weakness. "It is, indeed," he continues, "unfortunately true that there are labor strikes and industrial disturbances, but they are not evidences of financial depression. They are, on the contrary, evidences of industrial prosperity, for they only occur in a serious manner when the country is prosperous." Using the same philosophy, smallpox and yellow fever are a sign of health in the person afflicted, and paralysis merely an indication that all is well with the patient's general condition. What else could one have expected from such a Governor? When the whole country was brought to the verge of unheard-of suffering and distress, when his own State was seething with lawlessness, he could see nothing in the situation which called for any action except the dispatching of a handful of troops. His voice was never heard in condemnation or warning. He withheld the full weight of his armed hand until compelled thereto by overwhelming public sentiment. The 147,000 men thrown out of employment may have felt no "financial depression," but thousands of others were plunged into it and into moral and physical suffering by the surplus of prosperity in Pennsylvania.

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The coal companies are to be commended for their firm stand in regard to the non-union miners who worked for them at the risk of their lives during the strike. Many of these men prevented serious and lasting damage to the mines by their devotion to duty. To turn them out now at the behest of the strikers would be an outrageous return for their extremely valuable services. Naturally enough, the companies have declined to take the slightest notice of the numerous threats of the strikers, and have, moreover, served notice that any employee molesting a non-union worker will be immediately dismissed. "Dismissed and prosecuted" the notices should read, if only because the few offenders captured by the troops have thus far practically escaped punishment, or are likely to get off with light sentences. Nothing that the Arbitration Commission can say or do will affect the relations of the non-union men to their employers. There was no issue between the strikers and the operators which related to the employment of non-union men, and Mitchell himself has diplomatically spoken out against discrimination.

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The general strike of the plasterers of this city should call attention to the fairly mediæval conditions under which building is conducted here. We know of small contractors who deal with upwards of a dozen separate unions, any one of which may, upon a good or bad pretext, hold up the whole work. The subdivision of handicraft went no further at the time of the old trade guilds. To add to the difficulty, there are rival unions, as in the case of the painters and paperhangers. The employment of either union may involve a boycott by the other, and the case has lately arisen at the White House, as well as in the new building of the Union Club. In the present case the employers' association refuses an increase of 50 cents a day, offering $4.50, and declines to let the plasterers' union appoint the foremen. Naturally, no employer, and especially no contractor, is willing to give up the right to direct the laborers he pays. Accordingly, the employers' association will fight on the issue of retaining control of its own business. Work is already suspended in some dozen important buildings, and the striking plasterers have it in their power to call out practically all the allied trades, painters, plumbers, glaziers, etc. It is to be hoped that the employers' association will stand firm. In no other branch of industry is the incorporation of the unions so necessary, for in no other does the union wield so much irresponsible power. Architects and building contractors are under strict legal bonds and penalties which do not exist for the multifarious organizations that actually control the building trade.

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The War Department, thanks to Messrs. Charles Francis Adams, Carl Schurz, Moorfield Storey, and others, has investigated the case of the Filipino priest, Father Augustin, tortured and killed by Capt. Cornelius M. Brownell of the Twenty-sixth Volunteer Infantry, and has found sufficient evidence on hand to justify the Attorney-General in proceeding in the matter. We have lost count of the number of times the charges in this case have been declared, in official and semi-official circles, to be nonsense, but it is entirely due to the much-maligned Anti-Imperialist Committee that there is now a chance of justice being done at last. If Secretary Root's policy of suppression and connivance had continued, this case would have been entirely overlooked and the facts denied. It is interesting to

note that the special dispatch to the *Tribune* telling of the action in the Brownell case concludes by saying that there are still nearly one hundred charges against the War Department and army "which the Anti-Imperialists make no pretence of establishing, and the War Department can only contemptuously ignore." It "contemptuously ignored" Father Augustin's murder for a year or two until Anti-Imperialists produced the facts. Then, after several months, it took action on September 18, and it has taken the Judge-Advocate-General five weeks to decide whether the case should be referred to the Attorney-General or not. The War Department need not delude itself into believing that it will be allowed to "contemptuously ignore" all the other cases, for the Lake George Committee, which is shaming the War Department by doing its work of prosecution, has plenty of additional evidence on hand to submit at the proper time.

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Gov. Taft, on October 22, addressed twenty-two officials of towns situated in the province of Cavité, and gave them to understand that they and their people must unite to suppress crime. To this "must" the presidentes at once submitted, and promised to organize volunteers to act as police. They then turned the tables squarely by asking Gov. Taft to have a vagrancy act passed that would reach the "dissolute Americans and foreigners" who have settled among them. "Many of these men," the dispatch continues, "make their homes with the natives, and the influence of these men is often bad." The Government having been frequently called upon to remove these vicious characters, Gov. Taft was apparently quite aware of the evil, and in turn promised to have the desired law enacted at once. We give prominence to this interesting occurrence for two reasons. In the first place, no Republican newspaper, we are certain, will notice it in any way. In the second place, we are thus furnished with an official admission that our beneficent civilizing process has unloaded upon one province so many rascals as to make their removal the crying need of the hour. We well remember with what joy the Imperialist press chronicled the news that large numbers of discharged soldiers were settling in the islands. This was a sure sign that the Americanization of the Philippines would proceed apace and in the best possible way.

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A dispatch to the Associated Press from Manila says that the depreciation in the value of silver has cost the insular Government approximately $1,000,000, and has turned an expected Treasury surplus into a deficit. The gold dollar is now worth $2.40 in silver. The Government is thus going through the same trials that British India experienced ten years ago. The dispatch adds that merchants have suffered losses in the same way as the Government. That is, they have bought their goods on the gold basis and have sold them on the silver basis. They are now trying to put their business on the gold basis exclusively. This is not an easy thing to do. Congress ought to take up this question immediately and pass the House bill of the last session, which was a measure for transition from the silver to the gold standard, similar in effect to that adopted by Japan. At the last session of Congress the two houses disagreed on the question of the Philippine currency. The Senate adopted a plan for confirming and retaining the silver standard. The House refused to concur, and signified its purpose to kill the whole Philippine Government bill rather than assent to that feature of it. As the Senate was equally stubborn, there was nothing to do but to abandon both plans and leave the currency question *in statu quo*—that is, with the Mexican silver dollar as the standard unit of value. This condition cannot last much longer without producing dire distress among the Americans who are condemned to live there, and among the upper classes generally.

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It is improbable that fifty persons in the United States not in official life were aware that an arbitration was pending between Germany on the one hand, and the United States and Great Britain on the other, concerning affairs in the Samoan Islands, or one affair therein. It seems, however, to be a fact that such a case has been in court since November 7, 1899, the arbitrator being the King of Sweden and Norway. It has been decided by King Oscar in favor of Germany. The finding of his Majesty is, that when the naval forces of the United States and Great Britain in Samoan waters fired on the canoes of one of the rival claimants to the throne of Samoa, and landed a force of bluejackets in the island of Apia, in the year 1898, they exceeded their authority. The usual consequence of an arbitration, as of an ordinary lawsuit, is a claim for damages on the part of private individuals. These amounted originally to about $30,000, but after the case was referred to arbitration they rose to $300,000, which is probably in excess of the value of all the property on the island of Apia at the time when the damage was inflicted.

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In addition to the papers heretofore published relating to the title to the Panama Canal, is a written opinion of M. Waldeck-Rousseau, former Premier of the French republic. In his professional capacity, he says that "by the transfer the United States will acquire the firmest and most impregnable title of ownership to the property transferred, and will assume no other obligations than those stipulated for in the contract of transfer itself, without any claim being possible to be made, either by the old company, or by its shareholders, or by the liquidator, or by its creditors and bondholders, or by their representatives." This covers every claim on the other side of the Atlantic. Attorney-General Knox has procured an abstract of title for an intending purchaser, has given his own opinion upon it, and has procured that of a first-rate lawyer in France. The United States as an intending purchaser has given notice to all governments and peoples, and especially to those of France, of what she is about, so that all concerned may have their day in court. Therefore, when the money is paid over, the title passes, and everybody in Europe is concluded. Not even a case for the Hague tribunal could be raised afterwards, since that tribunal deals only with claims presented by governments. But, of course, the money will not be paid until a settlement is effected with the Colombian Government. The United States will not buy a pig in a poke either in Panama or in Nicaragua.

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Texas has been peculiarly disgraced by three recent lynchings within her borders. In the case at Nacogdoches there was a feint made at compliance with legal forms. Few men voluntarily surrender thirty days of life, and the prisoner's waiving of the time mercifully granted by the law to prepare for eternity was due undoubtedly to a preference for death by the rope to torture at the stake. From Governor down to Judge, Sheriff, and militia officer, it was a cringing surrender to the demand of the mob, without the poor excuse of averting a worse result, as soldiers enough to protect the prisoner in his rights were present. It is small wonder that this concession to Judge Lynch at Nacogdoches was followed so quickly by the lawless hanging at Hempsted of two negroes, whose coerced waiving of the thirty-day period was not accepted by a just judge.

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The long-debated matter of segregation of the sexes at the University of Chicago has resulted in a compromise. In the Junior College, consisting of first and second-year students, the young men and young women are to be put into separate classes; beyond the Junior College the old coeducational system will prevail. It is easy to see practical reasons for this not wholly logical solution of the problem. The required elementary courses of the freshman and sophomore year, crowded as they are, offer in any case difficulties to the teacher which do not exist in the case of the smaller and more advanced elective courses. Virtually, Chicago University refuses to teach the younger men and women together

*en masse*, but signifies a willingness to abide by the old system with the older and more serious students. Of course, the decision will satisfy neither the advocates nor the opponents of coeducation. The former will say that if coeducation is a good thing, the under-class students should not be deprived of its benefits; the latter will insist that since coeducation is pernicious, it should be abolished throughout the college. Neutrals in the controversy will see at least this virtue in the Chicago compromise, that under it the relative advantages of segregation and coeducation will be put to an actual test. The young men who study masculine analytical chemistry will proceed to coeducational organic chemistry, and the comparison of results should prove whether the presence of the other sex is a distraction or a stimulus. But educational radicals of all complexions would like to have President Harper and his trustees come out frankly and declare whether this change is in favor of the two years' college course recently advocated by President Butler, or whether coeducation in the upper-class years is held out as an inducement to waverers to be faithful to the end.

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It is some months since the case of Gross vs. Rostand brought the subject of plagiarism to the fore, and now the suit of Mr. Victor Herbert against the *Musical Courier* is likely to cause more innocent merriment than was ever had from his excellent comic operas. Some time after Mr. Herbert ceased to use the *Courier* as an advertising medium, there began in it a series of unfavorable notices, in which both the popularity and the originality of Mr. Herbert's music were impeached. To the charge of plagiarism the composer rejoined with a libel suit, to cast his defamer in damages. Those who recall the judicial comparison of "The Merchant Prince of Cornville" and "Cyrano de Bergerac" will appreciate the greater difficulties that assailed Judge Truax. How may a composer prove to the satisfaction of a jury, none of whom are musical, that his music is his own? Witnesses have been found to swear that they have *seen* Mr. Herbert in the very act of composition, and that no scores of other composers were in sight. This kind of testimony, which has only a laughable kind of plausibility, is, after all, the best that coudd be offered on Mr. Herbert's side. For the defence, sundry musical "experts" declared that they felt that this *morceau* of Mr. Herbert's was Offenbach's, and that phrase Wagner's—this on their mere say-so. What seemed to be needed was, first, a musical jury, and, next, an experimental orchestra, as *amicus curiæ*, by which every alleged plagiarism might first be played and then its asserted original, the duty of the jury being to hum over the two pieces *sotto voce* until, as good men and true musicians, they were convinced that the pieces were one, or are two. However, the ordinary jury proved quite competent to arrive at a just decision.

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Recent reports that Sir Wilfrid Laurier would resign are apparently unfounded; indeed, the prompt dismissal of the protectionist Minister of Public Works, Israel Tarte, indicates a certain haste on Sir Wilfrid's part to resume the responsibility of leadership. That the sacking of Minister Tarte, with the accompanying reprimand, is in the interest of the Liberal party, no one can doubt. Mr. Tarte had been speaking in season and out of season for an advanced protectionist policy, although the Ministry to which he belongs is traditionally attached to free trade, and actually bound to the present low tariff schedules. To the rebuke which Sir Wilfrid administers while requesting his resignation, Mr. Tarte could only say that he had spoken as his heart urged him to speak—an explanation which apparently did not convince Laurier that kind hearts are more than party regularity. This dismissal of Tarte was a bold move, for he is past-master of the arts of the politician, and powerful in the over-represented province of Quebec. Sir Wilfrid's action fairly clears the political atmosphere and brings back the Liberals to their old lights. Unless local conditions, particularly in the province of Ontario, should be unfavorable, the present government will have every prospect of continued existence under its skilled opportunist leader.

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It is an odd fate that is to send Joseph Chamberlain to South Africa in the character of a peacemaker, and yet recent events have made him in a sense the champion of the Cape Colony and, perhaps involuntarily, the friend of the Cape Dutch. It will be remembered that Lord Milner was unwilling to restore Parliamentary rule in Cape Colony, and there were other observers to insist "that the Cape Colony should be reduced to the same administrative status as those colonies lately acquired by force of arms, . . . and responsible government ought not to be restored one day earlier in the Cape Colony than in the Orange River Colany and the Transvaal." To this counsel of suspicion Mr. Chamberlain opposed the more generous policy of assuming that the Cape Colony was loyal, and fit, not only to conduct its own affairs, but to help in the great task of reconstruction in South Africa. So far the Cape Parliament has rather signally fallen short of Mr. Chamberlain's generous expectation. The Afrikander Bond has asserted its predominance, has apparently captured the Premier, Sir Gordon Sprigg, and has devoted itself chiefly to unseemly squabbles between the loyal Dutch and the more radical members of the Bond. The loyal Dutch have naturally been a difficult element to manage. They have demanded quite their full share of the £3,000,000 indemnity for restocking the ravaged farms, and they have with bitterness insisted upon the strict execution of the war penalties, much as our American Tories would have done had George III. made good his title to the American colonies. With these people the very means of conciliation have been made matters of strife. Mr. Chamberlain will come more directly upon the work of his own hand when he visits the new crown colonies of the Orange River and the Transvaal, sees the dismantled farms, and studies the conditions of forced labor at the mines. His visit will be not merely by way of inspection, but, in the eyes of the world, by way of reparation. To put the burden of taxation upon the miners, for whom the war was fought, will seem to them like base ingratitude; to Mr. Chamberlain it may seem like poetic justice.

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Last week's defeat of the German Ministry was in itself humiliating enough when the size of the majority against it is considered. It was all the more bitter a dose for Count von Bülow, because it followed his earnest and eloquent appeal to the Reichstag, in the course of which he again declared himself the warm friend of the Agrarians. None the less, the Reichstag insisted upon the recommendation of the Tariff Committee for higher duties on wheat and rye than the Government could possibly grant. As if to complete the Chancellor's mortification, the only votes cast for the Government were by the three parties—Social-Democrats, National Liberals, and Radicals—which have oftenest opposed the Government, and which the Government has hitherto regarded with suspicion, distrust, and, very frequently, hostility. So complete a change of the pawns in this game cannot but have important results. The Chancellor's policy has hitherto been to strive by concessions, promises, and smooth words to tide the Ministry over difficult places, rather than to threaten and browbeat in Bismarckian style. For the latter policy Count von Bülow is in no way fitted. On the other hand, he must have long since exhausted every possible promise in his efforts to avoid yesterday's defeat. It is quite possible, therefore, that the Chancellor's usefulness has reached an end. Even if the Kaiser decides to let him fight on a while longer, there are many equally dangerous rocks before him on which he may again come to grief. The way out may be to suppress the bill in the Bundesrath, or to dissolve the Reichstag. Either would be most unwelcome to the Ministry, and add to its unpopularity.

### *THE ELECTION FORECAST.*

That there will be Republican losses at the elections is certain. The only question is, will those losses be great enough to turn the majority of that party in the present House of Representatives into a minority in the next? For more than sixty years the party which won at any particular Presidential election has been unable to maintain its strength unimpaired at the Congressional elections in the middle of that Presidential term. Whigs in 1842 and 1850, Democrats in 1838, 1846, 1854, 1858, 1886, and 1894, and Republicans in 1862, 1866, 1870, 1874, 1878, 1882, 1890, and 1898, alike found that to the universality of the rule there was no exception. The change in the House of Representatives has sometimes been small, as in 1878, when the Republicans lost only some eight seats, counting sixteen on a division. It has sometimes been very great, as in 1894, when the Democrats returned 113 fewer members than they did in 1892. In the twelve off-year elections which have taken place since the formation of the Republican party, the average loss of the party which had won the preceding election was forty-three seats, counting eighty-six on a division. If the Republican losses this year shall reach the average of the last forty-eight years, the Democratic majority in the House will be about forty-seven.

Of course, President Roosevelt's Administration can sustain as serious losses as those of President Hayes in 1878, of President Cleveland in 1886, or of President McKinley in 1898, and still retain control of the lower house of Congress. In considering the probabilities of the Republicans securing a majority of the next House, it must be borne in mind that, in order to do so, they must, outside of the eleven States which formerly made up the Southern Confederacy, elect about two-thirds of all the members. Under the new apportionment, those eleven States will have ninety-eight members. Of these the Republicans cannot with certainty count upon securing more than two—those from the First and Second (East) Tennessee districts. Not more than three other districts are even doubtful. If the Republicans shall secure four members out of the entire ninety-eight, they will be doing very well indeed. In that event, the South, as above defined, will be represented in the Fifty-eighth Congress by ninety-four Democrats and four Republicans. The Administration will, therefore, to retain control of the House, have to elect one hundred and ninety out of the two hundred and eighty-nine members from the other thirty-four States. That is, it will have to put its candidates at the head of the poll in more than 65 per cent. of all the Congressional districts of the Northern and Border States, including among the latter Missouri and Kentucky, with their large and overwhelmingly Democratic delegations.

Experience seems to indicate that it is usually only in times when political feeling in the North is keenly aroused that any such degree of unanimity can be looked for. Since the organization of the Republican party in 1854, it has succeeded in only nine out of twenty-four Congressional elections in securing 65 per cent. of the Representatives from the Northern and Border States. Its first triumph of this kind was won in the year of its birth. Then the North was in the first flush of its indignation at the repeal of the Missouri Compromise by the enactment of the Kansas-Nebraska Act. The Republican triumph in many localities was facilitated by the Democratic disorganization which resulted from the sudden springing up of the Know-Nothing party. As a result, Northern and Border States sent to the Thirty-fourth Congress one hundred and seventeen anti-Nebraska men, as against fifty-four supporters of the Administration. The reaction soon came, and it was not until ten years later that, at the second election of Lincoln, in 1864, the Republicans were able to do as well as they had done in the middle of President Pierce's term. In 1864 their success in the Northern States was due to the popularity of President Lincoln and to the intensity of the war fever, then at its height. The disfranchisement of a large part of their opponents in the Border States enabled them to win districts in which otherwise they would have had no chance. All these causes combined to give them more than three-fourths of the entire number of Representatives outside of the States then in rebellion.

In each of the elections of 1866 and 1868 they lost a little ground, but, so long as the Democratic opposition was handicapped by the unpopularity of President Johnson, the Republican strength remained substantially unimpaired, and in 1868 the Republicans elected 123 out of the 185 members from those States which had not been subjected to the processes of reconstruction. In 1870, however, they secured but 109 out of 185 members; but as in the reconstructed States they secured 30 out of the 58 seats, they retained control of the House. The fiasco of the Greeley campaign in 1872 again gave to the Republicans a more than two-thirds majority from the Northern and Border States, and for the last time they succeeded in securing more than half of the Representatives from the territory once included within the Southern Confederacy. Then came the panic of 1873, the full realization by the country of the scandalous conditions of public life in Washington, and the intensifying disgust with the carpet-bag administrations in the South; and at the election of 1874 the Republican majority of 99 from the Northern and Border States was turned into a minority of 31.

For twenty years after 1872, the Republicans were unable, outside of the eleven Southern States, to obtain a two-thirds majority. A great commercial crisis preceded the loss of their overwhelming supremacy in the Northern States. A like crisis, happening when a Democratic Administration was in power, preceded their regaining such supremacy. In 1892 there had been an opposition majority of 14 from the Northern and Border States. In 1894, out of the 267 members elected from those States, no less than 237 were Republicans, a proportion which has never before or since been even approximated. Two years later, even handicapped by Mr. Bryan's candidacy, the opposition gained forty seats in the Northern States, and in 1898 made a further gain of sixteen seats, thirteen of which, however, were again lost at the Presidential contest of 1900. It has, therefore, happened for the first time in the history of the Republican party that for four successive Congressional elections, viz., those of 1894, 1896, 1898, and 1900, the Republican party has had a two-thirds majority of the Representatives from the North and the Border. Even in the days of war and reconstruction, Republicans were not able to do so well for as many successive Congressional elections. It is to be noted, moreover, that of the seven off-year Congressional elections when there was a Republican President in the White House, only once, in 1898, have the Republicans secured that proportion of Representatives from the Northern and Border States which is now requisite for them to obtain if they are to have a majority in the House of Representatives. In 1862, in 1870, in 1874, in 1878, in 1882, and in 1890 they failed to get such a majority, and in 1874, 1882, and in 1890 they were in an absolute minority.

### *A MORE EXCELLENT WAY.*

We shall make no apology for recurring to the subject of the coal strike. Its calamitous effects abide with us, and will continue for months to come. Every one of us is still being taxed for it, and a normal supply of fuel is remotely distant. The Commission which, in the minds of thousands, is expected to justify the strikers' methods by establishing the existence of grievances—large or petty—has yet to prosecute its labors. Few have sat down to consider thoughtfully the exact meaning and probable consequences of the President's intervention. Is the moral of it that trade-unionism has acquired a new weapon of offence, and that a strike has only to be outrageous enough to constrain the President to summon the victims to a

conference and a forced composition? Has it, in other words, been a step towards suppressing strikes; or will it foster, even in humane and disinterested minds, the presumption that strikers are in the right, and encourage the mob to multiply and aggravate strikes? Does it emphasize the strategy of choosing a national-election year with a view to "getting a cinch" on the President as on all the tribe of machine politicians? Will it bring into the field, if not a Labor party, a new class of Presidential candidates and aspirants with "Labor" principles—such as we may expect the coming session of Congress to develop?

For our own part, we do not hesitate to declare the late crisis the most momentous since the civil war; and we are not unmindful of the Hayes-Tilden dilemma of 1876-77. Before it passes, with our frivolous public, into the limbo of the South African war, the destruction of St. Pierre, and the minor sensations of the year, we desire to "improve" it for the benefit of an unbalanced portion of the community. We refer to Anarchists with a capital A (by way of distinction from the coal-strike variety). If the last Presidential assassin were alive to-day, what reason he would have for envying Mitchell and for writing himself down an ass! His victim was a solitary man; Mitchell's killed and maimed are reckoned by scores. The dying McKinley carried away with him neither the office which furnished the motive for his murder, nor the national power to maintain it, refill it, and proceed, after a nine-days' ripple of excitement, unconcernedly, with the function of government absolutely unimpaired. Mitchell kept the country for five months in a state of famine, and threw it into a panic over a common necessary of life; threatened with a standstill the educational, charitable, and industrial machinery of the land, causing the very sun of civilization to pause in its course, and, with fresh disorders in reserve, dragged the President of the United States into the arena of controversy, and openly fraternized with him as an ally.

Moreover, Mitchell is alive. No incarceration awaits him; his body will not be interred with quicklime, his name will not be excluded from text-books and biographical dictionaries. A host of demagogues will sing his praises on the stump. He may be only at the beginning of his career. Already he has his "Mitchell Day." He neither moves by stealth in the consummation of his designs, nor conceals his deadly weapon in a cloth. In the midst of a reign of terror of his own creating, he goes to and fro directing operations in the presence of the militia, unmolested, and at least as much respected as the Governor of the State of which he is not even a citizen. He pinches the Navy Department for coal for its cruisers, and holds up ocean liners. Nobody seems to mind, many admire. What a contrast to a life of disguises, of fleeing from city to city and from continent to continent, with every man's hand against you. The Anarchist may well pause to reflect on this curious apportionment of public favor.

More than twenty years have elapsed since the second Alexander of Russia was assassinated. Since then, many a king, empress, and president has been taken off by bomb, dirk, or bullet without a single change in the form of government or any specific amelioration in the condition of the governed. If there is a spark of sense left among the Anarchists, they must see that they are on the wrong tack. Not only that, the experience of this country during the past five months is an object-lesson in the better way. Let the humblest of them, if the scene of his duty or his ambition be the United States, begin by becoming the henchman of a political boss. Let him assist in packing primaries and conventions, in filling the Legislature with men pledged to send the Boss to the United States Senate, and the Governor's chair with a creature pledged to approve whatever measures the Boss directs or permits the Legislature to pass. Meanwhile, let him join a trade-union and become a windy spouter at its secret meetings. Let him conspire to have the Boss's Legislature pass a bill forbidding the employment of any but certificated miners, and the Boss's Governor give his assent to it. Then let him see that no certificated miner can live in peace and safety if he do not enter the union. Meanwhile he himself may even enlist in the militia of the coal region. The time is now ripe for the strike which shall cripple the operators, bring awful distress upon the country, and begin the loosing of the bonds of society, his cherished aim. His taste for bloodshed can concurrently be gratified to the utmost upon every non-union laborer and his terror-stricken family; and all this with impunity.

It remains only to smother the patriotic feeling of the American people. Our Anarchist, if as cunning as he is bloodthirsty, will have begun afar off by preaching the doctrine of protection and international hatred. At the same time he will stimulate the clash of selfish interests in the struggle to plunder the consumer under color of law and philanthropy. The creation of divisions in the commonalty he will accelerate by his protective trade-union propaganda, into which he will carry all the political arts learned in the discipline of the Boss. No body of workers so insignificant but it must be made to organize, down to the "varnishers" of bretzels. Everywhere the output of labor must be hedged about by restrictions, by limitation of hours and of the number of craftsmen—so many tile-setters for a city, and no more; so many apprentices in a trade, and no more; one artisan one craft, or branch of craft, and no more. Walking delegates must earn their salary by throwing the performance of all contracts into complete uncertainty. Unions must make war not only on independent labor, but on each other.

A few years of this sort of chaos having sufficed to make it appear normal and natural, labor federations, overstepping State boundaries and interfering from without, work a continental havoc unquestioned and unresented like any local disturbance. Our Anarchist can now safely distribute American flags to school-children, with choice readings from 'The Man Without a Country.' When the little ones are turned out of school for want of coal which their parents have held back by contributing funds, say, in Massachusetts, to support Mitchell in Pennsylvania, our Anarchist can sing "Nunc dimittis," and, if he cannot conscientiously subscribe himself, can at least wring from the untaught pupils one more penny apiece for the half-million dollar monument at Canton, Ohio.

### *JOHN SHERMAN'S VIEWS.*

We quoted the other day some extracts from speeches made by Henry Clay and Justin S. Morrill on the subject of the tariff existing in their time, showing that neither of these fathers of the system ever contemplated that protection should last forever, or be kept in force a day after the protected industries should have become firmly established at home. We shall now quote another representative man on the same side. There was a debate in the Senate in March, 1872, on a bill to reduce the duties on imports 10 per cent. all around. This was a Republican measure, both branches of Congress and the Executive being then controlled by that party. The bill was reported in the Senate by Mr. Sherman, as Chairman of the Committee on Finance. There was a great deal of remonstrance from the protected classes; for, although they had already got the war taxes on their products repealed, they were quite determined to hold on to the new import duties which had been enacted as compensation for the internal tax. They annoyed Mr. Sherman so much with their importunities that he made some remarks for their benefit in open Senate. He said:

"It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and

since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high when all these taxes are removed."

It should be remarked that the duties prevailing in 1872 were generally much lower than they are in the present Dingley tariff; yet they were the same schedules which the Tariff Commission of 1882 said ought to be reduced 20 or 25 per cent.

Mr. Sherman went on to rebuke the tariff privateers who were then besieging Congress. He said, in the same speech from which the foregoing words are quoted:

"I have listened with patience, day by day, to the statements of gentlemen who are interested in our domestic productions. I am a firm believer in the general idea of protecting their industries, but I assure them, as I assure their representatives here, that if the present high rates of duties, unexampled in our country, and higher by nearly 50 per cent. than they were in 1861, are maintained on metallic and textile fabrics after we have repealed the very internal taxes which gave rise to them, and after we have substantially given them their raw materials free of duties, we shall have a feeling of dissatisfaction among other interests in the country that will overthrow the whole system, and do greater harm than can possibly be done by a moderate reduction of the present rates of duty."

These words proceeded from a man who was ruled by protectionist ideas and by a protectionist constituency. He was the foremost man of his party, if not the foremost of his time in public position as a financier and economist. He was not a courageous man, however. He was so much under the discipline of the wool-growers of his State that he rarely said anything against the tariff extremists. His speech of 1872 was evidently wrung from him by the strongest sense of duty. The old-fashioned ideas of Clay, Morrill, Sherman, and the other fathers of the so-called "American system" have given place to the idea that protection by tariff ought never to cease, and that it ought never to be lowered if any small producers are engaged in it.

Such extraordinary pretences justify us in asking whether protection was ever necessary in this country. It is a fact of history that the iron industry sprang up in this country not only without the aid of a tariff, but in spite of the hostile legislation of Great Britain. Alexander Hamilton considered that industry well established at the time when he wrote his report on manufactures. Glass-making, tanning, copper-smelting, rope-making, wool-combing, and the manufacture of gloves, boots, and shoes, and of cotton and woollen cloth and sail duck, and of gunpowder and fire-arms, were carried on here in the seventeenth century without tariff protection, were carried on to such an extent as to excite the jealousy and alarm of the mother country. The exportation of iron, both pig and bar, from America to England was so great in the early part of the eighteenth century that the British iron-master sought and obtained protection against it at home, and even procured a prohibition against taking it into the interior ten miles from London. Nobody had the face to ask for a duty on pig-iron in this country until the year 1818. It was not needed then, but it was made part of a log-rolling scheme, and has been continued ever since at various rates ranging from 18 to 58 per cent. *ad valorem*. But if we concede that protection was needed in some cases, they were few in number, and the necessity has passed away in nearly all.

Mr. Sherman's speech, from which we have quoted, is the most philosophical in its reasoning and the most lofty in tone of all those embraced in the volume which he compiled for publication, and on which he intended that his reputation should rest. We extract one more paragraph, in which he deals with taxes on consumption, showing how unjust they are to the wage-workers and the poorer classes, and how they serve to put upon their backs an undue share of the public burdens:

"The income tax expires with the collection of the tax of 1871, which, on personal incomes, is assessed during the present month. The public mind is not yet prepared to apply the key to a genuine revenue reform. A few years of further experience will convince the whole body of our people that a system of national taxes which rests the whole burden of taxation on consumption, and not one cent on property or income, is intrinsically unjust. While the expenses of the national Government are largely caused by the protection of property, it is but right to require property to contribute to their payment. It will not do to say that each person consumes in proportion to his means. This is not true. Every one must see that the consumption of the rich does not bear the same relation to the consumption of the poor as the income of the one does to the wages of the other. As wealth accumulates, this injustice in the fundamental basis of our system will be felt and forced upon the attention of Congress."

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### *THE DANISH ISLANDS TREATY.*

The dispatches from Copenhagen describing the defeat of the treaty for the sale of the Danish West India islands to the United States seem to have been edited by Capt. Christmas. They pour the utmost ridicule on the heads of two old men who are members of the upper house of the Danish Parliament. After reading this account, we are compelled to think that members of the Landsthing ought not to be allowed to vote after they reach a certain age, and if they are in poor health. This may be the opinion of Capt. Christmas, but he will hardly be able to bring the American people to that belief, especially those who remember how John Quincy Adams, in his old age, was carried to his place in the House of Representatives on a great occasion. That venerable patriot actually fell upon the floor of the House in a swoon, and died in an adjoining room, and yet he is held in high honor by his countrymen. But, according to these dispatches from Copenhagen to the American press, the two old men who were conveyed to their places to vote according to their convictions of duty to their own country were ridiculous characters, fit only to excite the laughter of gods and men.

May it not be possible that these old men have some such feeling in reference to the sale of the islands as most Americans would have if a foreign country should offer to buy Florida or Alaska from us? Perhaps they have more feeling on the subject than we should have in like case, seeing that Denmark has held those islands longer than we have held anything, longer than we have had an independent existence. Tradition is a strong force among the political elements of nations, and it is especially so in the minds of aged Senators. But the edited dispatches lay stress on the pecuniary aspects of the treaty, as showing how these old men are losing sight of the main chance. Denmark has to meet a bill of expense every year in carrying on the government of the islands. How absurd, then, to vote against a treaty which saddles this bill on another country which is willing to assume it!

The mercantile view is the one which Capt. Christmas would naturally take. He is one of those men, described by the lamented Jacob Sharp, "who don't stir around for nothing." He has a claim, or thinks he has, for a 10 per cent. commission on the purchase price of the islands, and has even threatened to bring a lawsuit against the Danish Government to recover this sum in case payment is refused. Fortunately, that case will not go to trial at present, although the Danish Ministry may ask us to consent to a supplementary treaty extending the time for ratification. Premier Deuntzer said in the debate at Copenhagen that he might do so if we should request him to ask us.

In a recent article on this treaty we said that, even if it were ratified by Denmark, a vote of our House of Representatives would still be necessary to carry it into effect, since it required an appropriation of $5,000,000, and that the House might refuse. The *Tribune*, in an article combating this proposition, said: "Never yet has the House failed to redeem the honor of the nation, and pass the laws necessary to meet treaty obligations, whether it was pleased with the treaty or not." The *Tribune* had forgotten the treaty of reciprocity with Mexico, negotiated during the Administration of President Arthur, ratified by the Senate, and rejected by the House on the 29th of January, 1885. Reference was made to this treaty in President Arthur's message of December 1, 1884, in the following words:

"During the past year the increasing good will between our own Government and that of Mexico has been variously manifested.

The treaty of commercial reciprocity concluded January 20, 1883, has been ratified, and awaits the necessary tariff legislation of Congress to become effective. This legislation will, I doubt not, be among the first measures to claim your attention."

In pursuance of this recommendation, Mr. Hewitt of New York moved in the House, January 28, 1885, to take up the bill (H. R. 7366) to carry the treaty into effect. The House rejected the motion by yeas 80, nays 157. On the following day the bill was reached in its regular order and was rejected by yeas 105, nays 144. An arrangement was immediately made by President Arthur to extend the time for completing the treaty by one year. President Cleveland referred to the subject in his first annual message, December 8, 1885, thus:

"The lately concluded commercial treaty with Mexico still awaits the stipulated legislation to carry its provisions into effect, for which one year's additional time has been secured by a supplementary article signed in February last and since ratified on both sides. As this convention, so important to the commercial welfare of the two adjoining countries, has been Constitutionally confirmed by the treaty-making branch, I express the hope that legislation needed to make it effective may not be long delayed."

The year passed without action on the part of the House. A second extension of time till May 20, 1887, was arranged for by President Cleveland, but no action was ever taken by the House, and the treaty never went into effect. Now anybody may argue that the House ought to have passed the necessary legislation to make the treaty effective, but can anybody say that the treaty became the law of the land without such legislation? Senator Cullom made an able speech during the last session of Congress in support of the contention that the President and Senate, by the exercise of the treaty-making power, can bind the House in all cases whatsoever. If this is the true interpretation of the Constitution, then appropriations of money and changes in the revenue laws may be made without the consent of the House, and it is improper even to introduce a bill in the House for these purposes, since debating and voting always imply the right to reject as well as to adopt the measure. There was a heated debate in the House on the question of appropriating money to carry into effect the treaty for the purchase of Alaska. The bill was passed, however, not because the House had any doubts of its Constitutional power to refuse the money, but because Russia had rendered us a service in the crisis of the civil war, and it was deemed fitting to acknowledge her friendship in that manner.

With the rejection of the treaty by Denmark, however, this ceases to be a practical question.

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## *"THE NEWER HUMANITIES."*

"We must deal in college with the spirits of men, not with their fortunes," said President Woodrow Wilson of Princeton University last Friday, in an inaugural address distinguished both for breadth of philosophic vision and for grace of literary form. He thus takes his stand firmly for the humanistic and against the utilitarian ideal of education. But he is confident that this training of the intelligence is also that which fits a man as well for the winning of fortune and participation in the daily work of the world, as for the disinterested service of scholarship. "Learning is not divided," he insists. "Its kingdom and government are centred, unitary, single. The processes of instruction which fit a large body of young men to serve their generation with powers released and fit for great tasks, ought also to serve as the initial processes by which scholars and investigators are made. They ought to be but the first parts of the method by which the crude force of untrained men is reduced to the expert uses of civilization." Behind this high plea for a humanistic ideal lies the conviction that any lower ideal is less practical and less serviceable. It is salutary to have such a doctrine presented at a time when the latest tendency has been to make the college merely a preparatory stage to the professional school.

That this training is incomplete without the study of at least one ancient language and literature President Wilson is fully convinced; but he also believes that our own language and literature and a comprehensive study of one of the basal sciences are equally indispensable. Very happily, as President Wilson lays down the principles which should guide a liberal education, President Schurman of Cornell presents in his annual report an actual college course which has been worked out under the conditions most favorable for unhampered growth. Cornell started free from any ecclesiastical or narrowly academic tradition, and frankly committed herself to the elective system. Where other colleges hesitated, she assumed the equal value of studies, trusting the student to make for himself a curriculum in which *literæ humaniores* and science should be each duly regarded. Accordingly, the merits and defects of the elective system have had every chance to develop, and the average course at Cornell may be assumed to represent faithfully, if not the education which the American collegian should have, at least that which he prefers.

It is encouraging and a little surprising to find that he prefers very much the kind of course which President Wilson so eloquently advocates—that is, an education which prefers, broadly speaking, the humanities to the scientific and more utilitarian studies. The class of 1901 gave a tenth of its working time to the ancient languages, more than a third to the modern languages, upward of a fifth to history and politics, a tenth to philosophy, leaving one-fifth to natural sciences and mathematics. With all reserves for the misleading nature of these percentages, which undoubtedly cover many eccentric individual cases, there is no avoiding the inference that the preference of the American collegian is as markedly as ever for the humanities over the sciences—only, as President Schurman aptly observes, for the "newer humanities" rather than for the old; and it would be fair to add that students everywhere, and the more radical educators, see in the Cornell course, with its preponderance of modern languages and history, the ideal towards which they are reaching. For them the phrase "the newer humanities" will be a rallying cry.

But the education in the "newer humanities" must be considered not only in its present condition, but in its remoter effects, especially in its reaction upon the schools. For some years past about a third of the students admitted to the Cornell College of Arts have offered both Greek and Latin for admission, as against one-half who offered Latin, with either French or German. Yet, while all but an insignificant fraction of the Cornell freshmen have prepared for college in at least one ancient language, only one-tenth of the working time of the four collegiate years (less than a semester for each student) is given to Latin and Greek. It is evident that the schools which prepare for Cornell University will tend to teach the subjects that their students mean to continue in college, and the logical outcome would be an education which, from beginning to end, preferred the "newer humanities." In such a course Latin would assume a wholly minor position, while Greek would virtually disappear. Is the American college willing to see the old humanities put upon the basis of, say, Sanskrit, fluxions, or spectrum analysis?

Princeton for one is not, and it would be pleasant, did space permit, to reprint President Wilson's tribute to the liberating effect of literatures so unlike our own—so superior in poise and serenity. But this is not the place to fight again the never-ending battle of the ancients and moderns. It is sufficient to have pointed out that the liberal education of to-day shows no sign of rejecting the humanities in favor of natural science, and it may be well to recall that in Dante, Shakspere, Milton, Molière, Goethe, the student has not only a tolerable substitute for the ancient classics, but has, though at second hand and very partially, the ancient classics themselves, from whom the great moderns derived their chief inspiration. It is conceivable that Montaigne might mean to a modern what Cicero did to Montaigne. And yet there is always danger that the substitutes for the classics

may be cheap substitutes—not Montaigne for Cicero, but a smattering of De Quincey; not Molière for Aristophanes, but trivial plays of Scribe and Sardou; not Shakspere for Sophocles, but miracle-plays and moralities. This is the besetting peril of the new education. For this reason, while frankly admitting that the day is with the new humanities, we believe that the success of the new departure is bound up with the retention of the great culture language, Latin. It is needed as a standard of comparison, to steady the vision of literatures that are still perplexingly near us. A new education that does not give Latin a prominent position will infallibly fall short of a liberal education.

## ALFRED DE VIGNY.

PARIS, October 8, 1902.

Fashion rules even in intellectual matters. For some mysterious reason, impossible to analyze, a poet who for a very long time was much neglected and almost forgotten, Alfred de Vigny, has again come to the front and become the subject of a sort of posthumous admiration. M. Léon Séché has just given us a volume of nearly four hundred octavo pages with this long title: 'Alfred de Vigny and his Time, 1797-1863: His Maternal Origin, his Loves, his Literary Friendships, his Political Ideas, his Religion, with New and hitherto Unpublished Documents.' It is illustrated with a portrait of Alfred de Vigny, from a lithograph by Devéria; a portrait of the famous actress, Madame Dorval, with whom Vigny was in love for six years; and portraits of certain literary ladies of his time—Delphine Gay, Madame Desbordes-Valmore, a poetess who has also been lately treated to a sort of resurrection.

I confess to have been somewhat disappointed in M. Séché's work. I have found in it many documents of secondary value, and some which might as well have remained inedited. Vigny, poet and novelist, has already been the subject of exhaustive critical essays, and there is not much worth remembering or noticing in the "private man." "Restait," says M. Séché, "l'homme privé, en robe de chambre et en pantoufles." Montaigne has said that we should not "guetter les grandes hommes aux petites choses." Sainte-Beuve, it is quite true, created a method of criticism which constantly goes from the work to the worker, and which searches the inner life of the writer for the stimulants of his originality and his genius. He applied this method in his 'Port Royal' and in his famous "Lundis," a series which can be read a hundred times, and always to advantage. But it requires the skill of a Sainte-Beuve to use his method, which in other hands becomes tedious by the multiplicity of documents, many of which throw no light on the subject in view.

Taine modified Sainte-Beuve's procedure without changing its character; he places the writer in what he calls his *milieu*, and studies the influence of this environment, organic and inorganic, on the development of the writer's genius. This method has been made even more systematic by Taine's followers; and in the interesting collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" we see it carried *ad absurdum*, in so far as every criticism of the writer is written, so to speak, in slices, and the subject, interesting as it may be, is never taken as a whole. I must admit my preference for Sainte-Beuve, who mixes up artfully biography and literary criticism, who follows the development of a writer without dividing systematically the influences which race, time, history, and personal accidents have had upon him. Let us take, for example, since I am speaking of Alfred de Vigny, M. Paléologue's volume on this poet, which appeared in the collection of "Grands Écrivains Français." The summary of the different chapters will explain what I have just said: "Years of Youth and of Production," "The Soul and the Talent," "Conception of Life," "Pessimism," "Last Years," "The Man and the Work." This little volume is an excellent study, more artistic than many in the same collection. The author has not carried to excess the system of critical classification adopted generally in the collection; he has not given undue importance to many details which are found in M. Séché's large volume, but has applied himself chiefly to analyzing the character of Alfred de Vigny's poetical work. He has done it with a grace and delicacy which deserve much praise.

Alfred de Vigny was, in a sense, a creator: he introduced philosophy into the domain of poetry. Till 1836, when Lamartine published 'Jocelyn,' the poets did not leave the domain of the ode, the ballad, the drama. In 1822, long before Victor Hugo became a Romantic, Alfred de Vigny announced that he would undertake to show, in a series of small poems, "the migrations of the human soul through the ages." In one of his prefaces he says: "The only merit which has never been denied to these compositions is that of having been the first in France in which a philosophical thought was put on the scene in an epic or dramatic form." This pretension is not unfounded, and M. Paléologue can justly call Alfred de Vigny the creator of philosophical poetry in France.

Alfred de Vigny left to M. Louis Ratisbonne, his literary executor (who died only three years ago), all his manuscripts, and among others as many as eighty *cahiers*, in which the poet kept a diary during forty years. By Vigny's orders these portfolios were all destroyed; but several people had had access to them, and, among others, M. Paléologue and M. Léon Séché. A few fragments were even published in 1867, under the title of 'Journal of a Poet,' by M. Ratisbonne. M. Bégis, a collector of autographs, has communicated to M. Séché the letters written by Alfred de Vigny to Madame Dorval, and these letters are printed in his volume. The episode of their relations is the part of M. Séché's volume which will be read with most curiosity. The passion of Vigny for this great actress was but an incident in his life, but it throws much light upon the character of the poet. He was essentially a dreamer; he lived in the highest sphere of thought, almost always in solitude; and when he was by circumstances put in contact with realities, he saw them still through a veil. Madame Dorval became for a time his idol; but the idol whom he adored was very unlike the real woman. She became for a time his muse, but she never meant to live long on Parnassus.

M. Séché gives us the history of the youth of Marie Dorval. She was born in 1798, and was the child of two provincial dramatic artists; she was made to appear on the stage as a child, and followed her parents from Lorient to Strasbourg. In going through Paris she heard Talma in "Hamlet," and he made a great impression on her. She made her début in Paris in 1818, but became famous only in 1822, when she played in a drama called "Trente Ans, ou la Vie d'un Joueur." The great days of the Romantic drama were approaching. Alfred de Vigny had made his reputation in his lyrical poems, especially in "Éloa," which Théophile Gautier pronounced "the most perfect in our literature"; he had written an historical novel, 'Cinq-Mars,' in which he took great liberties with history, but which is a very living and dramatic picture of the time of Louis XIII. It was probably this novel which gave him the idea of writing dramas for the stage. He first tried his hand on a translation in verse of "Othello." Perhaps he was prompted to make this attempt by Lydia Bunbury, whom he married in 1828. "Othello" was represented at the French Theatre on the 29th of October, 1829. It was a great event; Classicists and Romantics fought a battle which ended in the victory of the Romantic school. Vigny's translation is timid; it is not perfect; but Heine wrote that "in this work M. de Vigny has gone more deeply than any of his predecessors into the genius of Shakspere." "Othello" was followed by "La Maréchale d'Ancre," the wife of Concini, which was played at the Odéon on July 25, 1831.

But Vigny's dramatic triumph was a play founded on the history of the unfortunate Chatterton. The part of Kitty Bell, who loved Chatterton, was played by Marie Dorval. She was, *par excellence*, the Romantic actress, intensely realistic, and the opposite of Mademoiselle Mars, who represented at the time the Classic school and the traditions of the French comedy. Alfred de Vigny fell in love with his interpreter. The contrast between them was very great. Vigny was very shy, though very proud; he possessed extreme sensibility, but much reserve. Madame Dorval was animated, expansive, and, let us say frankly, vulgar; but it was not without reason that the ancients represented Love as blind. Vigny paid court to Madame Dorval as he would have paid it to a queen. Has not Pascal said: "The longer the way in love, the more pleasure is felt by a delicate mind"? Madame Dorval was not so Platonic. She lost patience, after two years of courtship; and one fine evening she said to her timid suitor: "Well, M. de Vigny, don't you think it is time you should ask me to marry you?" Their liaison lasted about four years, and during this period Vigny wrote to his idol many letters which are now brought to light, and which had better not have been published. There remain some which, fortunately, have not been printed, but which are alluded to by M. Séché, and which, it seems, show to what degree of folly a lover can attain.

Mme. Dorval soon became tired of Vigny, and she gave him several rivals, one of them taken from the stage, where he afterwards became famous in the popular drama. She deceived Vigny even at the time when she was playing the part of Kitty Bell in Chatterton. After he had lost his

mistress, Vigny fell into a state of profound discouragement and pessimism. For a moment he thought that politics would be a distraction; he ran as Deputy after the Revolution of 1848, but was defeated. He hoped under the Empire to enter the Senate, but was not appointed. He became very misanthropic and religious, but his religion was austere and savored of Jansenism. He ended his life in a proud solitude, and died on September 17, 1863, from a cancer which made his last years a long agony.

# Correspondence.

## THE NEW RECIPROCITY TREATY WITH NEWFOUNDLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The news reached us to-day that Sir Robert Bond, the Premier of Newfoundland, has made a preliminary arrangement with the American Government, mainly on the lines of the Blaine-Bond treaty of 1900. It is a triumph for our Premier, and his unwearied perseverance deserves success. It will be remembered that Sir John A. Macdonald killed the former treaty just after its conclusion. It was a clever, unscrupulous political trick. The Canadian Premier, on the eve of an election, wanted the support of Nova Scotia and the Maritime Provinces, the portion of the Dominion most keenly interested in the fisheries, so he used his powerful influence with the Imperial Government to destroy Sir Robert Bond's work. Nothing ever angered Newfoundland against Canada so much as this nefarious attack on her rights as an independent colony. Sir John, however, could do as he liked with the British Ministry.

While we are still a long way from an actual treaty, the Senate having yet to be dealt with, the chances are strongly in favor of the confirmation of the Blaine-Bond treaty. To many, no doubt, one of the most attractive points about the new arrangement will be the hit at Canada. The real and solid basis for the treaty, however, is the mutual advantage to both Newfoundland and the States. Just at present the American fishermen have to bear a heavy burden, in license money, light dues, etc. A charge of $350 to $400 each season on a little schooner of about one hundred tons is a tremendous tax. Newfoundland has the whip hand, also, in the supply of bait, ice, transhipment supplies, etc. It is the nearest point to the fishing grounds, and far away the most convenient and profitable basis for carrying on the fishery. On the other hand, unlike Canada, she is not a rival; she does not compete either in manufactures or in agricultural produce. For over two centuries there has been a long, friendly intercourse between the two countries.

Looking at the subject in a plain, practical, common-sense way, one can see the reasonableness of allowing a great fish-producing country like our island to send its supply of food to its natural market, the great republic with its seventy millions, and the right of your people to obtain free food and untaxed fish. I have argued out the question already in former communications. The effect of the new treaty in Newfoundland will also be very beneficial. It will stimulate a fresh fish trade, now in its infancy. The supply of the finest salmon, lobster, turbot, caplin, herring, etc., is almost unlimited, and with cold storage these can all be sent in perfect condition to Boston and New York. The new situation will probably invite American enterprise for the exploitation of Newfoundland's immense mineral resources and the handling of fresh fish. Every reasonable man can see that the two countries will benefit by a free mutual exchange of their natural products, and that the breaking down of the absurd barriers of protection in this small way may have further beneficial results.

D. W. PROWSE.

ST. JOHN'S, October 18, 1902.

## CONGRESSIONAL REPRESENTATION IN SOUTH DAKOTA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There are two States in the Union to which have been apportioned more than one Representative in Congress, and which elect them by a general ticket. These States are Washington and South Dakota. Since the admission of South Dakota into the Union in 1889, that State has been entitled to two Federal Representatives, but at no time during that period has the commonwealth been divided into Congressional districts. Prior to 1842, the States elected their Congressmen as the several Legislatures thereof determined, sometimes by a general ticket throughout the State, again by districts, or by the State Legislature. The political complexion of the Legislature frequently determined the mode, and altered it oftentimes accordingly. But in 1842 the control of elections for Representatives to Congress was taken from the States, and a Federal Law enacted by Congress. That famous act declared: "That in every case where a State is entitled to more than one Representative, the number to which such State shall be entitled under this apportionment shall be elected by districts composed of contiguous territory, equal in number to the number of Representatives to which the said State may be entitled, no one district electing more than one Representative." Much opposition on the ground of unconstitutionality was raised against this law by New York and other States at that time. New Hampshire refused to accept and be governed by it until 1846. Since its enactment, the law has been operative, and has been regularly reaffirmed by all the various apportionment acts of Congress.

This Federal law is binding upon all States alike; were it not so, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois might have a solid Republican representation in Congress to-day. The question then arises: Why is not this wise provision in force as regards South Dakota? At first thought it might seem that the number of Representatives apportioned to South Dakota is so small as to furnish the excuse. But there are six other States with but two Representatives which nevertheless elect by districts. These States are Colorado, Florida, New Hampshire, Oregon, Rhode Island, and Vermont. States have been allowed to elect their Congressmen by general ticket when a new apportionment law has reduced their number of Representatives, and when a short period of time does not conveniently permit the assembling of the Legislature for the purpose of redistricting the State. If the new census increases the number of Representatives to which a State is entitled, that State may, when the Legislature neglects to redistrict, elect the additional Congressmen at large. But neither of these provisions affects the South Dakota situation, as its number of Representatives has never been increased nor lessened.

In the year 1890, during the early days of the first session of the State Legislature in South Dakota, the Senate introduced "A Bill for an Act to Provide for the Election of Representatives to Congress by Districts." The House committee, on the 18th of February, recommended that the bill be "indefinitely postponed," and it was. There are prospects that the question will be again considered at the next session of the Legislature.

The South Dakota deviation from the Federal law is frequently accounted for by the topography, varied interests, and Indian reservations in the State. The State may properly be said to be divided into three parts. East of the Missouri River are forty-four counties, the citizens of which are extensively engaged in agricultural pursuits. The population of this region is 341,753. Nine counties west of the river are organized, and extend along the western border of the State and eastward through the centre. In the Black Hills region of the west, mining is extensively carried on; gold is found there in such paying quantities as to make the State rank third in the Union for the output of this metal. The people in these nine counties number but 43,774. The remainder of the State, comprising most of the region immediately west of the river, consists of fifteen unorganized counties, together with two strips not included in any county. Most of this territory consists of Indian reservations. Great tracts of it are employed in cattle-raising. The whites are engaged in herding cattle and sheep on the ranches, where the native grass possesses as good fattening qualities as grain. The entire population of this third region of the State, with the Indian reservations, numbers but 16,043.

This uneven population and varied employment renders the task of districting the State especially difficult. The counties of the Black Hills regions would need to be joined with a part of the State east of the Missouri River. That district might then be said to resemble a dumb-bell, with the unorganized counties on each side of the handle, joining people of diverse occupations. There are no railroads crossing the Missouri in this State, and, consequently, the territory of the western district would be completely severed; geographically it might be joined, but socially and commercially it would be anything but compact. The need of a railroad through the State, as a means of developing the natural resources, is pressing. South Dakota is the only State in the Union not crossed from east to west by a railroad. Rumors are afloat that the Missouri will soon be bridged. But this improvement is not so imperative now as it would be if the State were districted, as indicated above. At present the State is a unit in all its elections. Dissatisfaction would surely prevail in the western district formed as above. The mining interests and the ranchmen would fail to agree. There would be a continual scramble for office between these disjointed parts of the one district. As now tacitly agreed to, the older

part of the State is given the Senators and the newer sections the Representatives, and thus harmony is maintained throughout the commonwealth.

South Dakota has been so long without Congressional districts that many leaders in the State have concluded that the question of districting rests entirely with the State. They are supported in this view by section 1, article xix, of the State Constitution, which was framed at Sioux Falls in September, 1885, and adopted by the Territory in 1889 when it became a State. The reading of that instrument is: "Until otherwise provided by law, the members of the House of Representatives of the United States apportioned to this State shall be elected by the State at large." Whatever may be said about the failure to form Congressional districts in South Dakota, the omission should all be charged up to Congress. That body acts on the question of eligibility of its own members, and, if not properly elected, the House should refuse them seats in the United States Congress. But both parties, when in a majority in the House of Representatives, have seated the two Representatives from South Dakota, although they were not elected by districts in accordance with the national law of 1842.

The State of Washington since 1892 has been allowed to elect its two Congressmen at large. The new census permits that commonwealth to elect three, and at the approaching election each voter in the State will be allowed to vote for three Congressmen. It is understood that Washington will be districted for the first time by the Legislature which will be convened immediately after the fall election.

ELMER C. GRIFFITH.

YANKTON COLLEGE, S. D., October 20, 1902.

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CHRIST IN 'THE SCARLET LETTER.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to the writer that in Mr. George E. Woodberry's 'Nathaniel Hawthorne' we may fairly be said to have the most adequately interpretative word yet uttered concerning the work of America's great romancer. But, this being granted, it yet remains true that Mr. Woodberry is a Massachusetts man, and that the fact has to a certain extent colored his estimate of 'The Scarlet Letter.' He says:

"In the scheme of Puritan thought . . . the atonement of Christ is the perpetual miracle whereby salvation comes not only hereafter, but in the holier life led here by grace. There is no Christ in this book. . . . Is it too much to suggest that, in ignoring . . . the atonement of Christ, and the work of the Spirit in men's hearts, the better part of Puritanism has been left out, and the whole life of the soul distorted?"

Now the circumstance noted by Mr. Woodberry that there is no Christ in the 'Scarlet Letter,' only makes the story (in the judgment of the writer) the more thoroughly and intimately Puritan. Looked at closely, Puritanism itself was without Christ. It was in fact, whatever it may have been in scheme, a reinauguration of Judaism—of the Old Testament. Its sermons, its writings, its laws, and its conduct, all were of the dispensation of Moses. Christ came into New England only in so far as Roger Williams came into it, for with the latter there came that largeness and tolerance which were essential marks of Christ. Indeed, Williams at the time of his controversy with John Cotton found it necessary to point out that, were Christ then to set foot in Massachusetts, he (so thoroughly was New England Judaized) would in all probability be banished or put to death.

But it is the opinion of the writer that the real reason there is no Christ in 'The Scarlet Letter' is not so much that Puritanism was without Christ as that Christ (in the sense of the tenets of dogmatic Christianity) is not essential to the purposes of the book. The story sets out to portray the effects of guilt upon the human soul, and these effects—supervening as they do under conditions almost purely naturalistic—serve to impress the truth that guilt (Christianity or no Christianity) is a thing real, terrible, and escapable (in so far as it is escapable at all) only in one way—through confession. IRVING B. RICHMAN.

MUSCATINE, IOWA, October 17, 1902.

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# Notes.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'Bookbinders and their Craft,' by Miss S. T. Prideaux, in a limited edition, and 'A Literary History of Persia from the Earliest Times until Firdawsi,' by Edward G. Brown, lecturer in Persian at the University of Cambridge.

The 'Poems You Ought to Know,' which have been running for some time in the Chicago *Tribune*, are being gathered into a book with the imprint of the Jamieson-Higgins Co., of that city.

The 'History of John Decastro' and his brother Bat, commonly called Old Crab, is to be reprinted by the Irwin Press of Pittsburgh, Pa., nearly a century after its first appearance in London and Boston in 1815.

The Century Company adds to its pretty series of booklets in Elzevir form Tennyson's 'In Memoriam,' with an introduction from the 'Victorian Poets' of E. C. Stedman; 'Selections from the Thoughts of Pascal,' translated by Benjamin E. Smith; Sheridan's 'The Rivals,' with an introduction from the Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson. These little volumes are bound in stamped leather and contain each a portrait of its author.

A very pretty rubricated title-page has been devised by Messrs. Scribner for a handy edition of Stevenson's 'An Inland Voyage'; the cover is less well conceived. The letterpress is bold and handsome, and a few photographs of scenery and buildings, by James B. Carrington, enhance the value of the text.

In the decoration accorded by Dodd, Mead & Co. to their new edition of Mr. Mabie's 'Under the Trees,' there is also a good title-page, with figures, and several plates in the same vein, by C. L. Hinton, whose work is graceful if not strong. The greenish border designs—continuous, not repetitious—from the same hand, appear to us an excess of illustration. They cast, if we may pervert the poet a little, the author's thought in a green shade.

Mr. Mabie furnishes an introduction for 'A Book of Old English Ballads, with an Accompaniment of Decorative Drawings,' by George Wharton Edwards; and as he has something to say about the neglect of chronological arrangement, he seems to have had some hand in the selection. This opens with "Chevy Chace," and includes "King Cophetua and the Beggar Maid," "Barbara Allen," three of the Robin Hood series, "The Twa Corbies," "The Nut-Brown Maid," "Sir Patrick Spens," with twice as many more. Some of Mr. Wharton's headpieces are felicitous and truly decorative; the full-page pen-drawings, on the contrary, are ineffectual, and contrast unfortunately with the print of the ballads themselves. The defect extends to the cover in red and green.

The introduction to Mr. Joseph B. Gilder's 'The American Idea as Expounded by American Statesmen' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is from the pen of Mr. Carnegie. It takes a hopeful view of our democracy in spite of what he hopes is the temporary aberration from American first principles since "our late President was swept, against his own ardent wish and better judgment, into a departure from the policy of the Fathers of the Republic." Mr. McKinley's last speech is one of the seventeen documents in this collection, beginning with the Declaration of Independence. Washington, John Quincy Adams (in "the Monroe Doctrine"), Lincoln, Webster, Lowell on Democracy, Cleveland, Hoar on free speech, are some of the historic expounders here brought together.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. have launched a series of 16mo reprints, "The Commonwealth Library," inexpensively got up, but clear of print, including thus far the Lewis and Clark already noticed, in three volumes, and now Alexander Mackenzie's 'Voyages from Montreal to the Frozen and Pacific Oceans (1789 and 1793),' in two volumes, with a portrait of the author, and Matthew Arnold's 'Literature and Dogma,' also with a portrait.

The "Little Masterpieces of Science" published by Doubleday, Page & Co. under the editorship of Mr. George Iles form a set of six pocket volumes in plain attire, labelled respectively 'Mind,' 'Explorers,' 'The Naturalist,' 'Skies and Earth' (astronomy and geology), 'Health and Healing,' and 'Invention and Discovery.' The general title proves to be a misnomer, for while there are numerous extracts from the writings of well-known scientists of high and sometimes of the first order, none of these deserves the style of "masterpiece," as few fragments could. But mixed up with these textual quotations we have much popularizing of science in articles by Mr. Iles himself and by others possessed of greater scientific training, but still not first-hand authorities. The series will be useful, but it is too pretentious.

Without commenting on them in detail, we can recommend to teachers both Prof. J. M. Hart's 'Essentials of Prose Composition' (Philadelphia: Eldredge & Bro.) and the third book of Gardiner, Kittredge and Arnold's 'The Mother Tongue: Elements of English Composition' (Boston: Ginn & Co.). Each abounds in illustrations of style, which are given more at length in the second and larger work. Professor Hart again displays his fondness for Hawthorne as an exemplar. The triple authors add supplementary exercises and exhibitions of common errors, with a glance at punctuation and a chapter on English prosody.

Few recent diplomatic episodes have caused more discussion than the alliance of Italy with Prussia before and during the

war of 1866. Many attempts have been made to convict the Italian Government, and especially its head, Gen. La Marmora, of lack of faith towards Prussia. The negotiations have just been reviewed from first to last in Senator Luigi Chiala's 'Ancora un Po' Più di Luce sugli Eventi Politici e Militari dell' Anno 1866' (Florence: Barbèra), a work which seems to exhaust the subject. Written with Senator Chiala's characteristic frankness, it presents many important inedited letters, besides his inside knowledge of the transactions, and the impressions which his intimacy with many of the leading Italian public men enabled him to form at first hand. He has effectually silenced Bernhardi and other accusers, and he has confirmed Bismarck's statement that Italy behaved loyally in all her dealings with Prussia. Incidentally, the book is indispensable for any one who wishes to understand the diplomacy which made Prussia mistress of Central Europe and undermined Napoleon III.

The *Annals* of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, volume 38, is devoted to a "Discussion of Variable Stars in the cluster ω Centauri," by Solon I. Bailey. This is the first portion of an elaborate study of variable stars in clusters undertaken by Professor Bailey. In all, 19,050 stars have been examined, and the area covered by the examination is 5.8 square degrees. The area in which variables were actually found, however, was only 1.4 square degrees, and the remarkable announcement is made that, in a region covering only one thirty-thousandth part of the whole sky, have been found more than five hundred variables, nearly as many as are known to exist in the remaining region. It also appears that in one cluster, Messier 3, one star in seven is variable, while in other clusters there is only one in five hundred. The volume is made up of several chapters in which are described the sequences of comparison stars, observations of the variables, the elements of the variables, and a detailed study of four variables. There are numerous reproductions of photographs of clusters showing variables, and six plates showing light curves.

The diamond and carbon product of Bahia is decreasing, writes H. W. Furniss in the Consular Reports for October, notwithstanding fabulous wealth awaits development—simply from lack of intelligence. "In my trip, which included the greater part of the diamond section, . . . . I could not find or hear of a person or company working with modern machinery or tools or using modern methods." The absence in Berlin of that cloud of dusty smoke so frequently observed in our cities is due to three facts, according to Consul-General Mason: "The preponderant use of coke and briquettes, which are practically smokeless; the skilful scientific construction of boiler furnaces and chimneys; and, finally, the high standard of skill that is taught and enforced among firemen who stoke furnaces with coal for steam and manufacturing purposes. It is not every strapping laborer who can shovel coal who is permitted to stoke a boiler furnace in this country. Before he can assume such a charge he must be taught the theory and practice of economical, scientific firing, by which the coal is distributed in such manner and quantity over the grate surface as to secure the most perfect combustion of its volatile elements."

In the *Geographical Journal* for October is an account by Oscar Neumann of his journey through southern Ethiopia to the Sudan, one of the most interesting parts of Africa yet to be explored. In the course of it he passed through five different zoölogical regions and "was able to collect more than 1,000 specimens of mammals belonging to about 140 different species," of which sixteen are new. This is the greatest zoölogical collection which has ever come to Europe from Africa at one time. He found a curious system of fortification prevailing in certain South Ethiopian kingdoms. "Where the countries are not bounded by high mountain chains, difficult to cross, they are surrounded by deep ditches and strong fences, which can only be passed by means of a guarded gate." In the capital of one of these kingdoms there was a Thursday market which "is visited by nearly twenty to thirty thousand persons." The address of Sir T. H. Holdich at the Belfast meeting of the British Association on "Some Geographical Problems" was a strong plea for better geographical education in England. It needed the bitter experience of the South African war to teach English administrators and English generals what the United States, Germany, Russia, and France have long known and acted upon, that "the cheapest, the quickest, the surest, indeed, the only satisfactory method of regulating the progression of public works, the development of commerce, the proper recognition of the frontier boundaries, the administration of justice, and the military control of a large and growing colony, or of a long stretch of military frontier, is to be armed with a perfect summary of what that country contains in the shape of a geographical map." He stated that, in order to secure a "definite understanding about the meaning of geographical terms," the Royal Geographical Society had in preparation a geographical dictionary, and he expressed the wish that there might be "homogeneity in spelling." An illustration of the need of this is to be found in this number of the *Journal*. In the text the capital of Abyssinia is always Adis Abeba, on the map it is Addis Abbaba.

The principal articles in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 9, are on the earthquake in Guatemala on April 18, 1902, by Dr. Karl Sapper, and on the place names of the Eskimo of Smith's Sound, by Dr. Robert Stein, with an accompanying map. Stein embodies the results of his investigations during a two years' residence in the Sound region. His linguistic studies have led him to the conclusion that the Eskimo have not long, relatively, inhabited the Greenland coast, but are emigrants from the west. Through increase of intercourse with the world, they are fast losing their old traditions and folk-lore, some of which, in the form of ballads, he has collected. He praises the English and American explorers for their brilliant achievements, but adds that, "from the lack of phonetic analysis," they have written the Eskimo place names in a manner which he characterizes as "ein wahrer Gräuel."

Dr. Karl Dziatzko, head librarian of the University of Göttingen, has recently extensively investigated the question whether, in the ancient world of literature, there existed anything like copyright. The problem was forced upon his attention by the recent large papyrus finds, there being already three hundred of these containing portions of Homer alone. The supplement to the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 193, reporting on these researches, states that, as might have been expected, no such right existed in the ancient world on anything like the scale of the modern. No law has been found protecting the rights of the writer, no matter in which of the two ways his books were multiplied, by the book-trader or by private enterprise. Everybody could have copies of any work prepared at his own pleasure. One restriction, however, was discovered, to the effect that he who, against an author's will, was the first to offer a book for sale, could be subjected to the process "injuriarum actio." But, after copies had once been made and circulated, then the special right of the author came to an end. Sometimes an author would make changes in his books in order to render it impossible for dealers to sell their unrevised copies. Another peculiarity of ancient publication methods was the fact that such a thing as the circulation of a writing privately, or, as the Germans say, as "manuscript," was unknown. Even works written for private circles at once became public property—which worked mischief to certain authors under the tyranny of several Roman Emperors.

The issue and continued maintenance of the *Japan Register*, a bi-lingual magazine published semi-monthly in Tokio, which has reached its third volume, recalls attention to the important question whether the Japanese—to say nothing of the Chinese—will ever give up their ideographic writing and adopt Romaji, or Roman script. The distinguished barrister-at-law, Mr. Masujima, conducts the *Japan Register*, which, in English and Sinico-Japanese (that is, in mixed Chinese square character and the *kana* script), discusses events and themes of contemporaneous interest most congenial to literary and scholarly people. There is certainly no sign that the Japanese will give up their ideographs within this present century, at least. In adopting Occidental civilization, they have put their Sinico-Japanese style and script to a severe test which has been most creditably borne. Called to express to an Oriental people the thoughts elaborated by European minds during many centuries, it has shown aptitudes undreamed of. It is not only an instrument of enormous merits, enabling a Japanese to express every shade of meaning from the columns of a European newspaper, but its use during more than fifty years' contact with the modern West has demonstrated the enormous capabilities of the Japanese language. "The existing written language of Japan is immensely superior to colloquial Japanese as a terse and precise instrument of thought," because to the native phonetic, or rather syllabic, script and "hooks and eyes" of speech it joins the Chinese ideographs, which are almost matchless for the tone and shadings of thought. The Japanese portion of Mr. Masujima's *Register* shows how much can be done in the simplification of the written style and in blending the classical and the colloquial, which are now the particular and pressing problems to be solved. The articles, editorials, critiques, and translations are of excellent selection and proportion. (The publica-

tion office is No. 14 Yamashita, Cho, Yokohama.)

One of the chief purposes in the organization of the International Association of Academies of Sciences, effected about two years ago, was to furnish a medium through which an international exchange of manuscripts for scholarly research could be brought about. The Royal Academy of Sciences in Madrid, although invited to membership in the new association, did not respond, and important literary documents from Spain are accordingly still almost inaccessible to foreigners. Now, however, the Government has itself taken steps to meet the wishes of scholars in this regard, and has recently issued to all of the great libraries of Spain a detailed set of rules and regulations controlling such an exchange of literary treasures with foreign countries. These make it possible for scholars of other lands to secure any manuscripts and other documents from Spanish collections save those of exceptional value; but this permission is confined to countries which extend similar courtesies to Spanish scholars, and the borrower is also compelled to make a money deposit, the amount of which is to be determined by the director of the library from which the loan is made.

We have received from Messrs. C. F. Libbie & Co., Boston, the catalogue of a remarkable collection of books in American genealogy and New England history which on November 11 and following will be sold for the estate of our old associate, the late William H. Whitmore. Of the nearly three thousand items, which include books, pamphlets, maps, broadsides, and historical portraits and views, we can now enumerate only the original manuscript passenger-list, containing forty-one names, of the *Speedwell*, endorsed by Gov. Endicott: "These were Landed in Boston in N. E. the 27th of ye 6 moneth 1656, J. E."; a great number of New England chap books, twenty-nine editions of "Mother Goose," including the earlier and rarer issues (one of Mr. Whitmore's numerous diversions); and a series of mezzotints by the eighteenth-century engraver Pelham, who is said to have been the first artist and engraver in America and one of Copley's masters. Genealogies predominate, but the collection of Bostoniana is of exceptional richness, as might have been expected from a leading founder of the Bostonian Society.

—It is a far call from Chevy Chace to Lexington, from Harry Hotspur to the officer whom Halleck, by a curious slip, called a "younger son," a "Major of Dragoons"; from the Percy of romance to the Percy of the days of George III. The letters of this latter, rightly named Hugh, Earl Percy, written in America between April, 1774, and November, 1776, have lately been published by Charles E. Goodspeed, Boston. The volume is beautifully printed, perhaps even too much so, since the result is a high price for a thin book of eighty pages of letters which, though interesting, are by no means of great importance. They are carefully edited by Charles K. Bolton, Librarian of the Boston Athenæum. The old Duke of Northumberland, father of the writer, was a strong opponent of the Ministry and its measures and treatment of the American Colonies. His son, the writer, was, above all, a soldier devoted to his profession and desirous of success and advancement in it. The letters relate principally to affairs of the time, but it is pleasant in one of the earliest to find a tribute to the great charm of New England independent of all time. On July 27, 1774, Percy writes: "With regard to the climate, it is ten times more inconstant than in England." His admiration of the country about Boston is expressed in words strong enough to satisfy the most devoted friend of her Park system of to-day. His views with regard to public men and measures are those of an intelligent but prejudiced young aristocrat. He could see no good in the leaders of American sentiment or in the people in general: "They have not the least Idea of either Religion or Morality." On April 20, 1775, after meeting the Rebels, he had learned that "whoever looks upon them as an irregular mob, will find himself much mistaken." The letters contain short accounts of the day of Lexington and Concord, and of the battles of Bunker Hill, Long Island, and White Plains, in all of which, except Bunker Hill, Percy took an active part. The letters were well worth printing, though their interest is largely due to the personality of the writer.

—The reverence which is felt for the memory of Father Marquette has of late years been illustrated in many ways. Sculpture has been invoked to commemorate his services, and his deeds are thus recorded in national centres like Washington and Chicago. His daring and sincerity have also been recalled in many public addresses. While Michigan and Wisconsin seem to owe a special debt of gratitude, the sense of recognition is widespread among other States of the Middle West, and may be expected to appear at any time. Under these circumstances, the public is likely to welcome the short biographical sketch entitled 'Father Marquette,' that has recently been published by Mr. R. G. Thwaites (Appletons). It is the work of one who has long been perfectly familiar with the geographical explorations and the missionary services of the Jesuits, besides having shown a special interest in the career of Marquette. A sufficient account of the Indians, the Jesuits, and Marquette's companions is given, but the book is a real biography, and centres in the deeds of the Father himself. As between Marquette and Joliet, Mr. Thwaites finds it impossible to do more than divide the praise of discovering the Mississippi; but he will not admit that the merits of the priest fall below those of the civilian. Marquette, too, it was who left the record. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen. Among others is the reputed portrait that was discovered in Montreal five years ago. If we ever had any doubt in the matter, we must now express a strong individual opinion against the authenticity of this picture. An account of its discovery will be found in volume 71 of the 'Jesuit Relations' (p. 400). In conclusion, we may quote Mr. Thwaites's final estimate of Marquette: "Others of his order, in America, were doubtless greater than he, suffered more acutely, spent more years in the service; but popular imagination in America has perhaps more generally centred upon the hero of this tale than upon any of his fellows. He was, in truth, a man of action as well as of ideas; a true explorer as well as a scholastic; a rare linguist; a preacher of undoubted capacity; gifted with unusual powers of mastery over the minds of fierce savages; and his saintly character will long remain an inspiration to men of every creed and calling."

—We have received a reprint of Mr. Hubert Hall's 'Court Life under the Plantagenets' (Dutton), which was originally published in London twelve years ago. In some ways this book reminds one of "The Merchant and the Friar,' by Sir Francis Palgrave, wherein Marco Polo is brought to England and made to converse with Roger Bacon on topics of public interest. Mr. Hall's 'Court Life' is less conversational than the 'Merchant and the Friar,' but in both cases an attempt is made to render popular the study of mediæval life. The English Constitution, under several of its aspects, is also a subject which both books have in common, although the action of the one is laid in the twelfth century and that of the other in the thirteenth. Mr. Hall's book being already well known, we need not criticise it at any length. On the whole, it is inferior to 'The Merchant and the Friar' in sprightliness, and it has the further misfortune of being so written that it does not exactly suit the demands of specialists. Mr. Hall knows a great deal about the working of the Exchequer and other matters connected with the administrative system of the Plantagenets, and he has also a marked sympathy for the social side of the national life. In this book, however, he is not technical enough for the student of constitutional detail, and not light enough in touch for those who are fond of historical novels. Still, we must not drop out of sight Mr. Hall's precise aim. "I have attempted in this book," he says, "nothing less than the delineation of living characters and the description of existing institutions at a given period of a typical reign." The design is ambitious, and even though success may be but partial, the attempt was worth making. We must also add with emphasis that this book contains a great deal of curious information, and may be used by the judicious teacher to qualify the dryness of lectures on constitutional history.

—The reader of Dr. Karl Federn's 'Dante and his Time' (McClure, Phillips & Co.) will probably be surprised, and take it for a hopeful sign, that such a book should have been made in Germany, for it presents the results of much study not in the form of the heavy dissertation dear to German scholars and their disciples, but in a series of popular essays, which are readable throughout and often abound in striking suggestions. Dr. Federn attempts to reconstruct the world into which Dante was born in 1265, its political, religious, and social conditions, and the immediate history of Florence. He traces the decay of the antique and the coming of the mediæval ideals, the conflict between Church and State, the rise of modern poetry; and, being a German, he emphasizes, perhaps unduly, the Germanic elements in the new order which superseded the ancient. It is important to have this side properly presented, although we may not accept all the conclusions which Dr. Federn reaches. To claim Dante as of Germanic origin on the assumption that *Alighieri* is simply the Italian for the old German *Aldiger*—which itself "has about the same significance as the word *Shakespeare*, meaning 'the ruler

of the spear'"—is fanciful. Whatever Dante's remote ancestors may have been, he is the most *un*-German master in literature. But this is a slight point, which we cite merely to show the possible eccentricity of a pro-German treatment of the subject. In the last third of the book, Dr. Federn gives a summary biography of Dante and a criticism of his work. Here, also, there is much to commend—enthusiasm, opinions formed at first hand, flashes of insight. Dr. Federn does not dissect a literary cadaver, but tries to impart to his readers what a living force he has found in Dante. He writes most convincingly when he is least "psychological"; witness his statement that, as "there are things which nobody can paint without having gone through," Dante could never have described "the sinful love of Francesca and Paolo so touchingly" if he had not been guilty of the like himself! We shudder to think of the crimes which, by the same wonderful psychological law, Shakspere must have committed before he could draw Lady Macbeth and Macbeth, Iago and Iachimo, and the other villains of his plays. But, to sum up, the general drift of Dr. Federn's book is so interesting that it can be honestly recommended. There are few Dante-lovers so learned that they will not find in it some fresh suggestions; and the average reader will derive from it much valuable information, clothed in a vivacious style.

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POOR-LAW RELIEF IN ENGLAND.—I.

*Public Relief of the Poor.* Six Lectures, by Thomas Mackay. London: John Murray. 1901.

*The Early History of English Poor-Relief.* By E. M. Leonard. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press. 1900.

Mr. Mackay's 'Public Relief of the Poor' is a work of extraordinary power which raises questions of general and urgent importance.

"Death and sickness," writes our author, "are inevitable incidents in human life, but destitution is economically avoidable. Its avoidance depends on two things: the quickened economic competence of our industrial population, and the relaxation of the primitive feudal status of servitude which, as the pauper habit, lingers in our midst, arresting progress and development."

These sentences contain the fundamental principles on which Mr. Mackay's criticism and history—and the two go hand in hand—of the English poor-law are based; and the powerfulness of his reasoning consists in the intellectual tenacity with which he adheres to these elementary truths, and the skill with which he shows that they in reality afford the key to the historical, social, and political problems raised by the confused growth and the inadequate reform of the scheme for the relief of the poor which has existed in England since the days of Elizabeth. Let it be added that Mr. Mackay is no *à-priori* theorist. He is thoroughly well grounded in the history and the literature of his subject. Nothing shows this better than the relation of his teaching to Miss E. N. Leonard's 'Early History of English Poor-Relief.' This lady, whose industry in research is more fully developed than her capacity for logical reasoning, would, we conceive, dissent from the conclusions and be opposed to the tone of Mr. Mackay's book. Yet the interesting facts ascertained by Miss Leonard's labors afford additional proof of the truth of Mr. Mackay's doctrine, namely, that, under the conditions of modern society, the only mode of affording real relief to the poor is to render every man competent to support himself, and thus, instead of pampering paupers, abolish pauperism.

The effect and nature of this doctrine are best illustrated, as its truth is also established, by insisting on two or three conclusions to which it inevitably leads. First, the legislation of Elizabeth, which is embodied in the Poor-Relief Act, 1601, 43 Eliz. c. 4 (which itself, as Miss Leonard points out, is little more than a reënactment of a statute of 1597), is placed in a new light. The Poor-Law statute of 1601 (which should be read together with the Statute of Charitable Uses, 43 Eliz. c. 4) was a deliberate attempt of English statesmanship to mitigate the sufferings of the poor, and constituted a philanthropic, but also in its essence a reactionary, effort to check the growth of the new organization of society which was based on personal liberty, on freedom of contract, and on free exchange of services. The act of 1601 was, in short, a return towards the principles of gradually expiring feudalism. Laborers were, when necessary, to be provided with work and with wages, but laborers were also deprived of the freedom to move from one place to another so as to sell their labor at the best advantage. In so far as the principles of the Elizabethan poor-law were put into effect, the working classes might be secured against starvation, but they were deprived of freedom. By the Law of Settlement, English laborers became again *adscripti glebæ*. No doubt the stringency of the Law of Settlement arises directly from the Poor-Relief Act of 1662, but the detestable law of Charles II. only carried out to its logical result a principle involved in the legislation of Elizabeth, and if the poor-law did not produce anything like the whole of its calamitous results till sixty years after the death of the great Queen, the reason is that the law was for a long time most imperfectly carried out. It is here that Miss Leonard strengthens the position of Mr. Mackay. She proves that the constant effort of the central Government, represented by the Privy Council, was needed in order to make the poor-law become a reality. It is no accident that Charles I. and his advisers were zealous in the enforcement of the poor-law, or, as Miss Leonard expresses it, "that these infringers of individual liberties were also, in intention at least, the protectors of the poor"; benevolent communism is the natural ally of political despotism.

It is worth while to insist on the true character of the Elizabethan poor-law because, for reasons fully explained by Mr. Mackay, even the reformers of 1834 were tempted to argue that, had the act of 1601 been "strictly interpreted," reform would have been unnecessary. This was a delusion. The act never was "strictly" interpreted. The idea on which it partially rested, that a workhouse could be turned into a place where real and profitable work was done, has been shown, not only by argument, but by experiment, to be erroneous. Support by the parish was, as already pointed out, found to involve a law of settlement fatal to the free exchange of labor. Parochial aid destroyed among the poor the sense of personal responsibility for their own support, and checked among the rich the natural impulses of personal, and therefore salutary benevolence; and the worst and necessary result of the English system of poor relief is that pauperism became, and still in spite of all reforms remains, for a large portion of the population, a recognized status. The evils of this state of things may be estimated by two facts. When an Act of George III. repealed the worst provisions of the statute of Charles II., and thereby restored something like personal liberty to the English laboring classes, it was found that the spirit of pauperism had become too strong to permit the free exchange of labor. Scotland, again, possessed a poor-law much like that of England, but the Scotch people were not pauperized. The reason is, that the central Government was not strong enough to enforce the law, and it remained more or less a dead-letter.

Secondly, the "New Poor-Law" of 1834 achieved a great and rapid success. It abolished the outdoor relief of able-bodied workmen, and this abolition of a monstrous abuse was enough to save England from destruction. The true glory of the Whig leaders is not that they carried the great Reform Act which, though it benefited the nation, promised the Whigs a long lease of power, but that they deliberately sacrificed their own popularity for the sake of carrying through a social reform which saved the country. The principles, indeed, on which the English poor-law was partially reformed were thought out and enunciated by Bentham and his school, but the Whigs of 1834 did what few statesmen have done either before or since their time: they carried out, though only to a limited extent, a reform demanded by the best thinkers of the day, though it was opposed to the popular sentiment of the time. On this matter it is unnecessary to say much; whoever doubts the necessity for the reforms embodied in the New Poor-Law should study Mr. Mackay's fourth chapter, or, what is even better, the report of 1834 on which the Poor-Law Amendment Act of that year is founded.

Thirdly, the new poor-law, though excellent as far as it went, aimed at but a very limited reform, and was never allowed to produce the full effect intended by its authors. This is a point on which Mr. Mackay most rightly lays great stress. The violence with which the act of 1834 was attacked has given rise to the belief that it was a drastic measure of thoroughgoing reform, whence the inference is suggested that, if England still suffers from pauperism, we may assume that, in some way or other, the principles advocated by the social reformers of 1834 were unsound. No idea could be more utterly groundless. The plain truth is, that popular opposition has always made it impossible to carry through any thoroughgoing reform of the poor-law. The Commissioners who drew up the report of 1834 no doubt soon came to the perfectly sound conclusion that to propose the abolition of the poor-law was absolutely impossible. They, again, or at any rate the Parliament which in the main acted on the Commissioners' report, did not venture on the absolute abolition of outdoor relief. What was really done was to

offer relief to able-bodied persons on such terms as it was improbable that any man capable of supporting himself by work would accept. To carry this amendment of the law into effect was difficult enough. Sentimentalists and reactionists, supported by a large amount of popular feeling, denounced the use of the so-called "workhouse test," which was the essential feature of the plan proposed by the Commissioners, and to this day sentimentalists and reactionists are still opposed to that complete abolition of outdoor relief which it seems clear enough that the reformers of 1834 contemplated as the ultimate result of their new system. They apparently hoped that one Board of Guardians after another would, acting on the suggestions of the central authority constituted by the act, see the expediency of gradually abolishing a form of relief which in the long run is at once demoralizing and expensive. This expectation has not been fulfilled. Its fulfilment, indeed, was hardly to be expected by any one who thoroughly understood the character of the local bodies by which the English poor-law has been administered. True it is that the abolition of outdoor relief would lighten the pressure of the rates, and would in the long run be of the highest benefit to the poor. But it is also true that the immediate effect of refusing (say) five shillings a week to a widow who, if she remains outside the house, can earn an additional five shillings, and thereby do something to support herself and her children, is in the first instance to increase the charge upon the parish, and also to act with apparent harshness to a person who hates going into the workhouse, and is willing to do the best she can in the way of contributing towards the support of herself and her family.

Now there can be nothing more certain than that English guardians will be much impressed by the immediate effects and not be impressed at all by the ultimate and distant results of their conduct. It is just possible, though not certain, that a body of officials and trained experts living in London might have carried through the policy, and, as any one who reads Mr. Mackay's book will feel convinced, the very salutary policy, of altogether abolishing outdoor relief. But no human being can believe that Poor-Law Guardians would ever have systematically carried out a course of action which, while it appeared to them extravagant, was also opposed to their feelings of humanity. If it was intended to abolish outdoor relief, and thus at any rate go near to abolishing pauperism, the administration of the poor-law ought to have been placed in the hands of some central authority endowed with the power and representing the wisdom of the nation. Small local bodies are not fitted to carry through large national reforms. This, at any rate, is the inference irresistibly suggested by Mr. Mackay's account of the results flowing from the measure of 1834. That the reform, imperfect as it was, achieved the great results which may fairly be attributed to it, is, to a thoughtful reader, a matter of astonishment. That a reform which fell far below what its authors felt was required by the necessities of the time, and which was so opposed to popular feeling that it was never fully carried out, did not get rid of pauperism created by centuries of injudicious legislation, excites great regret, but can excite no surprise. The true nature of the legislation of Elizabeth, the results of the old poor-law, the failures no less than the success attributable to the reform of 1834, all point to one and the same conclusion, that pauperism is, as Mr. Mackay teaches, an evil which is avoidable and which, as it has been fostered by the errors, can, conceivably at least, be removed by the wisdom of legislators.

## BARBARIAN INVASIONS OF ITALY.

*The Barbarian Invasions of Italy.* By Pasquale Villari. Translated by Linda Villari. With frontispiece and maps. 2 volumes, pp. 231, 238. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The attention of Signor Villari, which seems of late to have been diverted from the times of Savonarola and Machiavelli, is now occupied with the origins of modern Italy. To his book on the first two centuries of Florence there succeeds a sketch of the barbarian invasions in so far as they affected Italy from the coming of the Visigoths to the coronation of Charlemagne. This is expressly designed to be a popular work, and, though the process of translation has cut it in two, it is really complete in one volume. Footnotes are of rare occurrence, and the style, while it is by no means infantile, is adapted to the taste of those who are not scholars. Indeed, Signor Villari holds strong views on the subject of historical composition. Admitting that research has made great progress since the establishment of the national kingdom, he nevertheless laments the loss of books "supplying narratives of past events in a simple, easy, readable style, such as abounded formerly in Italy, and served as models to other countries. . . . Yet, undeniably, the true object of ransacking the national archives is to assist the production of narratives suited for the general mass of readers."

Impressed by this deficiency of Italian literature, and moved by the conviction which has just been expressed, Signor Villari induced Hoepli to publish a special series of popular histories. Some of the volumes have already appeared—for example, a revised edition of Balzani's 'Italian Chronicles,' and 'The Liberation of Italy,' by Professor Orsi, of Venice. Besides treating the different periods and aspects of Italian history, it is designed that the series shall embrace the history of other civilized nations. All this is primarily for the benefit of the Italians themselves, but we shall be surprised if the leading volumes are not eventually translated into English. We have given the above explanation partly because it may be of some bibliographical interest, but mainly because it will serve to explain the scope of Signor Villari's work on the barbarian invasions. In the author's own words, "It is neither a learned nor a scholastic book, nor is it a philosophic study of universal history, such as Bryce's 'Holy Roman Empire,' or Quinet's 'Italian Revolutions.' I merely narrate events in chronological and logical order, without commenting or descanting on them, doing my best to avoid dryness."

This is the author's own statement, but its modesty needs to be supplemented by a word or two which shall point out the real merits of the work. While it deals with the same period which is covered by the numerous volumes of Hodgkin, and while it confesses obligation to half-a-dozen other histories of recent date, no one who is familiar with the writings and personality of Signor Villari can imagine that it is simply a piece of compilation. After naming Bury, Malfatti, Bertolini, Dahn, Mühlbacher, and Hartmann, the preface proceeds: "I have also recurred to certain other authorities, such as Gibbon, Tillemont, and Muratori, who never grows old; nor have I forgotten to refer to original documents." The narrative (and of course the book consists chiefly of narrative) is simple, well-ordered, and exact; but that is not quite all. Though the philosophical strain is avoided, the tone of the *Jahrbücher* is avoided as well; and even if we accept Signor Villari's remark that he has not commented or descanted on events, it is clear that he shows a willingness to venture general statements. For example, the chapter entitled "The Fall of the Empire," with which the book begins, contains broad reflections on the subject of Roman decline; and, just at the close, we encounter such a saying as this: "The constitution of the Frankish Empire was the chief and central achievement of the Middle Ages." There is an abundance of good narrative, but there is also from time to time an expression of mature opinion.

Some readers will perhaps regret that Professor Villari has found it inconsistent with his plan to estimate the exact contribution which was made by the Germanic tribes to the life and institutions of Italy. In the case of all the provinces where the barbarians established themselves, the historical student finds it hard to determine the number of the invaders, the character of their social relations with the Romans, and the extent of the changes for which they were directly responsible. What were the chief Teutonic elements which entered into the fabric of mediæval civilization in Italy? How was the system of landholding throughout the northern and central parts of the peninsula affected by the circumstances of the migration? In what wise do the customs which the invaders brought with them forecast the Italian type of feudalism? These are questions of high moment, and any opinion which Signor Villari might express concerning them would be entitled to careful consideration. As it is, however, such matters are almost wholly ruled out by the conception of the series, and we must look elsewhere for a discussion of them.

Signor Villari's account of the Gothic, Lombard, and Frankish occupation takes the form of a story rather than of a disquisition, but it never assumes the tone of a romance. The picturesque aspects of life during the fifth and sixth centuries which leave so profound an impression upon a mind like that of Charles Kingsley, and which have also appealed to the imagination of Mr. Hodgkin, are not thrown into strong relief here. The sequence of events is more regarded than the play of forces. It is a plain tale that Signor Villari tells. His period abounds with materials for epic or dramatic treatment, but with poetry or even with rhetoric he does not meddle. Everything is kept in stern subordination to the requirements of a sober and dispassionate history.

We have now described at sufficient length the aim and method of this work.

It remains for us to express some opinion concerning the quality of the execution. Where the scale is so small and the issues are so great, success or failure must hinge upon the author's accuracy, his power of selection, and his gift of telling statement. Signor Villari offers little that will seem new to the mediævalist, and he is precluded by conditions of space from investigating moot points like the negotiations of Athaulf and Honorius, the relations of Theodoric with Boethius, and the character of Theodora. On the other hand, he is careful, not to say conservative, in statement, he has chosen his topics with a discrimination that comes from wide general knowledge, and he has fulfilled his express purpose of avoiding dryness. It follows that this book in the English translation will henceforth occupy a fixed place between the manual of Church and the *opus* of Hodgkin.

In respect to chronology, the middle point of the narrative comes just before the middle of the sixth century—that is to say, the book divides at the time of St. Benedict and Totila the Ostrogoth. Without attempting, however, to analyze the subject-matter in any detail, there are two topics which seem to invite special notice—Signor Villari's comments upon the decline of Rome, and his attitude towards the Holy See. Beyond a slight discussion of these questions we must not go.

By common consent, the Empire fell not because the barbarians were stronger in the fifth and sixth centuries than they had been in the days of Marcus Aurelius, Decius, and Gallienus, but because the Romans were then enfeebled. Instead of expressing surprise at the dismemberment of the provinces or at the decline which produced it, Signor Villari is astonished that the imperial system endured so long as it did. What impresses him most deeply, as he surveys the Empire at its widest extent, is the failure to secure any real assimilation. As the rule of Rome extended itself farther and farther, the difficulties which arose in the path of true unity grew greater with each forward step.

"The assimilation of the Italian populations had proved comparatively easy, but Africa, Spain, Rhætia, and Gaul opposed an increasingly obstinate resistance. Then fresh obstacles had to be faced in Asia Minor and in Greece, where the Romans encountered, for the first time, a higher civilization than their own. After conquering the country by force of arms, they were conquered in their turn by the culture of Greece, and were obliged to fuse their own with it in order to spread both through the world. Thus, by the time the Empire reached to the Rhine and the Danube, it no longer possessed any real kernel of unity corresponding with its outer shell. The Empire was neither a state nor a nation; it was a compound of different races, held together by force and subject to the same civilization."

Some time ago it was usual to insist upon the uniformity that Rome secured by her conquests and the spread of her law. The so-called "Romanization" of the world was attested by an appeal to the poets like Claudian and Rutilius, who speak in glowing terms of the universal brotherhood. More recently, the tendency seems to be in the direction of emphasizing latent differences, of separating the Greek from the Roman. It is discovered that, after all, the civilization of Rome was hardly more than a veneer, beneath which persisted irreconcilable hostilities of race. Whether by way of restoring the balance or not, Signor Villari is apparently disposed to lay more stress upon the mutual opposition of the parts than upon the seeming unity of the whole, and in this latent antagonism he finds a fundamental cause of downfall. According to his view, one leading function of the Empire was to create that "moral and civil unity of the ancient world which was a necessary preliminary towards the formation of nationalities." But such moral and social unity as was attained could not be permanent after the dawn of the national instinct.

"Nationalities, in fact, can neither live nor thrive unless so closely inter-related as to feel themselves members of the same family. But their rise put an end to the existence of that ancient world which recognized the absolute predominance of one civilization alone, outside of which were only barbarians."

Towards the Church, Signor Villari adopts the attitude neither of a Guelph nor of a Ghibelline, but of the historian who recognizes the importance of Christianity and laments the present indifference of Italian writers to ecclesiastical and theological subjects. "Without investigating them," he asks, "how can it be possible to appreciate the history of a people that founded the Catholic Church, of a people whose religious life was formerly so intense, and so closely connected with its political, literary, artistic, and civil life?" From such a passage it will be inferred that no great enthusiasm is likely to be shown for the Papacy as a purely religious or ecclesiastical institution; but, besides being pontiffs, popes were Italians, and in this capacity they make a direct appeal to our author's sympathy. They were the natural leaders in those days of desperate distress when leaders were needed.

Signor Villari's freedom from anti-clerical prejudice is well seen in his portrait of Pope Gregory the Great, to whose career a whole chapter is devoted. While the celebrated letter to Phocas receives just censure, and while it is recognized that Gregory was willing to sacrifice everything to the interests of the Church, the harsher lines of his character are not unduly emphasized, nor does his true nobility of purpose fail to elicit due praise.

"The fourteen books of his *Epistolæ* form an imperishable monument to his memory, and a most valuable contribution to the history of his times. These Epistles teach us to appreciate the lofty character of the man who might be truly called the second founder of the Papacy; while the writer's practical power, untiring energy, Christian charity, and fervent holiness are brilliantly displayed throughout their pages. They plainly show us why he became the first man of his age, and not only the leader of the Church, but of Italian policy, and, to some extent, of the policy of all Europe."

The establishment of the papal state is another important incident of which Signor Villari takes notice, but the relations of Pippin with the Church are not made the subject of any special digression from the narrative.

The translation by Signora Villari is very good, but there are several slips of the pen in connection with names and dates. Those, however, which we have noticed are so obvious that they will not mislead any reader save the most unwary. Other volumes in the same series are announced by Professor Errera of Turin, Professor Salvemini of Florence, and Professor Brizzolara of Reggio.

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*Franz Schubert.* Von Richard Heuberger. Berlin: "Harmonie."

One of the most noteworthy phenomena in the musical world to-day is the growing recognition of the exalted rank of Schubert among the great masters, and perception of the fact that he was a pathfinder in every branch of the art. When he died (1828) he was acknowledged to be a good song-writer, but otherwise very little was known about his works. Even his songs were soon neglected, while the land was filled with the sound of Mendelssohn's infinitely inferior *Lieder*, until a revival was effected, in a roundabout way, through Liszt's arrangement and performance of pianoforte versions of them. Some of the instrumental works were brought to light by Schumann ten years after Schubert's death; but they were still "music of the future" to most concert-goers. The leading Parisian orchestra refused, in 1842, after rehearsing the first movement of the superb symphony in C, to go on with the remainder; while in London, two years later, the behavior of the players in the Philharmonic Orchestra toward this same symphony was so insulting that Mendelssohn declined to proceed with the rehearsal.

Schubert's life was so short and uneventful that it is hardly surprising that the literature relating to him should be scant. The elaborate and exhaustive biography by Max Friedländer, promised years ago, has not yet appeared; Kreissle's meritorious biography (1865) is antiquated, and Niggli's is a mere sketch. In the English language Sir George Grove's equally erudite and enthusiastic article in his 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (120 columns) remains the most satisfactory and useful monograph on the subject; but, having been written twenty-one years ago, it is naturally incomplete. At that time the greater part of Schubert's works had not been critically edited and printed. It is only quite recently that Breitkopf & Härtel have completed their great undertaking of printing the entire works under the able editorship of Dr. Mandyczewski; and the first biographer to benefit thereby is Heuberger, who touches on the well-known biographic facts briefly, and devotes most of his space (there are only 114 pages) to the discussion of Schubert's achievements in the various branches of music.

To the songs less space is given than their importance seems to call for; but that is no doubt because the author felt that that subject had been pretty well covered, while concerning the other works much of importance remained to be said. Following the example of Mandyczewski, he takes pains to correct the impression that Schubert was uncritical. He may have written many of his songs in a clairvoyant state of inspiration, but when he rewrote them—which he often did, in some cases three or four times—his critical sense was keenly active. Doubt is thrown (p. 54) on the well-known anecdote regarding the impromptu composition of "Hark, hark, the Lark" on the back of a bill of fare. The autograph is written on stout *Regalpapier*, and is included in a notebook containing also some other songs. This, however, does not seem to us to disprove the anecdote, for

it is quite possible and likely that Schubert rewrote the song when he got home, and did not keep the bill of fare. In any case, the story is so characteristic that it must be considered as particularly *ben trovato*.

In one respect, it must be admitted that Schubert was uncritical—in the choice of poems for many of his songs, and of libretti for his numerous short operas. It is a significant fact, on which the author might have dwelt, that, of the best seven songs among the first 262 which Schubert wrote, six are to poems by Goethe and one to a poem by Schiller. This suggests the inference that if he could have had a Goethe or a Schiller to write libretti for him, he might have composed operas as dramatic as his "Erlking." He was passionately fond of writing for the stage, and persevered in it all his life; but although several of the operas contain some of his best music, he never enjoyed a success, partly because of the wretched texts, partly because he lacked theatrical skill, as the author shows convincingly (p. 73). He should have added, however, what Liszt pointed out, that while he lacked the theatric knack, he had a genuine dramatic talent, as was often manifested in his songs, through which he influenced the development of realistic operatic music indirectly. In all other branches of vocal music he was a direct promoter of reform and progress. Heuberger's remarks anent Schubert's male choruses and cantatas cannot be too urgently called to the attention of the numerous vocal societies in this country. Here, too, as in the *Lied*, it will be acknowledged some day that Mendelssohn has been allowed unjustly to usurp a place of honor belonging to Schubert, by right of priority as well as of superior genius. Concerning the male chorus, Heuberger says:

"Before Schubert, the only composer in this genre that calls for mention is Mozart, the inventor of it. From him he got, however, little more than suggestions. What the male chorus has become since Mozart is comprised exhaustively in the works of Schubert, who is the first in time, and the greatest writer of male choruses up to the present day."

When he wrote his oratorio fragment, "Lazarus," the author remarks:

"he had no model to influence him. Of Bach he knew but little, as we know through Hüttenbrenner. Some of Handel's works he had, indeed, heard or played with enthusiasm; but when he went to work himself it came over him like tongues of fire, and he spoke a language like none before him. He wrote no pseudo-archaic style, but a thoroughly modern, specifically Schubertian cantata, full of original and deeply emotional music worthy of his genius."

Among the instrumental works, the two last symphonies have long held the place of honor they deserve; and so have some of the quartets and other chamber works; but it is only within recent years that amateurs and critics have had the courage to confess to themselves that in euphony and variety of color charm, in melodic spontaneity and originality of harmonic modulation, they surpass even Beethoven's symphonies and chamber works. Of these compositions Heuberger gives interesting analyses. Schubert's epoch-making originality as a writer for the pianoforte is also admirably discussed (pp. 23, 36-38, 53, 60). While Beethoven called his short pieces "bagatelles," Schubert gave his best in them, and thus fathered the endless variety of short pieces that have gradually displaced the sonata. He also ennobled and practically created the Viennese dances which subsequently, under the banner of Strauss and Lanner, conquered the whole world. Nor is that all. He created an entirely new style of pianoforte music when he wrote his four-hand marches and other pieces. These have a charm and an "idiomatically pianistic quality" that have never been equalled by any of the thousands of four-hand pieces that have since been written.

The importance of Heuberger's book lies in its thus emphasizing the manysidedness of Schubert's musical genius, and the great number of paths in which he was a pioneer. Even without this feature the volume would be indispensable to Schubert-lovers because of its abundant portraits, facsimiles, and illustrations. Unfortunately there is no index or real table of contents. The last twenty pages are an appendix containing much interesting information, some of which should have been incorporated in the text, and the rest printed as footnotes in the proper places.

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*The Founder of Mormonism:* A Psychological Study of Joseph Smith, jr. By J. Woodbridge Riley, one-time Instructor in English, New York University. With an introductory preface by Prof. George Trumbull Ladd. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902. Pp. xix, 446.

Most writers, like Mr. Linn, whose elaborate and accurate work, 'The Story of the Mormons,' we lately reviewed, have approached the question of the sincerity of its founder from the outside—from the external history of the sect, from facts more than from philosophy. Mr. Riley, on the other hand, aims to ascertain what manner of man the Mormon founder was by a study of his characteristics as stamped and expanded by heredity and environment. Starting in the ultimate heyday of Smith's power and life, he traces salient family traits so far as he can through seven generations backward to 1666, and the surroundings by which they were successively influenced. The heterogeneous elements in 1805 gave birth to a leader whose life is a riddle for which, as Mr. Riley holds, the new-born hypnotic psychology furnishes the most universal solvent, though he confesses that, "after all, how far the wonderful power of Peep-stone Joe was fictitious and how far due to unconscious self-suggestion, it is hard to decide" (p. 185). Thanks to the curious peep-stones which the revelator called his Urim and Thummim, he unconsciously and accidentally first hypnotized himself—and that a decade before Braid in England first published some analogous occult discoveries. (The theory of every operation is later than its performance.) Surprised that persistent gazing on his crystals, or opaques, threw him into hypnosis where he took suggestion as a cat laps milk, Smith could not fail to repeat the hitherto undetected process. The result was, that, while he was under unconscious conditions through suggestions or impulses, whether from within him or without him, his mental visions, though airy nothings, were projected outwardly and became external realities with local habitations. While in the dark he saw lights and angels. His illusions were of identical nature, from his youthful guidance of money-diggers to the last verse in the Mormon Bible. Those who wonder that visions were so multitudinous and vast should remember that in hypnosis it is the first step which costs, for hypnotizing becomes more and more easy, and each new trance most naturally follows in the wake of its predecessors. This explanation is countenanced by much of what fills the Book of Mormon. Interwoven in its warp and woof are allusions to the Bible (298 to the New Testament), and as many to anti-popery, anti-masonry, and anti-deism—the three topics most talked of at the time and place where Smith's sacred book was found, or invented, or translated.

In regard to the meaningless hieroglyphs, the "Caractors" (in the handwriting of Smith himself) which were sent for translation to Professor Anthon, Mr. Riley thinks that "Smith doubtless believed them of supernatural origin—and that because they were written under more or less unconscious conditions." On the same ground the Mormon prophet must have believed his Book of Mormon with all its supplements to be divinely revealed, and so he was no knave at all, but throughout believed his own lie to be truth, and it hence became truth to him. If we believe this theory, we can see how Smith won disciples as soon as he fell in with victims who were either as good hypnotic subjects as he was, or whom he could manipulate up to an equal receptivity. His early success in the use of "collective hypnosis" in securing eight eye-witnesses of optics keen enough to see the gold plates, and who "hefted" them with their own hands, could not fail to be followed by further miracles of its class.

If Mr. Riley holds Smith to have believed in one revelation, why not in all? In a word, as we incline to think, our author, mounted on hypnotics, rides his hobby to death. His proving hypnotics to quadrate in so many points with Mormonism reminds us of interpretations still popular in orthodox circles of St. John's apocalypse as foretelling or tallying either with the career of Napoleon or, as others are equally sure, with that of all the Popes; or, as a third class judge, with signs of the "Second Advent"—and that with minute historical accuracy. Mr. Riley's treatise is of wonderful ingenuity and readableness, yet on the whole it deepens the feeling we have long had that Mormonism is, in fact, a phenomenon in one grand feature very like the Scriptural apocalypse as described by Dr. Robert South—"A book intricate, perplexed, and, for the most part, never to be understood; on which, when wits and industry have done their utmost, the best commentary is conjecture."

Some latent distrust of hypnotism as too weak to bear the load he puts upon it, is betrayed by our author. He declares the prophet's "mind seriously affected," so that his words and deeds became as crazy as anything in the mad Dean's Gulliver—as when he said, "I know more than all the world put together, and God is my right-hand man"; and again when he demanded of Van Buren a million dollars in damages as his due from Government for persecutions, and when, through wire-

workers, he was nominated and was actually running for United States President at the hour of his death. In reading Mr. Riley, one thinks how Rufus Choate would have welcomed hypnotism. Could he have reinforced his insanity defences with that plea, all murderers would have gone unwhipped of justice.

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*Shakespear.* By W. Carew Hazlitt. London: Quaritch.

Mr. Hazlitt was disappointed in Mr. Sidney Lee's 'Life of Shakespeare.' It seemed to him little more than a readable distillation of Halliwell-Phillipps's 'Outlines.' He determined, therefore, to take up the subject himself, or, rather, to resume a "half-abandoned design," and the fruits of his determination are before us. He insists, however, that his volume does not profess to be a systematic biography—that it is simply "an essay, restricted to new points of view, which may or may not be held in certain instances to amount to new facts." He claims the same freedom of conjecture and inference in settling the details of Shakspere's life that would be allowed in other uncertain cases, where the person involved was less considerable. Accordingly, he deals largely in a process which he calls "the concentration of scattered points and hints."

In the main we may accept Mr. Hazlitt's characterization of his own book. Yet it is not an essay in the strict sense of the word. It is rather a collection of essays, for there is little continuity between chapter and chapter. The whole thing rambles and staggers and halts along. There are digressions so little pertinent that they might well have been relegated to an appendix; there are pages of dreary commonplace, and there is everywhere, of course, Mr. Hazlitt's clumsy style—his unsurpassably long-winded fashion of saying the simplest things. As for the restriction to "new points of view," it is not and could not be thoroughgoing; but we meet with a good many new guesses. Most of these are of dubious value, but there is now and then one which merits the attention of scholars.

Mr. Hazlitt, though he has edited a collection of antique jest-books, is somewhat deficient in humor. He can hardly forgive Shakspere for having so much of it. One gets the impression that he regards a joke as vulgar unless it is either academic or elephantine. If space allowed, we should like to quote his profoundly diverting animadversions on Touchstone's words to Audrey: "I am here with thee and thy goats, as the most capricious poet, honest Ovid, was among the Goths." The reader will find it on page 135, embedded in a chapter on "Self-Culture."

With the Sonnets Mr. Hazlitt has little patience. "Small, very small, loss to the world and to the fame of the writer had it been if the MS. had perished." "The sentiment is often thin and weak, the diction poor, and the metre faulty." "In the Sonnets, forsooth, we see the poetical expression of the author in its earliest and rawest form." "I grieve that they are so poor." As to metre, one is disposed to set up Shakspere, even in his "earliest and rawest" period, as a match for Mr. Hazlitt, especially after reading a note on page 281. Here, having described a line in Sonnet cvii. as "neither sense nor metre," he presents us with an emendation. The line is this: "And peace proclaims *olives* of endless age." The new reading which, we presume, is expected to mend the measure, runs as follows: "And peace proclaims *an olive* of endless age"!

Much as he despises the Sonnets as literature, Mr. Hazlitt attaches some biographical value to them. But his attempts to extract this biographical material are not more successful than those of his predecessors. Bartholomew Griffin, a decidedly minor poet, appears as a candidate for the position of Shakspere's friend, replacing the perhaps sufficiently discredited Pembroke. The dark lady is Griffin's wife. All this is advanced tentatively, with other conjectures of a more trivial kind. We cannot forbear quoting the following sentence: "Shakespear's 80th Sonnet suggests his acquaintance with the literary gifts of a contemporary, who had been more successful than him in ingratiating himself with a common lady friend at a distance from London, yet at one accessible on horseback, even if not without fatigue." "Mr. W. H.," by the way, becomes William Hammond, concerning whom Mr. Hazlitt favors us with some information and much ingenious guesswork.

It must not be inferred that the volume is valueless. Mr. Hazlitt is a learned and indefatigable bibliographer, as well as a persevering manufacturer and revamper of books. His qualities, good and bad, are well known to scholars, and they all appear in the present "essay." To scholars, then, his 'Shakespear' may be left. They will use it with considerable vexation of spirit, but may find some things in it that will do them good. The general reader will probably let it alone.

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*Letters from Egypt.* By Lady Duff Gordon. London: R. Brimley Johnson; New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

Lovers of some of the best letters in English literature will rejoice that Lady Duff Gordon's from Egypt have been reprinted in a single volume. The first series appeared in 1865, the second ('Last Letters') in 1875; and both are now brought together, and some other letters are added. Moreover, all are now printed as Lady Gordon wrote them, so that many characteristic touches, omitted earlier, for various reasons, are given their proper place. This is as it should be; for, if there were ever any doubts as to the lasting quality of this correspondence, they would vanish now that nearly forty years have tested it. The present writer knows of no other Englishwoman's letters that compare with these, and he questions whether the letters of many Englishmen during the past generation will be read longer, or with more delight.

What first strikes one in Lady Gordon's letters is their naturalness; they have high literary excellence, but they do not sacrifice to it the priceless quality, spontaneity. She describes with wonderful vividness the Egypt of the sixties, which had not yet become the commonplace resort of Cook tourists. The land, the people, the associations were to her inexhaustibly interesting. "I write to you out of the real Arabian Nights," is her first greeting from Cairo. But the gorgeousness of the Oriental pageantry is not her main theme. She is not merely a sympathetic traveller, who observes, describes, and passes on. She seeks the human in the Copts and Arabs among whom she lives. She learns to know them better than any other Englishwoman has ever known them; they admit her to their confidence; they look to her for sympathy and aid in their distress; and they come at last almost to worship her as their "Own Lady." The economist not less than the historian will not overlook her account of Egypt from 1862 to 1869, and both will acknowledge that that country to-day, after twenty years of British rule, has greatly improved. Not for the mass of entertaining information, nor for the succession of vivid descriptions, however, will Lady Gordon's letters be most prized. Their deepest charm lies in the fact that they reveal one of the most fascinating of modern women, one who was almost the best specimen of the highest type of Anglo-Saxon womanhood—highly cultivated, tender, strong, fearless; always ready to protect the weak from social or political tyranny; hating pretence; mixing as a matter of course with the best that London could offer or with the humble fellaheen at Luxor; radiantly beautiful; both witty and humorous; and of perfect courage. These letters, written in solitary exile by a consumptive stricken in the prime of life, have no trace of invalidism about them; and, but for passing references to her condition, one would suppose that the writer was as vigorous in body as in mind. But, as Mr. George Meredith says, in an admirable introduction, "her dislike of superlatives, . . . renders hard the task of portraying a woman whose character calls them forth. To him knowing her, they would not fit; her individuality passes between epithets. . . . Lucie Duff Gordon was of the order of women of whom a man of many years may say that their like is to be met but once or twice in a lifetime."

Lady Gordon's daughter, Mrs. Janet Ross, edits this volume. It is to be regretted that she has not amplified the biographical memoir, which stands practically as it first appeared in 1875. A more detailed account of the beautiful Lucie would be welcomed by every one who comes to know her through these letters, and who will hardly be appeased by the chapters devoted to her in Mrs. Ross's 'Three Generations of Englishwomen.' A few inaccuracies ought also to have been corrected; for instance, Heine's "Wenn ich an deinem Hause," first printed in 1824, could not have been inspired by the merry girl of thirteen with whom he played at Boulogne in 1834. The volume has three portraits of Lady Gordon, but not the most beautiful, by Phillips.

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*Sheridan's Plays.* London: David Nutt. 1902.

There have been many editions of Sheridan's famous comedies, but all careful students of stage literature will be glad to possess the authoritative version, printed from the original manuscripts and edited by W. Fraser Rae, which has been published by David Nutt, in a handsome and convenient volume, with every advantage of good paper and typography. Comparatively few persons, probably, are aware that none of these plays except "The Rivals" was given to the world in printed form by Sheridan himself. All the other published copies were reproductions of

those used upon the stage. The original manuscript of "The Rivals" was lost, unfortunately, in the fire which destroyed Covent Garden Theatre, and it is therefore impossible to discover the character or the extent of the alterations made in the piece by the author between the first unsuccessful production of it on the 17th of January, 1775, and the second triumphal presentation nine days later. This, perhaps, is not a matter of much consequence. At all events, we have the comedy in the amended form which Sheridan prepared for the press. Thus there is now a certified text of all the plays, which can scarcely fail to be useful hereafter.

In common with other playwrights, Sheridan, of course, suffered a good deal at the hands of stage-managers and actors, but on the whole he has not been treated very badly. Even adapters, such as Mr. Augustin Daly, did not venture to take important liberties with his dialogue. That he was "cut" sometimes pretty severely, as in the cases of Faulkland and Julia in "The Rivals," is not to be wondered at. That the creator of the Absolutes, Sir Lucius and "Fighting Bob," should have been responsible for this precious pair is a literary fact that cannot easily be explained. Yet, strange to say, that intolerable prig and egotist Faulkland excited the admiration of more than one contemporary critic. In his prefatory notes, Mr. Rae furnishes a number of extracts from the press notices of "The Rivals" as originally played, and they make very amusing reading. In many respects, they are almost as silly as those of to-day, but they indicate pretty plainly that gross incompetency was almost as common among actors then as it is now.

In addition to the Sheridan pieces, "The Rivals," "The School for Scandal," "The Critic," "St. Patrick's Day," and "The Duenna," the present volume contains Mrs. Frances Sheridan's "A Journey to Bath" and an introduction by the late Marquess of Dufferin, Sheridan's great grandson.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Churchill, Winston. The Crisis. (James K. Hackett edition.) Macmillan.
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Leypoldt, A. H. Index to the Publishers' Trade List Annual, 1902. Publishers' Weekly.
Lillibridge, W. L. Edward Reynolds. The Grafton Press.
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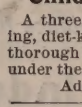

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1902.*

## The Week.

With incomplete returns, the general result of Tuesday's elections yet appears unquestioned. The Republicans hold the House, though by a greatly reduced and narrow majority. The Democrats fought in some States with unexpected spirit and success; they lost heavily in others through unexampled folly of leadership. Col. Gaston in Massachusetts cut deeply into the Republican majority, and made a run which recalls the days of the lamented William E. Russell. In Ohio a veritable cyclone has blown over the circus tent of the grotesque Tom Johnson. Bryan's ostentatious endorsement of him was the one thing needed to complete his ruin. And, finally, the sarcophagus of free silver was freshly weighted with lead in Colorado, that State having apparently gone Republican and retired Teller, Bryanite Congressmen, and all their works. We consider the net result, which is of the nature of a check and warning to the Republicans, wholesome. It shows that the Spanish war is over. No more sweeping victories are to be won by attainting the Opposition party of high treason. Nor will unthinking cries about our "unparalleled prosperity" longer suffice. If a "calamity howler" is a nuisance, a "prosperity yawper" is an affliction. His day is passing. The party has had notice that, in order to retain the confidence of the country, it must address itself to the questions of social injustice and class favoritism which are pressing for solution.

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In this State, those who believed that Coler had more than a fighting chance of election, even as Hill's dummy, have been justified. Governor Odell is re-elected by a much reduced and feeble plurality. Mayor Low, on his part, will find food for reflection in the enormous Tammany vote, which indicates a widespread dissatisfaction with his nine-months' Administration. Truly gratifying is the defeat of Judge Werner for the Court of Appeals, and of Attorney-General Davies, President Roosevelt's unworthy candidate for the Supreme Court in the Fifth Judicial District. The significance of the vote should not fail to penetrate the skin of Judge Werner, and make him consider seriously the advisability of again becoming an instrument to wreak the narrow and contemptible revenge of one boss upon another. As for Platt, no happening of recent years has been such a direct slap in his face.

Among the many examples of non-partisan voting which the elections afforded, none was more inspiriting than the defeat of Major Carl Lentz, the Republican candidate for Sheriff of Essex County, New Jersey. All of his colleagues on the Republican County ticket won by majorities in the thousands, so that the discrimination against him was as marked as that against Judge Werner in this city. This rebuke was the more signal because every effort had been made to bolster up Major Lentz's candidacy. Everybody knew, from his standing apology during the campaign, that he presented as arguments for his election, besides his services in building up the county machine, chiefly his personal poverty and his wounds during the civil war, while he glozed over the most notable feature of his public record, namely, the court judgment pronounced upon him for the appropriation of trust funds; and yet the Governor of the State, the Attorney-General, the United States Senator, and other prominent Republicans accepted the unfit candidate, personally interested themselves in his canvass, and sympathized with him in his defeat. The voters, however, by their exemplary repudiation of the sophism that by receiving a party nomination a man too bad to be nominated becomes fit to be voted for, have done much to elevate the public tone of the State.

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President Roosevelt's ante-election expression of "keen interest" in Republican success was, of course, only the perfunctory official announcement always expected from the titular head of the party. His friends could wish, for his own sake, that he had not made special mention of the contest for the Governorship in Pennsylvania as one of the struggles in which he hoped the Republicans would win. This was to express the hope that a corrupt and debasing tyranny against which the best citizens of Pennsylvania are fighting, might be fastened upon them for two years more. The diminished vote for Judge Pennypacker, the open lauder of Quay, is a rebuke to the President for playing the party game no matter into what company it leads, or how much it may confound moral distinctions.

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Secretary Moody made a speech at Chelsea, Massachusetts, on Thursday evening, on the tariff question. He held the Democrats up to scorn for their opposition to reciprocity, which he said was a Republican doctrine. In the same speech, he referred to reciprocity with Canada, which, he said, found many advocates in Massachusetts, though none made a definite proposition for reciprocity with the Dominion "which an American who believed in protection could accept." A treaty of that kind he would ardently support, but he did not say what kind of treaty a believer in protection could accept. Apparently, it would be a treaty which nobody objected to, as, for example, admitting from Canada all articles now on the free list in exchange for a similar concession on the part of Canada. But it would never do to admit barley, or wool, or iron ore, or coal, or lumber, or wood pulp, from that country, because some Americans who believe in protection could not stand that. Similarly, Canadians who believe in protection could not accept a treaty which admitted boots and shoes, hardware, cotton and woollen cloth, and many other products of Massachusetts. Mr. Moody's objection to reciprocity with Canada is the same as Mr. Lodge's objection to reciprocity with France. The treaty is inadmissible because it offends some particular producer of something. In short, "reciprocity is essentially a Republican doctrine," as Mr. Moody says, but there is no place for it to begin.

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In his speech at Dorchester, on Monday week, Senator Hoar made use of an expression which betrays a very imperfect conception of the financial disasters of 1893-6, which he helped to precipitate. The "hard times which President Cleveland brought on," in the Senator's phrase, are those which became acute very soon after his second inauguration as President. That event took place on March 4, 1893. When he entered office, he found less than one million dollars of "free gold" in the Treasury. By free gold is meant gold over and above the $100,000,000 at that time "reserved for the redemption of United States notes." He found the Government facing a deficit. The revenue had been cut down some $60,000,000 by the McKinley tariff, and we were spending $50,000,000 per year for silver bullion under the Sherman act—both of which were Republican measures, and passed by Republican votes. The panic began in June, 1893. It was the natural consequence of the Sherman act, and of the silver legislation that preceded it. President Cleveland's first step was to call an extra session of Congress to repeal the Sherman law. Was it in that way that Mr. Cleveland brought on the hard times? Is it Senator Hoar's opinion that the panic of 1893 was brought on by the man who caused the Sherman act to be repealed? Did Mr. Cleveland cause the Sherman act to be passed in 1890, or was Mr. Hoar himself, in conjunction with Senator Sherman and William McKinley, responsible for that disastrous measure?

The *Commercial West* of Minneapolis thinks that Secretary Shaw's speaking tour has been open to criticism, not because he has been seen repeatedly on the stump, but because the things he has said there have not been directed to the right end. "Instead of urging financial reform through legislation," it says, "he has pursued policies as Secretary which will probably tend to delay reform, for he has boldly demonstrated that awkward laws can be circumvented, or even almost directly disobeyed; and when this can be done, why bother to change them?" The Minneapolis paper refers, no doubt, to the Secretary's declaration that the banks need not keep any cash reserve against Government deposits, and to the advice he gave to collectors of customs to expedite the importation of anthracite coal. The latter intimation seems to have fallen upon willing ears, since anthracite is coming in daily from Wales without any analysis to determine its percentage of fixed carbon. This is very much for the public convenience, of course. To stop the unloading of a ship till a chemist can ascertain whether the coal is dutiable or not would be simply maddening to a community suffering for want of fuel, yet that is what the law contemplates. Its words are not susceptible of any other interpretation. It is of the same character as many other schedules which require scientific treatment of the article imported, as, for example, the counting of the number of threads in a square inch of cloth and the determination of the nature of threads, whether wool or cotton etc. The shortest way to untie this knot is to repeal the duties on coal altogether. It is reported that President Roosevelt favors this course. Secretary Shaw will probably concur in that policy when he comes to survey the situation calmly as it affects himself.

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"Mitchell Day" was celebrated in the anthracite fields on Wednesday of last week by general idleness, a monster procession, brass bands, speeches, and the like. One cannot but think this jubilation ill-timed, and the manner of it strangely at variance with the professed principles of the man whose name it bore. No one has been more lavish of sympathy for the coalless public than Mr. Mitchell, nobody knows better that mining is so far in arrear that every day's work before severe cold comes is worth a week later in the season. Everybody knows that such a demonstration as last week's means for many of its participants at least two days of idleness. In view of these facts, Mr. Mitchell might have made a wise and graceful use of his power by postponing the holiday, urging the return to labor of the 20 per cent. of miners still unemployed, and the signalizing of "Mitchell Day" by an extraordinary production of coal. If this were too much magnanimity and wisdom to expect of a labor leader flushed with success, it would none the less have been the surest way of commending Mr. Mitchell and his cause to the proprietors of some millions of ill-stocked or empty coal bins, who, as it is, can only protest—

"There is a public mischief in your mirth."

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"We honor and respect our Presidents, Roosevelt and Mitchell," was the inscription on one of the banners borne in the "Mitchell Day" jollification. It was generous in the miners not to put Mitchell's name first. Mr. Roosevelt plainly endeavored to be entirely impartial, as between miners and operators, and has given it to be understood that he will altogether keep his hands off the work of the Arbitration Commission. It was inevitable, however, that his intervention should have been felt by the strikers to be a powerful weapon placed in their grasp. They certainly chose an unfortunate time and mode for showing their gratitude. With the country still crying aloud for coal, on the edge of winter, the workers snapped their fingers in the faces of the mine superintendents, threw down their tools, and went off for a day's merry-making. Thus we have already in evidence the headstrong insubordination and defiance of discipline which have made the Union so difficult a body to deal with. Doubtless the members all feel now a perfect right to say, as many of them in the past have impudently said to their employers, "We are not working for you, we are working for John Mitchell."

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The connection between President Roosevelt's intervention in the coal strike and the effort of the French Government to bring about arbitration between the owners and the striking miners of Pas de Calais, is obvious and direct. Indeed, Mr. Roosevelt's example was openly adduced by Socialist orators in the Chamber. Why could not their Government come forward in the benevolent and effective manner of the American President? It is one proof more how small the world has become. Countries are now only as so many adjoining parishes, and what occurs in one is at once gossiped about and applied in the others. The pressure put upon the French Premier to imitate President Roosevelt is also a very sobering indication of the immense extension of the powers of Government which we are in for if this sort of thing goes on. Presidents and monarchs and party leaders will have to become Great Fathers of all their people, and will be held angrily to account if anything goes wrong anywhere. Government as an earthly providence, instead of a guarantee that all citizens shall be allowed peacefully to work out their own destinies, will be a new conception for Anglo-Saxons, and will involve vast changes for them. But we may take courage by reflecting that, as Sir Leslie Stephen says, people are saved by being illogical. They take each case simply by itself, and refuse to carry out a principle to its legitimate consequences. The President may elect to wash his hands of the next big strike, and then we should have a precedent on *that* side.

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Little that is new is contained in the statement of the case of the anthracite miners, which was published on Tuesday. We presume that their assertions are supported—or that the attempt is made to support them—by detailed figures. In the absence of complete statistics, it would be impossible to say whether their claims have a foundation in fact. One point of theirs is, we suppose, not open to doubt. This is, that the cost of the necessaries of life has so increased under our belauded prosperity that workmen at fixed wages are worse off than before. General experience and price-lists bear this out. In their appeal for recognition of the Mine Workers' Union as promotive of "discipline" and efficiency, there seems to be a touch of sardonic humor. With 123 local strikes in 1901, though the Union was under agreement to keep at work and control its men, it is hard to see how this claim could have been put forward solemnly by Mr. Mitchell. He must have had at least a concealed grin. In his argument for collective bargaining between the men and the operators, he once more comes irresistibly up to the inference that the Union ought not to ask for a contract until it is incorporated and made legally responsible. Mr. Mitchell does not draw this inference, but others will. It is made compulsory by the whole situation.

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A test is now to be made of the validity under the Federal Constitution of the "grandfather" clause which has been adopted by most of the States that have attempted to disfranchise the negro. This is the clause, inserted in the Constitutions of Mississippi, Louisiana, North Carolina, Alabama, and Virginia, which exempts persons whose fathers or grandfathers were voters before the civil war, from franchise disqualifications based on literacy or property holdings. In other words, it is the clause on which registration boards can rely to reject all negro voters in whose reading, writing, or interpretation of legal phrases from the Constitution they can pick a flaw, while permitting white illiterates to register and vote in spite of their ignorance. The "grandfather" clause was not a necessary part of the plans for negro disfranchisement. The negro vote as an important factor in the South has been effectively eliminated by means of educational and property requirements which, however wise or un-

wise they may be, are of undoubted legality if applied with equal justice to all. The tests provided for the negro, however, would logically have disfranchised illiterate white voters also. To prevent this, and to defeat the requirements of equal justice in the application of the suffrage qualifications, the grandfather clause was devised. The question which the United States Supreme Court will be called upon to decide in the Alabama case is not, then whether a State may restrict its elective franchise, but rather whether it may apply a restriction to one class of its citizens and not to another.

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The nineteenth annual report of the United States Civil Service Commission records considerable progress. The rural free-delivery service of the Post-Office, a portion of the field services of the War Department, the permanent Census Office employees, and the clerks appointed for temporary duty during the war with Spain, are now all included in the competitive system. It is true that these employees got in by favor, but it is certainly a distinct gain to have the bars up now, even if the pastures are filled with henchmen. The increase of the Commission's business is best indicated by the fact that 62,029 persons were examined and 14,983 appointed to office. The Commission lays down excellent rules in regard to the partisan activity of office-holders, maintaining that in the classified service appointees should express their political feelings privately and take no part in campaigns. In the case of officers appointed through patronage, the Commission holds that they must not coerce their subordinates, or use their offices to control political movements or influence elections. Fourth-class postmasters, however, the Commission believes, should not be treated in the same way as the head of a great Federal office. But the Commission should not forget that the sole Federal official of a small village is often as influential in his smaller sphere as the great office-holder in his, and that the retention by the village postmaster of his party leadership frequently gives rise to abuses. If the Commission really wishes to strike a magnificent blow for the principle of non-interference by office-holders, it can do so by prosecuting Senator Quay for his flagrant violations of the Civil-Service Law.

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A statement from the office of the City Comptroller shows that the budget of Greater New York for the ensuing year will be $1,545,534 less than it was last year, and that this reduction is due to the practical extinction of the direct State tax for the ensuing year. If we take into account the increase of local expenses caused by the city's growth, we shall find that the reduction in the budget due to the lessened State tax is $3,965,000. This in its turn is largely accounted for by the fact that there was a surplus in the State Treasury from former years amounting to $9,789,351. The Governor referred to this surplus in his last annual message, and recommended that the sum of $4,200,000 from the fund should be used the present year. By so doing, he said, the direct State tax could be reduced to 13-100 of a mill, which the Constitution requires to be levied for the sinking fund and interest on the canal debt. There would still be a surplus in the Treasury of upwards of $4,000,000, which might be considered a fair working balance to avoid the necessity of loans in anticipation of tax receipts. The showing is very satisfactory, as far as it goes, but it must be remembered that a surplus can be used only once, and that the problem of abolishing the direct State tax is not yet solved, although encouraging progress has been made in that direction.

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Assuredly, it is time something were done to put a stop to the constant and progressive demoralization of the public mind by vulgar, morbid, and impure plays; but the reputed scheme of the Church Club and the Actors' Church Alliance to reform by means of boycott, with clergymen acting as moral walking delegates, does not inspire much confidence. All decent people, and all true friends of the stage, will sympathize with these enthusiastic gentlemen and wish them every success, but there is grave reason to doubt whether much good can be done by laborious personal advertisement of the fact that this or that play is so shocking that modest persons ought to stay away from it. In some cases, no doubt, the warning would be effective; but, unfortunately, the more energetic the crusade, the more notorious would become the cause of offence, and to make a vicious piece notorious is to play right into the hands of the managers. Is it so certain, moreover, that clergymen, as a rule, are the best judges of the moral quality and effect of a play? Is it not, as a matter of fact, almost proverbial that they are easily beguiled by a little mock religious sentiment, and that they have frequently extended valuable countenance and support to very flagrant theatrical impostures? Plays like "The Sign of the Cross" and "The Christian," not to mention a host of others, in which the attempt has been made to give a religious flavor to cheap and meretricious melodrama, have never experienced any difficulty in securing clerical commendation, sometimes in very unexpected quarters. There are, we believe, a considerable number of clergymen of different denominations who even to-day are in favor of public representations of the Passion Play, and are convinced that the result would be widespread spiritual regeneration.

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It is encouraging to hear from an unbiassed observer of Cuban affairs that the outlook for the island is distinctly promising, despite the present stagnation in the Cuban sugar trade. The Chairman of the Cuban Central Railways made this statement in London on Thursday, and added that, from the point of view of the British investor, President Palma's Government was proceeding most satisfactorily. Our own advices from Havana confirm this optimistic view. The sugar growers believe that the coming winter will be better than the last, and the price of sugar has risen slightly. Not so much planting as usual has been done during the present season, but the low rate of wages now prevailing has enabled the work to be done more cheaply than in the past, which will help the plantation owners a good deal. President Palma shows that the Government has $1,500,000 in the treasury, and more money is being collected at the Custom-house than during the corresponding period in the American occupation. The Government, too, is spending less money than did the extravagant and wasteful administration of Gen. Wood. In Havana the sanitary conditions continue favorable. It is all the more to be regretted, therefore, that reports from Santiago and Cienfuegos indicate a retrogression in the matter of sanitation and general cleanliness.

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The action of the South Kensington Museum in refusing longer to harbor certain loaned exhibits puts the lenders to the necessity of storing their treasures elsewhere. Nothing more can be made of the affair than that. Collectors are naturally glad to save storage and insurance charges while exhibiting their collections to art lovers at no inconvenience to themselves, and museums are glad to get temporary exhibitions of high quality. The collectors are perfectly able to pay for the cost of storing their objects of art; and the museums, as their permanent exhibits increase, can naturally give less space to loans. Some of the American collectors, however, whose pictures have been long at the South Kensington Museum, must choose between burying works of great interest in storage warehouses, or paying the oppressive Dingley duties, which thus not only deprive us in America of art treasures that should naturally be ours, but also affect the art situation abroad. There is a palpable absurdity in legislation that further enriches through American money the private houses and warehouses of a city which is already as regards art one of the richest cities in the world. A proper presentation of the case to Congress should secure the repeal of an obsolete and barbarous provision of the Dingley act.

*MR. CLEVELAND IN NEW JERSEY.*

It was fitting that ex-President Cleveland should make his single speech of the campaign, as he did on Thursday night, in the Fifth Congressional District of New Jersey. The Democratic candidate, Mr. Dewitt Clinton Flanagan, was making his aggressive canvass in the face of a normal Republican majority in the district of about 2,000, and on a genuine Cleveland platform. His convention not only gave Bryanism the go-by, but repudiated it in set terms; and tariff reform, with measures against the Trusts as well as against the bulwark of them, has been the chief issue urged. Very naturally, therefore, there was a great rallying of Cleveland Democrats to Mr. Flanagan's support, and the ex-President could not deny his own when pressed to go to Morristown to aid in this revival of the policies and enthusiasms associated with his name.

Mr. Cleveland might be pardoned for recalling with pride his part in revivifying the Democratic party by giving it the tariff issue. His message of 1887 determined the course of political events for the next five years. In his own party, it created a soul under the ribs of death. The Republicans it drove to the full display of the selfish and baleful power of protection, and to overwhelming defeat in 1892. The man who did all this may justifiably speak of the work of his own hands. Mr. Cleveland's gift of political prescience was never more clearly shown than when, at the opening of the Tilden Club, some months ago, he indicated tariff reform as the great issue of this campaign. The Republican newspapers shook with pitying laughter. Poor man, with only one idea! But they have lived to see the canvass fought precisely along the lines marked by the ex-President. The tariff and Trusts, with the relations of one to the other, have been the staple of political debate in every newspaper and on every stump in the country. It is a striking evidence of the sense of the popular drift which Mr. Cleveland possesses in so eminent a degree. His letter to a Southern correspondent shortly after his election in 1892 (made public much later), forecasting the troubles on the money question, with the breaking away of the silver wing of the party, showed him, as has the present campaign, to be endowed with a prophetic soul in matters political, brooding on things to come.

Not the least remarkable of Mr. Cleveland's predictions was that which he made in his tariff message of 1887, relative to the way in which the historic defence of the protective system would be undermined by Trusts. Competition will undo all the evils of tariff favoritism, cried the protectionists; but "this competition," said Mr. Cleveland fifteen years ago, "is too often strangled by combinations quite prevalent at this time and frequently called Trusts." The Republicans laughed the doctrine to scorn at the time; but to-day they are confessing with visible alarm that it is Gospel truth. Nothing else accounts for the agitation for tariff reform within their own party. Republican nominees for Congress in Massachusetts and in Iowa have echoed Mr. Cleveland's words, and placed themselves upon his platform. Even Secretary Root came on from Washington to confess, in the presence of cheering New York Republicans, that many tariff schedules should be revised. Mr. Root, however, had to make the solemn old proviso that "when the tariff is to be revised, it should be revised by its friends." By a happy coincidence, Mr. Cleveland was referring to this humbugging pretension at the very moment Secretary Root was speaking, and called it, with more truth than elegance, a "hoary-headed, bloated, and malodorous old fraud and pretence." Strong words might be excused in referring to Mr. Root's preposterous assertions. They amount to this: The tariff ought to be revised; but the Democratic party can't do it, the Republican won't. We say that his attitude is practically one of denial of any tariff relief, for that is what it amounts to. His idea of a Republican "wise and conservative" revision, the work done by scientists instead of politicians, is nonsense.

The thing will never be achieved in that way. Why it will not, was vividly explained by a colleague of Mr. Root's in the Cabinet, whose words were telegraphed to the Chicago *Record-Herald* as follows:

> "Our friends out in Iowa think they want some revision of the tariff. So do our other friends, the retail butchers. But I'll wager something pretty they can't agree as to where the protection shall be taken off. The tariff is largely a local question, after all. One section won't have one schedule touched, and another won't have another schedule touched or fooled with, and then there are *men like Aldrich who will raise hades if the duties on dolls' eyes are shaded a hair's breadth, and who will log-roll and make combinations and help everybody who will help them to take care of dolls' eyes.*"

We believe that Mr. Cleveland is right about it. The Republican party is in the grip of men who will not renounce the pound of flesh nominated in the bond. Touch one of them, and they all band together for common defence and continued plunder. The only way to break up the alliance of "one for all and all for one" is to notify all concerned that this thing has got to stop. Electing a Democratic House is the shortest and sharpest way to serve that notice.

*AN ADVANCE WARNING.*

Mr. F. A. Vanderlip's address before the Wilmington Chamber of Commerce, which may be read in Sunday's *Herald*, sounded a note of grave but needed warning in respect to our existing trade and financial situation. On Mr. Vanderlip's qualifications as an expert authority, we need not remark. His service at the Treasury in Washington, together with his more recent banking connections, gave Mr. Vanderlip unusual opportunities for the study of finance; and his investigations of European commerce and the "American invasion" have been too recently put before the public to need fresh reference. Without any political bias whatever, and speaking purely as a financier closely watching the course of events, Mr. Vanderlip pointed out certain ominous conditions and tendencies for which, he said, we must find the proper corrective if we would not plunge into "disaster and humiliation later on."

Taking up first the signs of the times in the sphere of international trade, Mr. Vanderlip asserts, what the cold figures demonstrate, that "if we are honest with ourselves we must admit that the edge is off our invasion of foreign markets." The state of European opinion about our potential power as exporters has undergone something like a revolution within two years. When Mr. Vanderlip was on his travels early in 1901, he found European bankers and statesmen nervously apprehensive on the subject of American competition. They had an almost credulous belief in the unlimited possibilities of our development and in the danger to their interests involved in it. But this year he saw the same men again, and their tone was entirely different. Instead of fears that we might ruin them by taking away their markets, he found an "anxious interest in our future"—an anxiety, that is, lest the enormous American borrowings on the European bourses prove too great a strain for our resources. The amount of this foreign indebtedness Mr. Vanderlip has heard estimated in Europe as high as $300,000,000. He thinks that figure too large, but does not deny that the true total is very large or that it is a real cloud upon our financial horizon. It certainly makes the talk of our "trade balances" look uncommonly silly, and is the best explanation of the perturbing fact that now, "in the midst of extraordinary bountiful harvests and at the season when a movement of gold in this direction might normally be expected, we are concerned lest a high rate of sterling shall lead to gold exports."

On the domestic side, Mr. Vanderlip is no less trenchant. The signs abound that an era of inflation and speculation has strained our credit. The surest sign is the condition of the banks. Since 1899 there has been an expansion of $1,300,000,000 in the deposits of all the national banks, "while the basis of gold and legal tenders, upon which that inverted pyramid stands, is actually slightly smaller than it was at the beginning of the period"—has fallen, that is, from $509,000,000 to $508,000,000. In other words, there has been a phenomenal increase in lia-

bilities, but a shrinkage in the reserve basis.

This great and dangerous expansion of credit Mr. Vanderlip attributes to several causes, though chief among them he ranks "the movement to aggregate industrial establishments into single great corporate units and to convert the evidence of ownership into corporate securities." Thus what was formerly individual ownership and fixed investment has been turned into bank collateral; what was closely held by individuals or separate corporations has been made to pass into the financial operations of the day. Hand in hand with this tremendous extension of credit have gone many forms of lavish expenditure. Liquid capital has been converted into fixed investment by the hundred million. At abnormally high prices for both labor and material, railroads and great manufacturing plants have been locking up money in improvements that often threaten to consume more in interest than they produce in income. Very many such operations, Mr. Vanderlip believes, have "gone beyond the limit of safety." So extreme have been the high prices for raw materials that the cost of production has been markedly increased, with the result that "we find ourselves actually importing from some of the foreign markets that two or three years ago were in a panic over our invasion." The whole trade and financial situation calls imperatively, in fact, for that restriction of bank credits which has been going on perforce during the past few weeks, and which Mr. Vanderlip thinks must go much further if the perils that he so clearly sees are to be warded off.

His bold and plain words are, in our judgment, warranted by the facts in the case, and he has put the public in his debt by uttering them. He calls his address "a conservative note of warning," and such it is. We believe that he speaks the thoughts of many hearts. No one can talk with cautious bankers or financiers without running upon distrust of the soundness of the present position. Still more sail must be taken in if we are not to run upon the rocks which Mr. Vanderlip indicates in the course on which we have been so light-heartedly steering. His sound and courageous speech will have its value as a political landmark, set up before the elections that might result in a Democratic House, when every Republican orator would be found crying that prosperity was chilled and enterprise furled her wings instantly on hearing the news. A parallel to the old lies about who "brought on the hard times" in 1893 would be devised, we may be sure. But Mr. Vanderlip's address will remain for the historian, just as did the action of Secretary Foster early in 1893 in preparing to borrow money for the Treasury which a Republican Administration and Republican laws had emptied, to show that a financial rake's progress was detected by cool observers long before any election.

### *THE PERFECT PLASTERER.*

The reasons for the plasterers' strike which at present is delaying the construction of many great buildings in this city, will be clear enough to all who are so fortunate as to possess a little pamphlet entitled "Instructions for Foremen Plasterers and Information for Employers," being apparently an extract from the constitution of the Operative Plasterers' Society. First of all, the foreman of any plastering job, however small, is certified by the Society, and is responsible, not to his employer and paymaster, but to the body which has made him a foreman. Rather than work under these conditions, the employers have taken the chances of a strike. The duty of the foreman is primarily "to see that all men working under him are in good standing in this Society." The foreman, should he employ a non-member, becomes immediately responsible for his initiation fee. Should he fail to report a non-member put upon a job, the same penalty applies. But the most grievous offence which a foreman can commit is "insisting on rushing the men," or similarly "bringing about a condition of affairs that would be detrimental to the members of this Society." This, if proved against him, is punishable by a fine, suspension, or, at the second offence, by degradation to the ranks.

As one passes from the foreman to the laborers, the plasterers' vademecum assumes increasingly the character of a "Don't" book For example: Don't take more than three apprentices, and don't let any of them work at other work than plastering; don't rough-plaster more than ten tenement-house rooms in two days; don't finish the work in less than six days more; finally, don't do alone what can be done with the aid of a fellow-member, or, textually, "It shall not be allowable for members to work single-handed at any part of the trade of plastering where two men can work to advantage. Foremen will be held strictly responsible for the violation of this rule."

Employers have very little place or honor in this manual, though one may infer from certain clauses that they still retain the privilege of paying their men. This right, however, has its limitations, for do we not read that "none but members in good standing in the O. P. S. shall be permitted to work at the trade of plastering, within the jurisdiction of the above Society"? Just how far the sovereignty of the Operative Plasterers' Society extends is left uncertain, but, from the article on "country work," students of spheres of influence would argue that its jurisdiction is extensive. Country jobs are to be paid for at the city rate, plus board and travelling expenses; and none but members of the O. P. S. are to be employed, except that in case there is a local union, "permission" is given to employers to take on one-half local union men at local union rates. Again, employers enjoy the more costly privilege of paying by the day certain workmen with whom they have a dispute until the dispute be settled. Article xiii., section 8: "After working eight hours, a member shall receive his wages if he demands it" (*i. e.*, may leave the work at will, but may not be discharged by his employer); but "if the member's demands are not complied with, he shall receive the regular rate of wages *for all working time he is waiting*." What power enforces this provision is left as indefinite as is the precise "jurisdiction" of the O. P. S.

If we should now ask in Wordsworthian phrase, "Who is the happy plasterer, who is he?" the answer would be plain from the above. He is a workman who renounces the ambition of doing much work for much pay, and accepts irrevocably the standard of the average workman; he is a workman who takes his orders, not from his employer, who is responsible for the work, but from his union foreman, who is responsible, through the "walking delegate," to the union; he is a workman whose task is laid down with mediæval minuteness—the method, the time to be given to each stage of the plastering; finally, he is a workman who is forbidden to manifest extraordinary individual excellence or industry, under penalty of living in what Commissioner Sargent euphemistically calls "a disagreeable atmosphere." Such is the portrait of the perfect plasterer as it is presented in his own book, and it all recalls the "gospel of work" compiled some ten years ago by certain graceless undergraduates of a New England college. Of this gospel of work the first doctrine was: "Don't work immediately before or after eating"; and the second and last was "Don't work between meals." The plasterers have not yet reached this fine simplicity, but they are clearly in the right way, and the British unions, with their "ca' canny" system, show where organized labor's primrose path is leading.

### *LITERARY AND MUSICAL PLAGIARISM.*

The verdict of the Supreme Court in awarding to Mr. Victor Herbert $15,000 damages will probably diminish the number of charges of plagiarism that have heretofore been brought in great numbers against both composers and authors. The man of letters has one great advantage over the musician: by the simple expedient of using quotation marks, he can honorably appropriate anything he likes in the whole range of

literature. "Blessed be the inverted commas," he may often say to himself. Emerson went so far as to declare that, "next to the originator of a good sentence, is the first quoter of it." Yet, despite this advantage, in thousands of cases authors have preferred to pilfer the ideas of others, and to present them in the disguise of a different phraseology. When Macaulay wrote, "The Puritans hated bear-baiting, not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators," he may or may not have remembered that Hume had written, "Even bear-baiting was esteemed heathenish and unchristian: the sport of it, not the inhumanity, gave offence." But his way of putting the same thing is so much more felicitous than Hume's that we pardon the plagiarism.

Lowell sums up the philosophy of the subject in two lines:

> "Though old the thought and oft exprest,
> 'Tis his at last who says it best."

The footnotes in Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations' showing how many of the best things of the greatest writers were said by others before them, seem to argue that Mr. Andrew Lang was right in declaring that "there are no new ideas." Virgil stole from Homer, but Homer was not original: "all his incidents were of primeval antiquity, even in his own time; he plagiarized them from popular stories; he stole the Cyclops almost ready-made." Shakspere hardly ever invented a plot or incident, but took his material wherever he pleased; yet no one esteems him the less therefor, probably because, as Voltaire said, "Of all forms of theft, plagiarism is the least dangerous to society." Poe's attack on "Longfellow and other plagiarists" did not damage the Cambridge poet; nor was Tennyson injured by those who cried "Stop, thief!" in his case. Mr. Lang remarks that, "according to a recent biographer of Byron, originality can be expected from nobody except a lunatic, a hermit, or a sensational novelist."

While musicians have no quotation marks to legalize borrowings, there is one way in which they can honestly appropriate melodies written by others, namely, by writing fantasias on operas or other compositions. In this line Liszt was a supreme master; he could take a piece by almost any composer, however great, and, in paraphrasing it, or arranging it for other instruments, usually improve on the original. Folk melodies are also considered common property for any one to appropriate. But in original compositions no musician can adopt the melodies or peculiar harmonic combinations of another without incurring the charge of plagiarism. It is no wonder that most composers have incurred it. Richard Wagner was decried at the same time as an iconoclast and as a "plagiarist of Mendelssohn" and others. Undoubtedly there are passages in his works that do recall his predecessors and idols. His early operas suggest Weber and Marschner. In his Nibelung dramas the motive of the dwarfs is rhythmically like the theme of the scherzo in Schubert's D minor quartet. There are also borrowings from Liszt, whose symphonic works he was reading with enthusiasm at the time he was writing his Tetralogy. When it came to a rehearsal of "Die Walküre," in 1876, Wagner suddenly exclaimed: "Here comes a theme which I got from you." And Liszt took the matter very calmly. "Very well," he replied, "that will at last give it a chance to be heard."

Brahms was a great borrower of other people's melodies. His appropriations from Beethoven, in his first symphony, almost amount to unacknowledged quotation. Brahms made no secret of his method; when some one called his attention to something he had taken from Mendelssohn, he replied, "Any ass could tell that." In their early works all the great masters copied their models; Mozart wrote like Haydn, Beethoven, like Mozart, Schubert like Beethoven, Chopin like Hummel, Grieg like Schumann, and so on. Indeed, the only meaning that can be attached to the expression a "school of music" must refer to imitation, which is a kind of plagiarism.

The most unblushing and persistent of musical plagiarists was the pious Handel. So extensive were his practices in this line that one of his most ardent English admirers dubbed him "the grand old thief." Crotch made a list, in 1831, of twenty-nine composers from whom he had "conveyed," and there are others. There could have been no objection to his borrowing fugue themes, for they, like opera librettos in Italy, were at that time common property; but he appropriated, by wholesale, complete pieces of music from the works of other composers, in the most barefaced way. Some of the biographers of Handel have attempted to minimize his flagrant thefts; but the most authoritative of them, Dr. Chryander, rises to the occasion. A fanatic Handel enthusiast, he does not, as might have been expected, denounce those who accuse his divinity of plagiarism; on the contrary, he savagely attacks those who deny the charge, and, with deep erudition, shows up their ignorance. But—and here is the gist of the matter—"he considers," as Mr. Shedlock writes, "that Handel glorified any composer from whom he borrowed, and points triumphantly to the honor which had been paid to the Erba Magnificat and the Urio Te Deum—the latter he had himself published—solely on account of the use Handel had made of them." In view of all these facts, it would seem that modern composers, if accused of plagiarism, could afford to smile, and, if vain—as most musicians are—retort: "Yes, but see how I have improved on my predecessor." And the experience of the past shows that whenever a plagiarism is an improvement, it is sure to be forgiven.

### *A CENTURY OF REVIEWING.*

Probably the last way to stir the reading world of 1902 would be to launch a quarterly magazine, and it is somewhat difficult to imagine the sensational success of the venture of Jeffrey, Sydney Smith, and Brougham a hundred years ago. A glance at the early numbers of the *Edinburgh Review* suggests, as Sir Leslie Stephen has said, that the excitement over each issue was a case of much ado about nothing. And, in fact, cocksure Whiggism in politics and equally cocksure Toryism in letters, were the only ingredients of popularity that the new review contained. Yet the October number, which marks the centenary of this famous review, illustrates excellently the grounds of its permanent influence. The *Edinburgh Review* of October, 1902, comes out in the modest typographical form which it had at the beginning; offers in politics that attenuation of Whiggism which modern Liberalism has come to be; and exemplifies in letters, if not the savagery which slated a Wordsworth and a Byron, at least a conservatism which is severe towards all unruly talent. Such a consistency of purpose and principle is hardly exhibited elsewhere, even in the case of the *Edinburgh's* early rival, the *Quarterly Review*. If the mantle of Jeffrey has grown thin with wear, it rests naturally enough upon the shoulders of the anonymous contributors to the centenary number.

This consistency, based upon a fixed philosophy to which all individual cases are referred, was an unheard-of thing in the journalism of 1802, and now, after a hundred years, is still highly exceptional, and, we believe, valuable. The *Edinburgh* did for English politics very much what the writers for the *Federalist* and the protagonists of the French Revolution had already done for their respective nations—raised it from the level of libellous pamphleteering and venal journalism to that of serious debate. But some such reform was already in the air, and the service of the new review to literature was, though unconsciously, even greater than its services to Liberalism. It would not be to much to say that the *Edinburgh* fairly created critical book-reviewing.

There had been various attempts from the close of the seventeenth century to review the current literary production, but these criticisms had invariably fallen into the hands of booksellers' hacks and other "obscure hirelings," as Smollet in his *Critical Review* called them. And, in fact, the great works of Pope, Fielding, Goldsmith, Gray, to name no others, received, unless they became the subject of literary controversy, only

such comment as town talk afforded. It was, then, a complete and welcome novelty to find honest men of vigorous intellectual parts writing down with absolute fearlessness their personal judgment on the books of the day. And if to-day there are still those who have the courage of their literary convictions and feel that the appeal to first principles is always salutary, they are the legitimate descendants of the courageous young men who founded the *Edinburgh Review*.

It were easy to point out both the doctrinal weakness of this philosophic method of criticism and the concrete errors of judgment which resulted therefrom. The criticism of Macaulay illustrates the merits and defects of the method. He is the Edinburgh Reviewer *par excellence*. His somewhat insensitive nature, which readily converted political differences into literary dislikes; his trenchant manner, with no other ornament than the brilliancy of the thought; his prodigious reading and sometimes unwise readiness to descant *de omnibus rebus et quibusdam aliis*—all these Macaulayan characteristics show doctrinaire reviewing at its best and at its worst. It is easy, we have said, to see the defects of such a conception of the critic's office; imperfect sympathy, rhetorical exaggeration, unconscious misrepresentation, are among the most obvious. From such faults the doctrinaire reviewer will never be wholly free. And yet the method of Macaulay presents merits which the reviewing of to-day signally lacks. It shows, to begin with, a certain confidence in the intellectuality of the average reader. The Edinburgh reviewers were beset by no fears that their readers would not follow a serious train of reasoning. To-day, reviewers of equal competence are prone to seek the mole-like obscurity of the philological or scientific periodicals. The Edinburgh reviewers held it to be their function to study subjects and measure books by the great standards of literature and scholarship. The reviewer of to-day disbelieves in standards, too often is passably ignorant of literature and scholarship, and holds that his duty lies in the amiable advertisement of books and authors. If the reviewing of Jeffrey and Sydney Smith was frequently narrow and dogmatic, it at least never descended to mere chit-chat; it unfailingly made its appeal, not to the reader's curiosity, but to his intelligence.

Any danger that may come from academic aloofness and doctrinaire intolerance is far less than the danger that comes from ignorance and vulgarity. Any critical attitude, however prejudiced, is better for literature and for life than the negation of criticism. For a hundred years the *Edinburgh Review* has carried proudly its style, "a critical journal," and now it will receive from all sides those sturdy congratulations which belong of right to him who fights a good fight and keeps the faith.

## THE BODLEIAN TERCENTENARY.

BALLIOL COLLEGE, October 18, 1902.

The occasion of the 300th anniversary of the foundation of the "public" library of Oxford University by Sir Thomas Bodley has proved a most interesting one. The days set apart for it were Wednesday and Thursday of last week, October 8 and 9. The actual date of the ceremonial and processional inauguration of the Bodleian in 1602 was November 8, but the Gregorian Calendar, adopted in 1582 by most Roman Catholic countries, was not recognized in the England of King James, so that the actual day of the tercentenary had to be fixed in October, and it was convenient for various reasons to put it early rather than late in the month.

The assemblage of delegates was most imposing. They numbered 150 odd, and represented universities, libraries, academies, and learned bodies, in all parts of Great Britain and the British Empire, France, Germany, Italy, Holland, Belgium, Austria, Denmark, Norway and Sweden, Spain, Switzerland, the United States, Chili, and Egypt. There were also more than sixty especially invited guests. Upon their arrival in Oxford these gentlemen were severally welcomed at various colleges and private houses, and at nine o'clock were duly brought to the Vice-Chancellor's evening reception, in the Ashmolean Museum and University Galleries. For many of them, no doubt, this was their first view of the treasures which have accumulated during the directorship of the present keeper of Ashmole's Museum, Mr. Arthur Evans; and, for all, the special exhibition, in the Slade professor's studio, of drawings, plans, and photographs illustrating the keeper's recent discoveries at Knossos, was a revelation. The brilliant effect produced by the various robes academical worn upon this occasion can scarcely be exaggerated. The shades of yellow, ranging from a delicate English cowslip hue to something verging closely upon orange, which characterized the robes of the Universities of Paris, Lille, Nancy, and Caen, the resplendent folds of the gowns worn by Oxford doctors of music, and the gorgeous reds of Oxford doctors of civil law, were thrown into relief by the black robes of the Oxonian M.A.'s, each one of whom wore the red silk hood reserved for state occasions. There were dark blue hoods from Yale and Edinburgh, and black gowns slashed with broad bands of yellow; and also the newly devised gowns of the Oxford doctorates in science and letters lent brilliancy to the scene, which was made more gorgeous by the evening toilettes of the many ladies present.

The result was something which must have come nearer than any ordinary festal assemblage of our time to the color effects of state ceremonial occasions in the seventeenth century. For once the regulation black of men's attire was discarded, and every bidden guest came in bright colors to the festival, with the exception of the few representatives whose university authorities have not sanctioned the wearing of hoods or of academical costumes. Here and there a delegated librarian appeared in the uniform of the civil service to which he belonged. Altogether, the effect to the eye was as unique as was the occasion which caused the assemblage. Those who had been present at the recent Yale University Bicentennial spoke of the striking resemblance—with a difference, of course—between this occasion and that. Indeed, in the merely superficial matter of academic costume, it is plain that our American academic tradition has altered since the 250th anniversary of the foundation of Harvard, in 1886, and perhaps we may take this as an outward sign of the closer association between American and English universities feelingly dwelt upon at New Haven by Dr. James Wilson, the Oxford delegate in 1901.

Having been received officially by the Vice-Chancellor on Wednesday evening, the delegates and guests all assembled in the Sheldonian Theatre to participate in the proceedings of the University there assembled in Convocation for the purpose of conferring honorary degrees, of receiving addresses of congratulation, and of hearing the Latin oration of the Public Orator, the Rev. W. W. Merry, D.D., Rector of Lincoln College. When we reflect that the whole celebration centred around the memory of Sir Thomas Bodley, who retired after a brilliant ambassadorial career, and devoted his fortune and energies to establishing the great library which bears his name, we can appreciate the dramatic appropriateness which brought to Oxford the American Ambassador at Berlin, founder of the Andrew D. White Library at Cornell University, as the delegate representing Yale University, and made him head the distinguished roster of those honored by the degree of D.C.L. In this connection it is also gratifying to note that Mr. Willard Fiske, whose unique services as librarian and collector have so vastly enriched the Cornell Library, was able to be present as a specially invited guest; the Cornell Librarian, Mr. Harris, being its delegated representative. Lord Strathcona and Mount Royal, Chancellor of McGill University, came next, and was enthusiastically acclaimed as the representative of Canada and of the British Colonies. Dr. Feodor Martens of St. Petersburg University was then presented for the degree, and the eulogium of him by Professor Goudy touched upon the same themes dwelt upon by President Hadley in conferring upon him the degree of LL.D. at the Yale Bicentennial. A compatriot of Dr. Martens, Professor Vinogradoff, closed the line of those receiving the D.C.L., and was greeted as a typical representative of the Slavic genius, as well as a familiar friend of Oxford University and a student of the laws and customs of England and Western Europe.

Professor Poulton then introduced for the Degree of D.Sc. the senior delegate from Harvard, Prof. Charles Sedgwick Minot, speaking of his scientific preëminence, and of his presidency of the "Societas Americana ad augendam Scientiam instituta, quam Societatis nostræ Britannicæ sororem carissimam iure dicere possum." He also touched upon Harvard University as yielding in antiquity to the Bodleian "non nisi quinquaginta fere annorum spatio." Last came those presented by Professor Bywater for the Degree of D.Litt., twelve in number. Count Ugo Balzani, representing two Roman societies, came first; then Dr.

J. B. Bury, Regius Professor of Greek at Dublin, was honored; and after him in strict alphabetical order came Dr. James H. Canfield, the well-known Librarian of Columbia University, and Mr. John Willis Clark, Registrary of Cambridge University and the author of an authoritative book on Mediæval Libraries. Three librarians then followed one another, Mr. Jenkinson of the Cambridge University Library, Geheimrat Dr. Georg von Laubman of Munich, and M. Henri Omont of the Bibliothèque Nationale and the Institute of France. The Royal Academy of Berlin was next honored in its eminent representative Geheimer Regierungsrat Dr. Edward Sachau, and then the Rector of Vienna University, Dr. Schipper, was presented and acclaimed Doctor of Letters, and upon him followed Dr. de Vries, Librarian at Leyden, and Mr. George F. Warner of the MSS. department at the British Museum. Last came Professor Andrew F. West of Princeton University, whose reception showed how well-remembered in Oxford were the hospitalities extended at Princeton to those who, not many years ago, took part in the anniversary celebration of that university.

These Latin presentations for degrees being over, the Registrar of the University called, from where he stood by the Vice-Chancellor's side, the long roll of universities, academies, and learned societies which had sent addresses of congratulation. Nineteen British, four French, thirteen German, one Italian, two Dutch, five Austrian, four Scandinavian, two Russian, five Swiss, and seven United States universities handed in variously blazoned, written, and engrossed addresses; and when to these, as they accumulated in cases and boxes of all shapes, were added the written congratulations of libraries, academies, and learned bodies in both hemispheres and on all continents, the resulting mass formed a most formidable barrow, but one of which Oxford may well be as proud as she is of the Saxon mound which is her most ancient monument.

The last business at this meeting of the University in Convocation was by no means the least interesting. Latin in the skilful hands of the Public Orator can hardly be stigmatized as a dead language. Those who frequent the yearly Eucænia know from experience that he can sway his audience with the genuine power of living oratory, and are accustomed to lend themselves with delight to the charm of his rich, sonorous voice, by which they are led through the events of each succeeding year as it closes. When the topic is gay, Dr. Merry can provoke his audience to roars of laughter, and few will forget, who heard them, the deep feeling of his words upon the South African war, just closed, before his oration of last June. The admiration and interest with which all who were present listened to Dr. Merry's *Oratio in Theatro Sheldoniano habita trecentesimum annum a Bibliotheca Bodleiana condita celebrantibus Academicis*, were unmistakable; and I feel sure that those of your readers who have taken interest in American academical celebrations and anniversaries, which have in the present generation been both abundant and imposing, will be glad to know that the Bodleian Oration has been published verbatim in the *Oxford University Gazette* for October 17, 1902.

After a genial welcome to all present in the name of hospitality and on the strength of common pursuit, Dr. Merry contemplated the nothingness of 300 years while he cast his backward glance into the era of letters in Accad and at Nineveh, and adverted to the miraculous revelations of a still remoter day of literature which had yielded to the zealous investigations of "Musæi Ashmoleani custos noster," by whom he hoped they would soon be published. Ancient Egypt, the Ptolemies, the Pergamene kings, Augustus, and Trajan arrested his thought for a moment, and then he dwelt upon the wanton ruin and waste of the barbarian invasions, and gloried in the scholarship of the revival of letters. In this whole train of retrospect, there was a recognition of the remote past which is characteristic of the prevailing atmosphere of Oxford, and may be contrasted with President Eliot's exultant strain of pride in the achievements of modern days and the more immediate past, in his speech at the Yale Bicentennial. "The human world has been made over since Yale was founded," said President Eliot, and he added: "She antedates the accepted basal ideas of existing civilized governments, and their actual forms, whether called empire, monarchy, or republic. She antedates all professions except the ministry and the law, and all the implements of labor and transportation in modernized countries." Striking as is this expression of a genuinely typical modern mood, Dr. Merry was no less eloquent and expressed quite as adequately an equally typical mood of our time when he said, after speaking of the Oxford anniversary rejoicing: "Nevertheless we are not such dullards (*insulsi*) that we rate these three hundred years at more than the estimation of a pin-prick's breadth of time (*punctum temporis minimum*)."

Into the history of the Library at Oxford before Bodley's day and the praises of its benefactors since that day, lack of space forbids me to follow the Public Orator, and I can only touch upon the warm tribute paid by him to the sister University of Cambridge and to other like institutions in the Empire. A peculiar gracefulness of voice and diction marked his greeting to the mother University of Paris, and his mention by name of its representative, M. Alfred Croiset, Director of the Sorbonne, whose recent address at Harvard has left so lasting an impression in America. He deplored that time did not serve him to say all that he would of the famous men who had come from the older universities of Europe or from the younger and vigorous universities of America, "from whom the older institutions had much to learn." Finally, after dwelling upon the great Frenchmen of the old days who had influenced Oxford from the mother university in Paris, the Orator launched into the general subject of the progress in science and the arts as represented by so many distinguished guests not delegated from universities, and concluded a much-applauded speech of welcome in the words with which Dido welcomed Æneas.

The whole assemblage of Convocation then dispersed, and gathered for a time in the Divinity School and the various rooms of the Bodleian, their passage from the Sheldonian being rendered unduly embarrassing by one of those heavy downpours which must be expected in the autumnal season at Oxford. Finally, the whole celebration closed with a banquet in Christ Church dining-hall, where 300 covers were laid. Splendid as the hall of Christ Church is, it is far inferior acoustically alike to the more ancient hall of New College and the very modern one of Balliol College, in either of which would have been heard to better advantage the memorable after-dinner speech in which Sir Richard Jebb, representing, in conjunction with Mr. George Macmillan, the Hellenic Society, declared that "Bodley wrought for Oxford first and England, but also for the world, the wide commonwealth of letters"; and added that he was on that occasion memorably saluted "in his own illustrious University" by "representatives of that cosmopolitan brotherhood." Time runs short for speaking of the toasts to the Bodleian, to the guests, for whom response was made by the Hon. A. D. White and M. Paul Meyer, and to the University, for which the Vice-Chancellor made answer. Suffice it to say that this unique commemoration was brought to a successful close in the dining-hall of Christ Church, and the numerous delegates appear to have enjoyed the whole occasion. Expressions of thanks to Mr. A. Cowley, the sub-librarian, upon whom the heaviest duties of organization fell, were warm and frequent.

If in the confusion of a heavy rainstorm their visit to the Bodleian was somewhat cut short, it is to be hoped this was made up to the delegates by the beautiful book printed for the occasion, and handed to each of them as a memento of the pleasure they gave by their presence at the celebration. This quarto volume of fifty printed pages contains eleven beautifully executed photographic plates, one photographic book-plate, and three full-page photographic facsimiles. It is entitled 'Pietas Oxoniensis in Memory of Sir Thomas Bodley, Knt., and the Foundation of the Bodleian Library.' As this book is not published, it is likely to figure among the unprocurable desiderata of future bibliomaniacs. The Oxford-blue cover has the Bodley medal on its front, and on its back the University arms, as used by Joseph Barnes, University printer in 1585. A life of Thomas Bodley, with the history of the University Library before his day, fills the bulk of the volume, which also gives Bodley's genealogy *in extenso*, a short account of gifts, transfers, bequests, and deposits, a register of successive librarians, and a very full account of all Bodleian catalogues. The frontispiece portrait of Bodley, two other representations of him—all three from originals in the Library—are uncommonly fine plates, as also is the plate reproducing the portrait "by or after Van Dyck" of Archbishop Laud, which is one of the Bodleian treasures. John Selden's picture by Mytens, and a striking, though less skilful, portrayal of Rawlinson, as well as a delightful crayon-drawing of Douce, admirably reproduced, all conspire to make of this sumptuous volume a worthy memento of the academic commemoration just brought to a close.

But the fortunate coöperation at Oxford of the oldest of learned libraries with the oldest existing university press has made possible a timely publication which learned librarians and students of bibliography may well regard as, *par excellence*, the most permanently valuable contribution of Oxford learning to the universal commonwealth of letters that has signalized the Bodleian Tercentenary. It is, indeed, a

coincidence worthy of more than passing notice which brought to their timely completion the twelve-year-long labors of Mr. Reginald Lane-Poole, and enabled the Clarendon Press to publish on the day of the Tercentenary a volume of the 'Anecdota Oxoniensia,' containing in 580 pages Mr. Poole's learned edition of a hitherto unpublished bibliographical MS. preserved among Selden's Bodleian stores. The full title runs as follows: 'Anecdota Oxoniensia: Index Britanniæ Scriptorum quos ex variis bibliothecis non parvo labore collegit Ioannes Baleus cum aliis' (John Bale's Index of British and Other Writers, edited by Reginald Lane-Poole, M.A., Ph.D., Fellow of St. Mary Magdalen College, Oxford, with the help of Mary Bateson, associate and lecturer of Newnham College, Cambridge). Those who are aware of the editor's manifold and exacting duties as University Reader in Diplomatics, managing editor of the *English Historical Review*, and college tutor and lecturer in history, will marvel at the vast range and extent of his learned industry, and above all will associate with the Bodleian Tercentenary commemoration unequivocal evidences that sound and devoted scholarship still flourishes at Oxford as of yore. LOUIS DYER.

# Correspondence.

## TO WRITERS ABOUT ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interests of realism, may I offer a caution to American writers who have occasion to describe the speech of uneducated Englishmen? The efforts made on this side of the Atlantic to represent the Cockney's misuse of "h" are almost invariably grotesque failures, for the reason that no notice is taken of the difference between accented and unaccented syllables. For instance, the editor of a Boston magazine has lately been giving an account of his experiences in the London streets on Coronation Day, and he makes his policemen say, "Hit's a Yank just harrived," "Hit's against horders," "You're one of those Hamerican newspaper chaps." Now if any policemen really spoke in this fashion they were undoubtedly Americans, even though they lived in London, for no one but an American speaks so slowly and with such a lack of vocal inflection as to be able to take breath before an unaccented syllable. "Horders" is good Cockney, for the aspirate is prefixed to a syllable on which the stress falls, but every other example of the superfluous "h" in these three quotations is an evidence of the reporter's deficiency in exact observation. In the sentence I have just written "haspirate," "hevery," "hother," "hevidence," and "hobservation" would be possible to an uneducated Englishman; an American journalist would attribute to him also "hexample" and "hexact," and in this would certainly be wrong. The London policeman himself could tell him that "h" is used for "hemphasis."—Yours faithfully,

H. W. H.

# Notes.

A volume of Mr. James Bryce's personal estimates, entitled 'Biographical Sketches,' will be published directly by Macmillan. Gladstone, Beaconsfield, Freeman, Parnell, Cardinal Manning, Dean Stanley, Lord Acton are some of the figures in this portrait gallery.

Messrs. Scribner announce 'Across Coveted Lands, or a Journey from Flushing to Calcutta, Overland,' by A. H. Savage Landor; 'Biblical Quotations in Old English Prose Writers,' by Prof. A. S. Cook; and 'The Elements of Experimental Phonetics,' by Prof. Edward W. Scripture.

Doubleday, Page & Co. will add to their "New Nature Library" 'American Animals: A Popular and Intimate Guide to the Mammals of North America North of Mexico,' by Witmer Stone and William Everitt Cram, with six colored plates and more than 130 photographs from life.

Forthcoming from John Lane are 'Selected Poems,' by William Watson; 'The Triumph of Love: A Sonnet Sequence,' by Edmond Holmes; 'Later Lyrics,' by John B. Tabb; 'Poems from Wordsworth,' chosen and edited by T. Sturge Moore; and 'Sonnets of Ronsard'—the two last-named volumes from the Vale Press, and sumptuously made.

A. C. Armstrong & Son announce 'John Mackenzie, South African Missionary and Statesman,' by Prof. W. Douglas Mackenzie; and 'The Story of the Martyr Isle, Erromanga,' by John Fraser, LL.D.

From the Outlook Co. will proceed George Kennan's 'Tragedy of Mt. Pelée'; 'From Grieg to Brahms,' by Daniel Gregory Mason; and 'Religious Life in America,' by Ernest Hamlin Abbott, a book of personal observation and travel.

'A Tour in Mexico,' by Mrs. James Edwin Morris, and 'Ruskin's Mornings in Florence,' by Margaret Baker, are in preparation by the Abbey Press.

A book is to be made of the articles on the 'Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park' contributed to the Brooklyn *Daily Eagle* by Louis Harman Peet, who will be his own publisher.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will add to their "American Men of Letters" series a Life of Prescott the historian, by Rollo Ogden.

'Barbizon Days,' by Prof. Charles Sprague Smith, is in the press of A. Wessels Co. It deals with Millet, Rousseau, Corot, and Barye.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, will issue directly 'Franklin's Educational Ideal,' prepared by David E. Cloyd.

From John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, we are to have 'The Lords Baltimore and the Maryland Palatinate,' six lectures by Clayton L. Hall.

William Briggs, Toronto, will publish Mr. Henry James Morgan's 'Types of Canadian Women and of Women Connected with Canada, Past and Present,' portraits and biographies, in two volumes.

It was in Boston that Samuel Lover landed in September, 1846, on his sole visit to this country, and a six-volume reissue of his works is appropriately made in that city by Little, Brown & Co. Mr. James Jeffrey Roche contributes an introduction more biographical than critical; but then, Lover is a writer whom one cannot approach in a critical mood, so attractive is his genial personality. He is wholly in character in his modest preface to the volume of his poems, which descend to a non-singing age (as compared with his). He has occasion there to explain the difference between songs made for singing and others—like Byron's, Milton's, even Shelley's, as contrasted with Burns's and Moore's. Lover's dramas form another volume, the 'Legends' a third, and the chief novels eke out the remainder of the set. There are frontispiece illustrations, including a portrait, and some of Lover's own designs are found in the 'Legends.' Perhaps the most interesting thing in Mr. Roche's story is the fact that a daughter of Lover's is still living, the mother of our well-known conductor and composer, Victor Herbert, whose musical gift greatly surpasses his grandfather's, and of a half-German actor, who hands down another trait of Samuel Lover's versatile talent. This edition is handsomely got up and brand new.

'The Struggle for a Continent' (Little, Brown & Co.) is an abridgment of Parkman in one volume, which has been made by Dr. Pelham Edgar of Victoria College, Toronto. It would obviously be fatuous for an editor to take Parkman's facts and compress them in his own words. According to such an arrangement, altogether too much would be sacrificed for the sake of giving a consecutive, unbroken story. Dr. Edgar employs the alternative method of condensation. The passages chosen are cited in the *ipsissima verba* of the original, and connecting links of narrative, placed within brackets, are supplied by the editor. The source of each excerpt is carefully noted, and, as a rule, the passages are sufficiently long to do the author justice. It may be doubted whether one who was unfamiliar with the general history of New France would be able, even with the aid of Dr. Edgar's connecting links, to seize all the main features of the struggle by mastering the contents of the present volume. Few readers, however, will fail to have some preliminary knowledge of the subject, and those who are unable to buy a complete set of Parkman's works will find these selections much better than nothing. The appearance of the book is attractive, and the text is accompanied by numerous half-tone illustrations.

The Rev. Edgerton R. Young, for years a missionary to the Indians in the region of Winnipeg Lake and the Red River of the North, presents in the little volume entitled 'My Dogs in the Northland' (Fleming H. Revell Co.) some account of the sledge dogs he has known. There is room for a book which shall tell us about dogs, harness, and sledges, and the art of transportation in a country without roads or artificial shelter for the traveller. It is somewhat strange that among the many who have had to do with travel in the wintry north, no one has yet written such a book. To do it well would be no trifling task, and when well done it would be not only interesting to the curious reader, but a solid contribution to ethnology and the psychology of domesticated animals. Unfortunately, the book under consideration is little more than pleasant gossip about a few particular Newfoundland dogs or mongrels. Some of the stories are very remarkable, and yet are told in a way that leaves one questioning how much that is not canine has been unconsciously attributed to the beasts under discussion. It is much the same as the case of the nurse and her smiling infant—a question of interpretation. However, the somewhat fragmentary yarns are pleasantly spun and may well serve to pass an idle hour.

Dr. C. W. Larisun's 'Hwot iz the Sol? Haz the Dog a Sol?' (Ringoes, N. J.; Fonic Publishing House), is a discussion in the form of a colloquy between the author and his students regarding the life principle. Like all the later writings of this estimable physician and instructor, it is printed in the phonetic type devised by himself, together with some syntactical and verbal eccentricities soon mastered and not troublesome. Indeed, one quickly learns to read the strange page fluently. The argument embraces something of Dr. Larisun's autobiography having a psychological aspect, and introduces other experiences of a kindred nature. His ante-Darwinian idea is that the Creator, in order to differentiate the species, "created the primordial life-principle of the members of every species different"; and "the psyche of an animal of some species possesses faculties which are not parts of the psyche of animals of other species."

Mr. Edward Robins's 'Romances of Early America' (Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.) is a réchauffé consisting of twelve chapters, beginning with such well-worn themes as the Mischianza and the love of Agnes Surriage for Sir Charles Frankland, and traversing the love affairs of Washington, Jefferson, and Madison, as well as of Edwin Forrest—a personage we find difficulty in associating with "Early America." In fact, the scope of the book does not extend back of the eighteenth century. The compiler's style is above the average of that commonly met with in works of this class. The portraits and views are not too well printed.

'The Romance of Old New England Roof-trees,' by Mary C. Crawford (Boston: L. C. Page & Co.), admits itself to be a case of book-making, and thus throws itself on the mercy of the public. The author has collected a number of illustrations, showing houses that have histories, and has retold the stories that go with the houses. Some of the stories are hardly worth preserving, and the same may be said of the houses; but if there is a "real need," as the foreword says, for an illustrated collection of these tales, this book seems adapted to meet it.

We cannot particularly congratulate Miss Jane Barlow upon her last work, 'The Founding of Fortunes' (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), as a novel. As a delineator of the ways of speech of the less English-educated of the people of Ireland, the author is inimitable. In this respect the present book falls behind none of its predecessors. But the story does not run smoothly, and the characters are somewhat wooden. It impresses us as the work of one who has lived more in her own thoughts than in the world, and still one wonders how the language likely to have been used in circumstances such as she has probably never experienced, strikes the reader as so true to nature. Occasionally, we have come upon passages not easy to understand, *e. g.*, page 101: "Hanmer became aware, in some scarcely definable way, that there was about them both the sort of uncommonness due to an impersonal attitude towards things in general, quite compatible with a most strenuous grasp of practical affairs, but not with a voluntary subjection to irrelevant trivialities." The book is written in a sympathetic spirit towards the position in which large numbers of the peasantry of Ireland find themselves.

We can heartily commend to all instructors in English a little volume entitled 'Freshman English and Theme-Correcting in Harvard College' (Silver, Burdett & Co.). It is the joint production of C. T. Copeland, lecturer on English literature, and H. M. Rideout, instructor in English. Their own literary skill is attested by the readableness of their exposition, in which a pleasant humor finds a natural vent. Thus, at the close of the course "English A," freshmen are asked to pass judgment on it; and our authors, following their practice of quoting examples of illustrative productions, give one which pronounces it "dull and uninteresting." Their comment is: "This, by the way, is less discouraging to instructors because, when compared with any of the writer's earlier work, it shows a distinct gain in structure. If he has got nothing else from his practice, he has learned to complain more effectively." The first fortnightly theme elicits an autobiography, of practical use to instructors; the three-hour talks are contrived to range from composition into ethics—to the advantage of the students, as witness the admirable extract from Dean Briggs on page 27. Daily themes, translation, letter-writing, fiction are the chief instrumentalities, together with *pastiche*, or the doubtful discipline in deliberate imitation of stylists. Poetical drill hardly exists, we judge. The authors rightly think that Harvard's experience is profitable for smaller institutions, for classes and for individuals.

For the excellent revision of Cotton's seventeenth-century translation of "Montaigne" (Scribners) in four fine library volumes, readers are indebted to the indefatigable Mr. William C. Hazlitt, whose labors have consisted chiefly in the correction of numerous errors of detail, and in improving many renderings vaguely or ambiguously given in the original version. Cotton's slightly archaic diction and phrasing unquestionably bring out the flavor of Montaigne's style with a smack that would disappear in a conventional modern dilution. Mr. Hazlitt consequently has confined himself to improvement, and has nowhere, so far as we have observed, completely recast a telling sentence. Familiar essays, such as those on Books, on Some Verses of Vergil, on a Custom of the Isle of Cea, etc., are very faithfully represented here. In the "Apologie de Raimond Sebond" we note a number of changes that give greater coherence to involved meanings; but the translations of classical quotations occasionally err in the direction of excessive paraphrasing.

M. Hippolyte Buffenoir's 'Les Charmettes et J.-J. Rousseau' (Paris: Paul Cornuau) is a provincial's account of a visit to the home of Mme. de Warens. It is rather a rhapsody than the study it professes to be, but is the latest report of the condition of this singularly preserved monument of a frail woman and a great genius. Some plates accompany the little brochure, including portraits and a view of Rousseau's room; the exterior view of the house might well have been photographic instead of from an old print. Our author cites good botanical authority for the contention that the venerable "jasmin de Virginie," or trumpet creeper, which covers the garden side of Les Charmettes, dates from the 18th century, and perhaps from the occupancy of Jean Jacques.

The September number of the *Gulf States Historical Magazine*, published at Montgomery, Ala., contains seven letters from John C. Calhoun to Senator and Judge Charles Tait, a cousin of Henry Clay and a Virginian who lived both in Georgia and in Alabama. They were written in the period 1820-21, and are a substantial addition to the volume of Calhoun's correspondence edited by Professor Jameson. Calhoun here shows himself, after two visits to the North, Boston included, unwilling to believe, in spite of the Missouri controversy, that the Northern public was disposed to enter on a contest with the South for supremacy. His moderation is very noticeable. The letters are copied verbatim, and the word "indispensible" occurs consistently so spelt in almost every letter. By an oversight on page 100, line 11, "revenue" is printed "reverence." On page 128 is a list of Louisiana newspaper files in the Library of Congress. The director of the new Mississippi Department of History and Archives announces the acquisition of the "complete muster and payrolls, with detailed historical facts, of the troops furnished by the State of Mississippi to the army of the Confederate States."

The conclusion of Mr. Worthington C. Ford's "John Quincy Adams and the Monroe Doctrine" gives especial interest to the October number of the *American Historical Review*. "That such a man [as Monroe] could have stood up against Europe alone is inconceivable," he concludes; "and there was no person in the Cabinet except Adams who would have given him support in such measure." Worth reading and pondering, also, is Mr. Carl R. Fish's study of "Lincoln and the Patronage." While showing that that President had not attained the highest position in the matter, Mr. Fish is sure "that he never abused, and apparently never used, the patronage for personal aggrandizement," and believes he might have welcomed appointment by examinations. An inedited letter of Alexander H. Stephens in 1854 is a confidential review of his political career. The question of Cuba was then a burning one. Stephens was in favor of repealing laws which hindered filibustering, but was "against Cuba's becoming a *negroe state*."

The bibliography of the geographical literature of the year 1901, published as the September number of the *Annales de Géographie* and the eleventh of the series, contains the titles of more than a thousand publications, Government reports, and papers in scientific journals and the proceedings of societies, in fourteen different languages. In most instances, the editor, M. Louis Raveneau, and his fifty-five collaborators, of various nationalities, have added explanatory and critical notes in French. The list is classified according to subjects and countries, with numerous cross-references and an index of about two thousand names of travellers and authors whose works have been recorded and analyzed. It is worthy of note that our Government reports have received fuller and more detailed notice than those of any other country.

—The November *Century* opens brilliantly with a series of seven color pictures, by Maxfield Parrish, illustrating various features of "the great Southwest." An "open

letter" from Mr. Parrish makes an interesting comparison of the color effects of Southwestern scenery with those of New England. The atmosphere of Arizona and New Mexico has not moisture enough to color the light as it passes through, and give the gilding and richness often seen in New England, nor is the intense blue of the New England sky seen in the Southwest. The color of the Southwest is inherent in the things themselves; the rocks, hills, and sands presenting a bewildering variety of reds, ochres, blacks, blues, grays, and purples. John Muir describes in his happy way the Grand Cañon of the Colorado, in whose sides "hundreds of Yellowstones might be eroded without noticeably augmenting its size or the richness of its sculpture." Here at least is one natural feature of our country which the hand of man can never have the power to make common or unclean. "The So-called Beef Trust," by George Buchanan Fife, begins a series of articles on "The Great Business Combinations of To-day." It is of especial interest in its details of the actual processes of the great packing-houses, the economy of labor, the careful utilization of by-products, etc., which make it so hard for the small concern to compete. The packer's side of the recent high prices for beef is given at some length, and apparently accepted by the writer, though he does not attempt to deny or conceal the power for evil in such combinations and the necessity for official supervision and restraint. The "Confessions of a Wife" come to an end with a heroic halo around the head of each one of the three persons chiefly concerned, and perhaps the reader may as well unite with them in forgetting the hysterical foolishness which made the tragical part of the story possible. It remains for the critics to decide upon the claim that a really great book has been built up on the cornerstone of that foolishness.

—A posthumous paper by John Fiske, on "Evolution and the Present Age," is the most attractive among the serious papers of the November *Harper's*. The depression of Darwin and elevation of Herbert Spencer is its characteristic leading feature. Harry De Windt describes a trip of more than eleven thousand miles through Siberia, to Bering Strait, with the usual incidents of monotonous wastes of snow, villages of stupid and squalid natives, privations of hunger and cold, worn-out sledge dogs, etc. Claiming an experience of Russian prisons dating from 1887, and a personal acquaintance with almost every penal establishment in Siberia, he asserts the belief that the Russian criminal exile is in most respects better off than the convict of other countries. Of the lot of political exiles he speaks not so favorably, yet much more mildly than many who have treated the subject for American readers. Frederic G. Kenyon, of the Department of Manuscripts in the British Museum, gives a brief but very instructive account of the manuscript tradition of the Bible. The "Easy Chair" discusses George Eliot as presented in Leslie Stephen's biography and in W. C. Brownell's essay in "Victorian Prose Masters," leaning rather towards Mr. Brownell's criticism, as "kinder, imbued with a tenderer intelligence, and freed to a fuller expression of its kindness regarding a woman whom Americans can judge more clearly and more justly through their like social and religious tradition than Englishmen."

—President Hyde of Bowdoin opens the *Atlantic* with a discussion of "The New Ethics." One finds it hard to pick out anything really new in the positions taken. Many of them are easily paralleled from ancient literature, sacred and profane. Writing of "The Book in the Tenement," Elizabeth McCracken records some examples of keen criticism and delicate appreciation in literary matters among the tenement-house people with whom she has associated in her work. A scrub-woman who had read 'The Talisman,' 'Kenilworth,' 'The Scottish Chiefs,' 'The Prisoner of Zenda,' and 'The Pride of Jennico' with interest, asked to borrow Ibsen's 'Ghosts.' In less than a day she returned it. She had found by experiment that it began gloomy and ended gloomy, and she had enough gloom in her life without going to Ibsen for it. A girl who had read 'The Christian' pronounced it unhealthy because of its exaggeration. When it was suggested that exaggeration does not necessarily make a book unhealthy, she replied: "Not when it's straight, but 'The Christian' is twisted; it calls things what they aren't, and doesn't call them what they are. And then it makes them bigger—till, altogether, you get so mixed up you can't tell one thing from another." Another read 'The Lady of the Aroostook,' but did not enjoy it. "It was like sitting and looking out of a window." "But that is a very interesting thing to do," suggested Miss McCracken. "Not when nothing is happening," was the decisive reply. Prof. Charles H. Moore writes a suggestive paper on "Modern Artistic Handicraft," calling special attention to the wrong ideas of design which ruin so much well-intended work, and to the general lack of intelligent interest which makes it impossible even for the best workmen to find an adequate market for their wares. The *Atlantic* is fortunate in its ability to announce for next year the autobiography of J. T. Trowbridge and a series of reminiscences by Leslie Stephen.

—The November *Scribner's* devotes two-thirds of its space to fiction. Julia Magruder, Margaret Sherwood, Edith Wharton, Sewell Ford, and F. J. Stimson contribute short stories, and J. M. Barrie brings to its conclusion "The Little White Bird." James B. Connolly turns from his capital sea stories for a study "In the Paths of Immigration," with illustrations by J. M. Burns. Curtis Guild, jr., writes of "The Spellbinder," but comes far short of justifying his contention that the stump-speaker has gained rather than lost in influence during recent times. Perhaps the lack of proof is partly responsible for his assignment of those who entertain a different opinion to that dreadful class "whose vociferous censure of all men in political life is only less marked than their own abstention from the simplest political duties of the American citizen." Winthrop L. Marvin contributes a mournful plea for a generous fillip of American prosperity, from the Treasury vaults, to the subsidy-hungry American merchant marine. Gen. John B. Gordon's reminiscences of the civil war, and a series of articles on the various departments of the United States Government, are the most notable announcements for the coming year.

—An interesting announcement comes from Mr. Edward Dalziel, the last surviving member of the original and once famous firm of wood-engravers known as the Dalziel Brothers, whose firm autobiography we lately reviewed. Few names are as prominent in the history of English illustration in the "sixties." It was chance, perhaps, that produced just at the right moment a distinguished group of artists willing and eager to work in black and white: Rossetti, Holman Hunt, Millais, Sandys, Boyd Houghton, Pinwell, Fred Walker, Keene, among many others. But the Messrs. Dalziel gave them the necessary encouragement, not only by engraving their work on wood as well as it could then be engraved, but by giving them, in the first place, the commission for the work. The engravers were thus brought into close and often delightful relations with the illustrators, and the Memoirs of George and Edward Dalziel showed how much interesting material remained in their hands as a result of this friendly business relationship. Shortly after that book appeared, Mr. George Dalziel died. But before his death he had planned, with his brother Edward, the publication now announced. It consists of a limited edition of India-paper proofs of Millais's drawings for the Parables of Our Lord, one of the Dalziel books now most valued by collectors. Millais contributed twenty drawings to the series, and when the volume was produced in 1864 the Dalziels had fifty proofs of these drawings pulled on India paper, but, for one reason or another, never issued them to the public, so that they are now published for the first time. With them are reproduced in facsimile twenty letters from Millais, touching upon the 'Parables' and other work he did for and with the Dalziels. "We feel," they say, "that the criticisms and remarks made in these letters furnish another proof of what is very dear to us—that a competent wood-engraver, with favorable surroundings, was capable of satisfying to the fullest extent, in his reproduction, the competent draughtsman." The competent draughtsman, it is true, sometimes thought differently, and, in the case of Rossetti, said so very plainly. But still, there can be no question of the fine and important work done by the Dalziels. Nor can it be denied that Millais's masterpieces are to be found among his designs in black-and-white, and that in this medium he never did anything to surpass the 'Parables.' The volume is issued privately from the Camden Press in London, and the price is ten guineas.

—A very interesting pamphlet on 'Ancestor-Worship and Japanese Law' (Tokio: Z. P. Maruya & Co.), by Prof. N. Hozumi of the law department of the Imperial University of Tokio, gives an inside view by a native of the forces which have made Japanese civilization. The learned barrister treats of ancestor-worship in its origin and as the chief factor in primitive man's social life. In Japan he notes three kinds of worship—of imperial, clan, and family ancestors. In his third division, he looks at the subject in relation to the modern codes of law, discussing in this light the Government, Constitution, the people, the house, marriage, divorce, adoption, dissolution of adoption, and succession. He holds that the worship of the imperial ancestors is the national religion and the basis and sanction of the Constitution of 1889, and

that "the influence of European civilization has done nothing to shake the firm-rooted customs of ancestor-worship." The little book is terse in style and informing in content; yet, after all, it is a curious illustration of mental inversion, as showing how little the training of the Middle Temple, which makes a barrister, can equip a judicial critic or historian. As matter of fact, it cannot be proved, as asserted on page 12, that "the primeval religion of the country" was ancestor-worship (at least in the sense of the Chinese or modern Shinto system); or that Japan has any history "that dates back more than two thousand five hundred years"; while, as simple matter of fact, the once highest Department—that of Worship (Council of Gods and Men)—was abolished a generation ago, and the people's representatives in the Imperial Diet have voted down every attempt of the Conservatives to restore it. Despite the family consultation and expressions of filial regard in the graveyards, both custom and sentiment in regard to the political nature of ancestor-worship are weakening. The steady trend of the nation is in the direction of democracy. Outside the palace, all the functions of government are in the line of secular order and justice.

## BOOKS ON ART.

*The Study and Criticism of Italian Art.* Second Series. By Bernhard Berenson. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

*Fra Angelico.* By J. B. Supino. Translated by Leader Scott. Florence: Alinari Brothers; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1902.

*Sir Joshua Reynolds,* His Life and Art. By Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower, F.S.A. (The British Artists' Series.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

*J. M. W. Turner, R.A.* By Robert Chignell. (Makers of British Art.) London: Walter Scott Publishing Co.; New York: Scribners. 1902.

*Jean François Millet,* His Life and Letters. By Julia Cartwright (Mrs. Henry Ady). London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

*Modern Mural Decoration.* By A. Lys Baldry. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. 1902.

*Chefs d'Œuvre of the Exposition Universelle.* Parts 18 to 25. Philadelphia: George Barrie & Son.

Mr. Berenson's second collection of scattered papers of art study and art criticism is, on the whole, more interesting than the first. It contains nothing so daringly fantastic as his creation of "Amico di Sandro," but, on the other hand, it contains what we are inclined to think the greatest real achievement of modern connoisseurship—the taking from Perugino, and the giving to Lo Spagna, of the Caen "Sposalizio." Whether or not the picture was really painted by the latter artist we neither know nor greatly care, but that it was *not* painted by Perugino, and that it was the imitation rather than the original of Raphael's "Sposalizio," seems to be proved. Mr. Berenson's talent for criticism, as distinguished from connoisseurship, is shown to the best advantage in the article on Renaissance churches.

The unimportance of the questions with which the modern connoisseur often deals is as noticeable in the rest of the volume as in the former collection, and the reason of it is indicated in the concluding paper, on "The Rudiments of Connoisseurship." This article, which is now printed for the first time, "was written more than eight years ago, as the first section of a book on the 'Methods of Constructive Art Criticism' "; but the abstract discussion of method was abandoned in favor of a concrete example, and Lorenzo Lotto was selected as the subject, "more for his excellence as an illustration of Method, than for his actual achievements." The result was disappointing, for, says Mr. Berenson, "although this work, in a special introduction, in the introductory paragraphs to each chapter, and here and there throughout, speaks of Method, yet, to my no small astonishment, not a single reviewer of either the first or second edition has made the slightest reference to the general theory on which the book is based." Either Mr. Berenson's memory plays him false, or he did not see the review of the first edition published in these columns, for his method and his manner of applying it were much more interesting to us than his subject. This more formal statement of that method—we need not, with Mr. Berenson, give it a big M—is, however, welcome and worth a little discussion.

It begins with the statement that "the materials for the historical study of art are of three kinds: (1) Contemporary documents, (2) Tradition, (3) The works of art themselves." And these three kinds of materials are taken up seriatim. Documents, Mr. Berenson contends, really prove nothing. A contract may never have been carried out, or may have been only partially carried out, by the artist who made it; a signature may have been forged or attached to a work really executed by pupils. Such a description of a work of art as will serve really to identify it is impossible, as the description would serve equally well for a bad copy as for the original. In fact, "in no case adduced is the document in art sufficient proof by itself of authenticity or authorship. The document always needs to be confirmed by connoisseurship." Tradition, of course, is of even less value, and "in no case is it to be pitted against documentary facts or the scientific deductions of the connoisseur." We are left, then, to the conclusion that the only means of determining authorship is by the study of the works themselves. "Connoisseurship is based on the assumption that perfect identity of characteristics indicates identity of origin. . . . To isolate the characteristics of one artist, we take all his works of undoubted authenticity, and we proceed to discover those traits that invariably recur in them but not in the works of other masters." Here is the initial difficulty. If documents and tradition are of no worth, how can there be any "works of undoubted authenticity" to examine? Connoisseurship is left with a free hand to examine everything, and should, logically, accept nothing. It might divide works of art into groups, each group presumably by the same hand; but it has no right to put names to them. That there ever was an artist named Titian is matter of document and tradition, and, in his clearing away of all other material than the work of art itself, Mr. Berenson has left connoisseurship in the air, with no foundation whatever.

However, recognizing somehow that authentic pictures exist, what are the characteristics we are to look for? "Types, general tone, composition and technique" are ruled out as characteristic of schools rather than individuals; we must examine the details, "bearing in mind, to start with, that the less necessary the detail in question is for purposes of obvious expression [*i. e.*, the more unimportant it is], the less consciously will it be executed, the more by rote, the more likely to become stereotyped, and therefore characteristic." Hence we have a series of tests which rank in nearly inverse ratio to their importance:

"The most applicable: the ears, the hands, the folds, the landscape.

"The less applicable: the hair, the eyes, the nose, the mouth.

"The least applicable: the cranium, the chin, the structure and movement in the human figure, the architecture, the color and the chiaroscuro."

But these tests are more applicable to insignificant artists than to great ones, because the great ones are more likely to be imitated or copied. So we have this statement in italics: "*The value of those tests which come nearest to being mechanical is inversely as the greatness of the artist. The greater the artist, the more weight falls on the question of quality in the consideration of the work attributed to him.*" Here is the reason, very clearly stated, why modern connoisseurship concerns itself so largely with attributions which may possibly be true if important, for the "sense of quality" cannot be taught or reasoned about: it is just what artists have always judged by, though sneered at for so judging. The more important the question to be solved, the less aid "Method" gives in its solution, and the more we fall back on that personal artistic sense which existed before "Method" was heard of.

Supino's 'Fra Angelico' takes the conventional view of the artist-saint, and is far from being as important a contribution to art history and art criticism as Mr. Langton Douglas's book on the same subject, but it is a pretty little volume which many people will be glad to have. Its pocket size and flexible cover, of dark green crushed morocco, should make it a pleasant travelling companion, while its numerous small but clear illustrations, its eight photogravures, and its two color plates will cause it to be welcomed as a permanent souvenir. Though not to be taken too seriously as reproductions, these color plates are exceedingly dainty and attractive.

The best we can say of Lord Ronald Sutherland Gower's book on Reynolds is that he has chosen for illustration many comparatively unknown pictures by the master, some of which seem never before to have been reproduced; that he has generally used photographs from the paintings, and not engravings, and, where engravings are used, has clearly stated the fact; and that he has published for the first time Gainsborough's touching letter from his deathbed to Sir Joshua. For the rest, the text is of the usual, somewhat inconsequent, "year by year" kind, and contains some blunders and some strange extravagances of criticism.

It may, possibly, be the fault of the printer that Reynolds's first portrait of himself should be stated in the text to have been drawn in his seventeenth year, while the list of illustrations and the title under the plate call it "Reynolds in his nineteenth year." Lord Ronald must himself be responsible for another error. He states that Reynolds at the age of seven made a drawing of the colonnade of Plympton Grammar School, which his father endorsed, "This is drawn by Joshua in school out of pure idleness." Unless Samuel Reynolds made precisely the same comment on two different drawings, the story is mistaken, for the drawing, with its inscription, is reproduced in the book, and is a rough and incorrect perspective sketch of a wall with a square, mullioned window in it, and contains nothing remotely resembling a colonnade. The author's lack of critical ability, and the extremes to which he is led by enthusiasm, are shown in such judgments as that Reynolds's portrait of Sterne "may take a place by the side of Velazquez's 'Innocent X.,'" and that "even Michael Angelo's 'Sibyls,' in the Sistine Chapel, are not more impressive" than Reynolds's "Mrs. Siddons," which "stands on a level with the greatest of artistic creations."

Mr. Chignell's 'Turner' is decidedly a better book than its predecessors in the series to which it belongs. If it contains little of significance as criticism of the artist, it at least succeeds reasonably in its aim of doing justice to the character of the man, and gives a more agreeable picture than that to which we have been accustomed. This is the first volume of the series to contain any apparatus of lists of pictures, etc. Its illustrations, like those of its fellows, are almost invariably reproduced from engravings, and without warning to that effect—to the discredit, we must say, of the London publishers.

The present edition of Mrs. Ady's 'Millet' seems to be an exact reprint, from the same plates, of that published in 1896, and reviewed by us at the time. We observe no other change than a new binding and a new date on the title-page, and there is no announcement that the book has ever appeared before. Whether or not this be considered quite fair practice, there is no occasion to repeat our former favorable comment on this excellent work.

Mr. Baldry's book gives a good deal of information as to the various technical methods employed in "Modern Mural Decorations," but his knowledge of its practice is evidently almost entirely confined to what has been done in England. The hundred-odd illustrations include a few Italian frescoes; a few paintings by Puvis de Chavannes, one of which, said to be in the Sorbonne, is really at Amiens; a ceiling from the Paris Opera-house, falsely attributed to Baudry, who had nothing to do with it; Vedder's design, not mentioned in the text, for the great mosaic in the Library of Congress; and perhaps a score of miscellaneous pieces of work, ancient and modern, some of which are by artists unknown or not named. All the rest is English. This is of the less importance as the book deals with processes rather than results, and scarcely attempts criticism; but the work may be said to be calculated for the longitude of Greenwich.

The last eight parts of the 'Chefs d'Œuvre of the Exposition Universelle' deal with the architecture of the Exposition, the Retrospective Exhibition, etc. As far as they deal with modern work they do not greatly modify the somewhat depressing effect of the earlier numbers. The few plates of really beautiful objects are of old French furniture, the quality of which must have proved food for thought to the devotees of the "new art."

## POOR-LAW RELIEF IN ENGLAND.—II.

*Public Relief of the Poor.* Six Lectures. by Thomas Mackay. London: John Murray. 1901.

*The Early History of English Poor-Relief.* By E. M. Leonard. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1900.

Mr. Mackay's treatise raises historical, political, and moral questions which are of much more than merely local interest. They concern in one sense every civilized country; they have a direct and immediate importance for every state which has inherited or been influenced by the traditions of the Elizabethan poor-law. Is pauperism, as Mr. Mackay in substance maintains, a survival, and a disastrous survival, of feudalism? Has the poor-law been, speaking broadly, a source of mere evil to England? These closely connected inquiries must be answered in the main by historical investigation, but by investigation or research aided and controlled by rigid economic reasoning. We cannot ourselves doubt that the reply given by Mr. Mackay is as nearly sound as can be any summary answer to a complex problem. "Pauperism"—a different thing from poverty—is a survival. The philanthropists of the sixteenth century were, like many philanthropists before and since, unconscious reactionists. To meet immediate and patent evils, they fell back on modes of action which were becoming obsolete, and resuscitated in a new form the evils of the feudal system.

> "The message of feudalism to the poor man . . . was: Serve here, and maintenance will be forthcoming. Then the Poor-Law, addressing itself to the laborer emerging from this shell of servitude, varied the injunction, declaring: 'Remain here where you are, and as you are, and the parish must maintain you.' This policy obstructed the true exodus of the people, and created a monstrous growth of population impervious to the distributing force of the economic motive, and threatening the moral and financial ruin of the nation."

The nature of the evil wrought ought to be clearly understood. It was and is "the resolute proletariate habit, characteristically adopted by certain classes, which effectually prevents them from acquiring property, and, what is perhaps equally important, from acquiring the instincts of property." To those who meditate on the melancholy and profound truth of this statement it is a certain comfort to learn from Miss Leonard that "the survival of the English system of poor-relief is owing to the organization which was . . . created by the Book of Orders of 1631": pauperism is the most fatal legacy bequeathed to England by the despotism of Charles I.

Yet while it is clear that Mr. Mackay in no way exaggerates the evils of a system which has created the status of pauperism, it may admit of doubt whether our author does not overlook two circumstances which, while they do not affect the validity of his practical conclusions, diminish the soundness of his historical estimate of institutions which he rightly perceives to have produced immense evils. The existence and the maintenance of the English poor-law is in part explained by its having from time to time produced two beneficial effects which were sure to attract the attention of statesmen. The certainty of receiving poor-relief did, we may well believe, mitigate, for a short period at any rate, the sufferings of laborers whenever changes in the course or character of trade threw large numbers of men out of employment, and thus reduced them to destitution without any fault on their own part. It is at any rate possible to imagine a state of things where temporary support might be rightly given at the public expense to a large class who were really unable to obtain employment. The sternest of economists must have felt that, during the cotton famine produced by the war of secession, the manly and independent artisans of Lancashire deserved, as they received, aid from public benevolence which, under the circumstances, was only another name for national justice. Security, further, against starvation has, it may be conjectured, been at several crises one cause of the patience with which the English poor have borne want. Would it have been possible to continue the desperate contest against Napoleonic tyranny if the mass of the English poor had felt, whether rightly or not, that the prolongation of the war might mean to many of them actual death? There is no reason to suppose that Frenchmen are a whit less benevolent than Englishmen, but the French workman, though he may depend on the kindness of his neighbors, has not an absolute legal right to support; the resulting dread of starvation has been one cause of revolution.

Does the abolition of the legal right to poor-relief admit of moral justification? This is an ethical inquiry to which Mr. Mackay's whole essay supplies an unhesitating answer. The moral justification for the abolition of a poor-law such as that which exists in England is, and has long been, ample. No moralist of whatever school can maintain that it is right to support institutions which are in the main productive of physical and moral evil. The poor-law undermines the independence of the poor; it has done a great deal to break down in England that sense of mutual responsibility which forms the basis of family life; it hampers at every turn the growth of that system of free exchange of services which is the basis of all that is best in modern society. The suffering, moreover, which the curtailment or the abolition of the poor-law would create is, we may feel sure, immensely exaggerated.

On this point the experiment of 1834 is decisive. The able-bodied laborers of England were daily sinking deeper and deeper into pauperism; parish relief was looked upon as a form of legitimate and supplemental wages; the New Poor-Law did, by the free use of the workhouse test, put an end, as regarded able-bodied laborers, to the receipt of relief. To a great part of the population this change was as sudden as it was hateful; yet this social revolution, which produced profound discontent, caused, as Mr. Mackay shows, far less of suffering than might have been expected. The fetters which had checked the ener-

gies of the laboring class were struck off, and men who had been accustomed to rely on the help of the parish found that when this aid was withdrawn they could help themselves. The alleged surplus of laborers in some instances merely walked into the next parish, the pressure in the parish of Broadacre was relieved, and the landowners in the parish of Whiteacre found themselves supplied with the labor they had long needed; and, under the system of free exchange, the quality of the work rendered underwent a marvellous transformation. "'In old days,' said a farmer, 'I would have given money to keep that man off my land; now he gives me a good day's work for a good day's pay, and I would gladly employ a dozen such.'" The experience of 1834 is, as we have said, decisive. The dictates of public morality not only justify, but, were it politically possible, demand the abolition of the English poor-law.

Is it possible to abolish the English poor-law? This is a question of politics, and, we may be sure, would receive from any statesman, however high-principled, a negative answer. The only problem which even an economist could now consider as coming within the range of practical politics, is whether the time has not now arrived when the reform of 1834 may be carried to its legitimate conclusion by the absolute prohibition of outdoor relief. The reformers who framed the New Poor-Law certainly meant that, within a limited time, the distribution of outdoor relief should cease. They believed that its abolition would be a benefit to the country, and that within a few years the reality of this benefit would become so patent to all administrators of the poor-law that outdoor relief, if it existed at all, would be allowed only under exceptional circumstances which might possibly justify a temporary deviation from sound economical principles. Experience has shown conclusively that the supporters of the New Poor-Law were right in holding that outdoor relief worked nothing in the long run but evil, and that any guardians endowed with sufficient sagacity and vigor to apply the workhouse test with strictness, would relieve the ratepayers from a heavy poor-rate and confer benefit upon the industrious poor. It has further become patent that public charity and benevolence are ready to meet the exceptional hard cases of undeserved destitution which cannot be provided for by the rigid rules of a well-administered poor-law. The time, therefore, has clearly arrived when, if the making of laws depended upon the intelligence of enlightened statesmen, the distribution of outdoor relief ought to be abolished.

But it is certain that a most salutary reform is in this instance a political impossibility. The poor-law of 1834 was the best fruit of Benthamite philosophy, and of that transference of political power to the middle classes which made it possible for the English Parliament to pass laws based on the principles of utilitarianism. From 1834 to (say) 1865 it was at least conceivable that the Benthamite reform of the poor-law might be carried one step further. At the present moment progress in this direction is forbidden no less by the condition of public opinion than by the advance of democracy in England. Benthamite teaching, which, in the field at any rate of legislation, has worked nothing but good, has for the last forty or fifty years been the object of incessant attack. The sentimentalists of every class have succeeded in discrediting doctrines which they could not confute, and have in many cases produced results which they themselves deplore. They have insisted that men ought to trust their feelings rather than their common sense; and the English democracy which has since 1867 obtained predominant political influence, has learned with readiness a lesson which must from the nature of things be acceptable to the poor and the uneducated. Add to this that statesmen are constantly affected, and this without dishonesty, by the opinions and sentiments of the followers whom they nominally lead, but whose wishes they in reality obey. It is no accident that the central authority which for a long time aimed at inducing poor-law guardians to enforce the workhouse test, has, to speak in the very mildest language, relaxed their efforts in favor of a rigid administration of the poor-law.

Mr. Mackay is apparently a man of a hopeful disposition; his fervent belief in the truth of the doctrines of which he is an admirable exponent, makes it impossible for him to renounce the hope that they may obtain general acceptance. An unbiassed critic can hardly on this point be very sanguine. Still, Mr. Mackay points, and with reason, towards the possibility of one fundamental change in the administration of poor-relief. It may possibly become the concern not of small localities, but of the whole nation. If this event should ever take place, it must, it would seem, be accompanied by one of two results. Political leaders may attempt to make the liberal administration of the poor-law a means of obtaining popularity. It is difficult to see how such an attempt could lead to anything but infinite calamity. But it is also possible that some statesman or body of statesmen might be guided by a high conception of their duty to the country, and insist that when the relief of the poor is taken directly in hand by the nation, it shall, as the most ardent among the reformers of 1834 desired, be administered by experts according to fixed principles, and with the distinct object of putting an end to, or at least limiting the area of, pauperism. However this may be, one thing is certain: there is little likelihood that, at the present moment, the great reform of 1834 will be carried any nearer to its natural and legitimate conclusion.

## LYALL'S TENNYSON.

*Tennyson.* By Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 1902.

If this latest number of an extended series is not generally accorded a place in order of excellence high up with Sir Leslie Stephen's 'Johnson,' F. W. H. Myers's 'Wordsworth,' and Sidney Colvin's 'Landor,' it will not receive the honor it deserves. Many of the writers in this series have brought only a partial preparation to their work. But Sir Alfred Lyall, though probably the least known of these writers to the general public, is one of the best qualified of them all. He brings an equal intelligence to the form of Tennyson's work and to its spirit, and his criticism is conceived in the most admirable temper imaginable. There is no sign of any such patronizing airs as Mr. Herbert Paul's for Matthew Arnold, and, far back in the series, Trollope's for Thackeray. On the other hand, we have no monochromatic wash of indiscriminate admiration. Sir Alfred's preferences are strongly marked, but, where he is least attracted, he qualifies his dissent with so much deference that no devotee of Tennyson can take offence.

Mindful of the narrow limits fixed for him in advance, Sir Alfred is extremely parsimonious in his allotment of space to Tennyson's childhood, youth, and years at Cambridge. The 'Poems of Two Brothers' have six lines. It is said that they are "evidently drawn from wide miscellaneous reading," and show a promising metrical form, "with occasional signs of that descriptive faculty which matured so rapidly in Tennyson's later works." But the prize poem of 1829, "Timbuctoo," is "worth notice because it contains in embryo the qualities which emerge in his later verse." No wonder when the 'Poems Chiefly Lyrical' was published the next year, containing things, more than few, which time has not yet staled. It is significant that 'Poems 1830-1842' is the longest chapter in the book, nearly forty pages. It has less of chronological sequence than we could wish, and, especially, the line between the volumes of 1830 and 1833 is drawn quite invisibly. Here and there are long leaps of years one way or another, and such anticipations as where "Tithonus" (1860) is brought in with the "Ulysses" of 1842, and similarly the "Lucretius" of 1868. There is nothing to prevent the uninformed from supposing that both the "Tithonus" and "Lucretius" appeared in the volumes of 1842. Interesting comparisons are made between the poems of 1830 and the same as they reappeared in 1842. The changes were in the interest of compression and the elimination of the over-rich. Those in "Mariana in the South" are notably in evidence. Confession is made to Tennyson's indebtedness here to the critics in *Blackwood* and the *Quarterly*, who treated him with extreme severity, but put their fingers on the ailing spots. The *Quarterly* article (1839), which has generally been ascribed to Lockhart, is here credited to Kinglake of Crimean reputation.

Sir Alfred has no such indifference as FitzGerald to Tennyson's product after 1842, but he entirely agrees with him that Tennyson never surpassed the poems collected in the second of the two volumes of that year. Indeed, he calls "The Lady of Shalott," which was in the 1833 volume, "one of Tennyson's masterpieces, an example of his genius at a period when he had brought the form and conception of his poetry up to a point which he never afterward surpassed." To the "Ulysses" of the later issue is accorded the full measure of customary praise, and attention is called to the fact that Dante's suggestion of this poem was less positive than is generally represented. In the Dante episode, Ulysses had not reached home, but set out on his new cruise from Circe's island. Furthermore, Tennyson remembers to forget that Ulysses landed in Ithaca a solitary man, and had no old comrades to rally to new ventures. Wordsworth wrote to Tennyson that he had been endeavoring all his life to write a pastoral

like "Dora" and had not succeeded. Tennyson would hardly have succeeded better in writing such a pastoral as Wordsworth's "Old Cumberland Beggar." But the difference of the two poets has humorous illustration in their contrasting estimates of Burns. Tennyson was enthusiastic over Burns's songs, and said, "You forget, for their sake, those stupid things, his serious pieces." Wordsworth, the same day, to Aubrey De Vere, praised Burns with even more warmth than Tennyson. "Of course," he said, "I refer to his serious efforts; those foolish little amatory songs of his one has to forget."

In a chapter on "The Princess" and "In Memoriam" the former is rightly praised as "a beautiful serio-comic story that has been treated over-seriously, not only by those who dislike playing with a subject which is for them a matter of hard and earnest argument, but also by others to whom the poem is 'the herald melody of the higher education of women.'" But we gladly leave this pleasant bay for the deep waters of "In Memoriam." Henry Sidgwick's elaborate letter in the Tennyson 'Memoir' Sir Alfred Lyall quotes with admiration, and he relates the elegy to the mid-nineteenth century very much in Professor Sidgwick's manner. From the author of that remarkable poem, "Theology in Extremis," we should expect perfect sympathy with Tennyson's engagement with the dark side of nature, so different from Wordsworth's rest in her majestic calm, and we have no disappointment prepared for us. Unsatisfied with the scientists and utilitarians, and disgusted with the dogmatists, Tennyson took refuge in a realm of transcendental intuition. The most novel suggestion of his latest biographer is that

> "Since not every one can be satisfied with subjective faith or lofty intuitions, it may be that the note of alarm sounded by 'In Memoriam' startled more minds than were reassured by the poet's final conviction that all is well
>
> 'tho' faith and form
> Be sundered in the night of fear.'

If, therefore, the poem strengthened in many the determination to go on trustfully, on the other hand there was an attitude of terror in the recoil from materialistic paths that lead to an abyss; and perhaps it may be so far counted among the influences which have combined to promote a retreat in the latter half of the nineteenth century toward the shelter of dogmatic beliefs and an infallible authority in matters of religion."

The Wellington Ode, universally depreciated when it appeared, is made to point the moral of the futility of contemporary praise and blame. The Lucknow poem is contrasted with "The Revenge" as showing the advantage of remoteness in a battle theme. "Maud" is rightly divided into its worse and better parts; and as between the "Idylls of the King" and "Enoch Arden" the preference is clearly for the modern poem. As for the "Idylls" we shall do well not to consider them too curiously. Tennyson did them needless injury when he invested them with a symbolic character. He did well to say that "there is no single fact or incident in the 'Idylls,' however seemingly mystical, which cannot be explained without any mystery or allegory whatever." The wise will take the hint, and yet not, by so doing, lose the large moral of "captive good attending captain ill," the misery of badness dragging down both good and bad in common wreck. It is plain, however, that Sir Alfred thinks that, for all the beauty of many parts and passages, Tennyson has detracted from the beauty of the Arthurian legends as husbanded by Sir Thomas Malory.

In a chapter on the Pastorals and Tennyson's Philosophy we have the deepest ploughing in the book, and it turns up a rich and fruitful soil. It is preëminently the poet of "Theology in Extremis" who comes, in this chapter, face to face with Tennyson's passionate cry for immortality, and his resolve that, without the assurance of such sequel, our own life and the life universal are utterly void of meaning or of worth. The biographer sees otherwise:

> "For it is the inevitability of death that gives a stimulus to life; and strenuous minds draw a motive for exertion, for working while the life lasts, from that very sense of the brevity of human existence and the uncertainty of what may be beyond which, although Tennyson fought it manfully, did undoubtedly haunt his meditations and depress the spirit of his later inspirations. . . . Yet in the four volumes of Jowett's 'Plato' which he received from the translator in 1871, he must have found—not only in the Dialogues, but also in Jowett's characteristic commentaries—that loftier conception of service in the cause of truth and humanity which can inspire men to go forward undauntedly, whatever may be their destiny beyond the grave."

The Plays have an interesting chapter. The insufficiency of the heroine is noted in "Queen Mary," the advantage of greater remoteness in "Harold," while for "Becket" we have the praise of J. R. Green, who said that all his researches into the annals of the twelfth century had not given him so vivid a conception of Henry II. as Tennyson's drama. That Tennyson was not barred from dramatic success by his dominant lyricism seems to be proved by the wonderful involution of Elizabethan dramas and lyrics. Tennyson is praised for his attempt and for the repression in his dramas of his propensity to ornament, so different from Swinburne's conduct of his "Bothwell."

The concluding chapter is made interesting by some tardy reference to Browning, which, however, the lovers of this poet will resent. For while Sir Alfred Lyall is far removed from those who would dismiss Tennyson with one of his own lines,

> "The form, the form alone, is eloquent,"

form counts with him for much, and Browning's lack of it costs him his right of succession in the direct line of the great English poets. It is possibly a defect of this admirable study that it softens the features and expression of the man too much for a portrait that should match the absolutely sincere criticism of the poet's work.

## LOUNSBURY'S 'SHAKESPEARE AND VOLTAIRE.'

*Shakespeare and Voltaire.* By Thomas R. Lounsbury. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The completely detailed history of the attitude and conduct of Voltaire in the international literary debate on the relative merits of the English and the French drama, which occupies so large a space in the annals of eighteenth-century critical literature, is here given for the first time. Chapters in Albert Lacroix's 'De l'Influence de Shakspeare sur le Théâtre Français' (1854-5), in Jusserand's more trustworthy and familiar 'Shakespeare en France' (1898), had broadly outlined the scheme of combat pursued by the indomitable fighter in defence of ideals which threatened to disappear for want of efficient support; it remained for Professor Lounsbury to retrace, point by point, in his addition to his series on "Shakespearean Wars," the various shifts, feints, ruses, and other insidious tactics which Voltaire permitted himself to employ in the professedly *bonne guerre* he conducted for more than forty years against the foreign invader. No reader tolerably familiar with Voltaire's methods of controversy requires to be told to-day that Benedictine-like accuracy of statement formed no part of his conception of a man of letters; his literary schooling had been received at the hands of another order. Professor Lounsbury, in the true spirit of a *Gelehrter*, takes infinite pains to show that, during the whole dispute, Shakspere's meaning, spirit, and text were frequently misunderstood or deliberately misconstrued by the unswerving champion of classicism. The volume consequently reads like a laborious indictment of Voltaire's literary character, supported by the documentary evidence of the 'Lettres sur les Anglais,' the preface to "Sémiramis," the two Appeals to the Nations of Europe, the Commentaries on Corneille, and the two famous Letters to the French Academy, besides the corroborative testimony of private correspondence.

With the initial contention of this carefully sifted record, it would be difficult to take issue. Professor Lounsbury holds that Voltaire's attitude remained fundamentally unchanged during this passionate controversy; it was his language and tone that increased in acerbity and virulence against the spread of Anglomania. The most cursory comparison of the early 'English Letters' (1733) with the great pronouncements to the Academy (1776) puts this beyond question. In both cases, the Shaksperean plays are characterized in terms of contempt for their truly unclassical want of rigid form and restraint, but with the redeeming clause that admits their genius.

It is perhaps less easy to agree with our critic in some of his subsequent positions. In making out an undeniably strong case, he dwells, here and there, insistently on points of really minor importance, and thus unwittingly diverts his readers' attention from the real issue at stake. Among Voltaire's many utterances on "Hamlet," the oftenest-quoted is the celebrated tirade occurring in the prefatory dissertion to "Sémiramis," which contains the *épouvantail* phrase of the "drunken savage." To characterize the brief summary in which Voltaire jotted down the features that seemed to him to warrant that uncivil designation, as marked with "gross blunders" (p. 144), is to overstate the case; for, after all, without purporting to be in any sense an adequate synopsis of the plot, that description indicates the very elements that clashed with the ideals of French tragedy. It is significant that, both before and after Voltaire, two such apparently independent critics as Saint-Évremond and the Abbé Le Blanc should, at a distance of nearly seventy years, have said virtually the same thing; the latter, indeed, finding precisely the same fault with the "misérables plaisanteries" on the part of the grave-diggers. Voltaire, as every one

knows, gave a detailed analysis of "Hamlet" in his Appeal to the Nations, the inaccuracies of which it is easy to exaggerate; there is not a single poetical play in existence but would suffer in the same measure when reduced to the uncompromising baldness of a prose "argument." To the higher poetic qualities of Shaksperean imagination and diction, Voltaire, like so many Frenchmen (and Englishmen) of his own time, must have remained permanently obtuse. Indeed, it is not long since that a Frenchman exceptionally conversant with English was heard to describe "A Midsummer Night's Dream" with the uncomplimentary term *charabia*.

The charge, frequently brought against Voltaire during his own lifetime and minutely substantiated in this work, of having made use of Shaksperean materials without sufficient acknowledgment or with accompanying detraction from the merit of their inventor, is not to be rebutted. The ethics of play-writing are, however, by no means a formulated code; and the very practice here inveighed against had been almost universally adopted by English dramatists of that period in dealing with the work of their French contemporaries. Prof. A. W. Ward (Eng. Dram. Lit., III., 315) gives the detailed list. Muralt, in a seldom-quoted passage of his 'Lettres sur les Français et les Anglais' (published in 1725), had observed this years before Voltaire's borrowings:

"Une chose où je les trouve encore moins excusables dans leurs Tragédies, c'est d'attaquer toujours les Auteurs Français qui ne leur font d'autre mal que de les surpasser. Le plus fameux d'entre leurs poètes tragiques d'aujourd'hui [viz., about 1695] traite Corneille à peu près comme Schadvel [Shadwell] traite Molière; c'est à dire qu'il le pille et fait des Préfaces pour en dire du mal."

Similar emphasis on one side of the contention may be noted in the almost casual mention of the Abbé Le Blanc (p. 307), who is blamed for "having devoted a long letter to a detailed account of the plot of 'Titus Andronicus,'" for the purpose of illustrating the English fondness for scenes of violence on the stage. But surely, if Le Blanc is mentioned at all, some hint should be given of his very unusual literary equipment and keenness of insight. His letters, published in 1745, are beyond all question written by a man who knew English well, and had read every production he undertook to discuss. The directness of his common sense never came out more clearly than in his bluff rejoinder to Guthrie's often vapory pamphlet: "Lorsqu'il dit que ce n'est pas Shakspere qui parle le langage de la Nature, mais que c'est plutôt la Nature qui parle le langage de Shakspere, je lui demande ce qu'il a voulu dire." In no other treatise of the time does the critic find, in general, so thoroughgoing a knowledge of both literatures, and so judicial a statement of the controverted points. The commentator may reply, in the terms of his preface, that his concern is with Voltaire and his English assailants; why, then, allow an uninstructed reader to carry away a false impression of one of the French combatants?

As to the interpretation of Voltaire's real motives in the conduct of his share of the controversy, it must be said that reading between the lines or behind the actual words of an author is always more or less hazardous. Voltaire's acrimony in his private correspondence does, it is true, bear witness to his fears for his own dramatic reputation before the growing vogue of the immeasurably greater Englishman; it gives a color of justice to Professor Lounsbury's concluding remarks concerning "the men who produce revolutions, shuddering at the words and acts of the men whom revolutions produce"; it may even bear out the suggestion that "the dislike and dread he felt for the great Elizabethan" was one of the secret springs of his persistent attacks. But there was a greater Voltaire than all this. His genuine enthusiasm for qualities essentially bound up with the spirit of literary classicism—"unité, clarté, régularité, choix, logique," as M. Jusserand says—both inspired and sustained his strife against what appeared to him the fantastic waywardness of too many of his contemporaries. He could conscientiously say, with Alceste,

"Le méchant goût du siècle en cela me fait peur."

Beyond and above this, his far-seeing shrewdness warned him of the danger to a strongly individualized national literature in the almost indiscriminate adoption of conceptions and methods devised, in an atmosphere wholly foreign, by men different in race, temperament, and ideals. It may strike some readers that more unmistakable stress on this side of Voltaire's literary character would have set on Professor Lounsbury's admirably scholarly treatise the mark of complete balance.

## MORE FICTION.

*On Fortune's Road.* By Will Payne. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

*John Malcolm.* By Edward Fuller. Providence, R. I.: Snow & Farnham.

*Paul Kelver.* By Jerome K. Jerome. Dodd, Mead & Co.

*The Heart of the Doctor.* Mabel G. Foster. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The Sea Lady.* By H. G. Wells. D. Appleton & Co.

*The Right Princess.* By Clara Louise Burnham. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Tom Tad.* By William Henry Venable. Dodd, Mead & Co.

*Out of the West.* Elizabeth Higgins. Harper & Brothers.

*Stillman Gott.* By Edwin Day Sibley. Boston: John S. Brooks & Co.

*The Fortunes of Oliver Horn.* By F. Hopkinson Smith. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Payne's business stories deal mainly with the Chicago market. There is always a financial crisis, a wheat deal, a run on a bank, or a strike. There is always a business-hardened old man, a more scrupulous young one, and a nice girl. The cleaner method of business emerges triumphant, and the old sinner usually has a moment of integrity, a sort of Alpine glow of virtue as the story sets. The nice girl is instrumental in keeping up the standard of honor, and so all ends well after one has been shown with an almost painful intimacy the dark and undesirable ways of the modern money market. The stories, in spite of having this sameness of plan, are quite sufficiently varied in detail and do not fail to hold the interest. The pictures of the Stock Exchange and of business crisis are really noteworthy, while the case of conscience that figures in each story redeems it from being mere short-hand reporting.

'John Malcolm' is written in the calm, monologuing, question-asking manner of Trollope—a manner restful, and in these days novel. We fear the general scampering public will not have time for its leisurely pages. Nor can we truthfully assure them that, persevering, they will find a Trollope-like story. If the skin is the skin of Esau, the voice is not altogether Jacob's. Nevertheless, it is not a bad story of the disputed-will class, duly touched with mystery; and though the characterization is exaggerated, it is not wholly without underlying idea. The young girl belongs to a nearly extinct type (Trollope-like again), gentle and severe, maidenly and bold. Lovers of Dora, Amelia, Laura Pendennis will approve of her. The scene is laid in New York, but when did Mr. Fuller find a candy and news-shop in Irving Place?

Mr. Jerome's venture into novel-land takes the form of autobiography. We accompany Paul Kelver from his childhood, wondering at small things, accepting great ones, as children do, through shy, inarticulate boyhood, through conscious youth, up to the day when, after many a long struggle and many a struggle against struggle, he finds his feet. So have other men of fiction whose names are household names told their stories. If Paul Kelver's does not stand beside theirs, it will be from no lack of quality, but from a certain exuberance of that part of his material that is least able to stand the test of exuberance. It is a temptation for Paul dwelling in Bohemia to set down more than enough of the horse-play of Bohemia; to crowd his real characters in, and to frolic somewhat too freely among his artificial ones and their artificial doings. Mr. Jerome's touch is light, however, and he has worked less harm to his novel by overproduction of anecdote than another pen might have done. We have found much to stir and prick and interest in his story; passages to laugh over, passages to think over, pictures to sigh over, situations to pierce one with the sense of their being old to knowledge and new to the printed page.

The soul of good in things evil is a pet topic with novelists. Mr. Jerome dwells often on the soul of evil in things good; without misanthropy, without exultation, rather with a tender inability to understand it, and a healthy refusal to consider it final. Pages there are, as intimated, that belong less to the novel than to the sketch, and pages that stand apart instead of knitting themselves into the scheme of things entire. But there are forms and forms of novel-writing. If 'Pendennis' were shorn of its episodes, it would be a very thin volume. Who could help rejoicing in the man who sang "Sally in Our Alley" "as if it were a problem ballad"? One may choose between laughing and crying (his mother cried) when little Paul, after days and days of looking and pondering, spends the rare half-crown that has been given him for his pleasuring, on a dozen squares of colored glass. The whole of the childhood story is refreshingly true to life, as free from mawkishness as childhood itself. There is a touch of pathos in the vain struggles of

Paul and of "Goggles" against their manifest destiny to be funny, and we recall Mr. E. S. Martin's verse:

> "Sadly the humorist
> Muses on fate,
> Is it his doom, or is 't
> Something he ate?"

A talent for omission is not conspicuous either in 'The Heart of the Doctor,' which, though a small book and full of kind deeds, has as background a quite annoying amount of accidents and *materia medica*. "The Italian quarter" is described with sympathetic intimacy; so, too, the council of the Lady Managers of the Dispensary. The love affairs and the plot are the least spontaneous parts of the story, which is on the whole a readable and creditable one, although no more concerned with the heart of the doctor than with the lungs, diaphragm, brains and bones of the patients.

'The Sea Lady' is a fascinating excursion into the land of fantasy. Laughter, ponderings, and the shivers are the reader's portion. Mr. Wells shows that he can be as imaginative anent a mermaid as he has heretofore been with flying machines from Mars—and far more entertaining. Nor had we suspected him, from his previous stories, of so much humor, such deep yet airy satire, such interest in human nature, as he has seasoned his new novel withal, whether he be picturing a mermaid "with what bishops call a 'latter-day' novel in one hand and a sixteen-candle-power phosphorescent fish in the other," or whether he be describing the girl who "was always attempting to be the incarnation of Marcella."

Mr. Owen Wister calls 'Silas Lapham' an historical novel, "for it pictures an era and personifies a type." And on that principle 'The Right Princess' may be called an historical novel, for it pictures the era of Christian Science and personifies the type of the Scientist convert and expert. From this point of view it is so entirely historical that it is hardly possible to review it as a novel. It is purely and simply a Christian Science document, with a story that is forfeited if detached. Mrs. Burnham's chatty cheerfulness makes her stories acceptable to the rank and file of readers, and the Christian Science demonstration will no doubt recommend this latest book of hers to all who already hold that it alters the aspect of pain to call it error or a claim of difficulty, and who, as a remedy for a bruise, prefer the 91st Psalm to Pond's Extract. We quote and not from memory.

'Tom Tad' is not a novel, but may be historical, for it tells of schoolboy life of the most plebeian order in a plebeian community on the banks of the Ohio River. A fair description of the flood of '84 occupies one chapter. Otherwise, while the book is not open to censure on moral grounds, intellectually and literarily it is a misdemeanor, if not a crime.

Nor is 'Out of the West' blessed with form, but there is an appreciable amount of substance in its make-up. It tells the story of a young New Yorker who went to Nebraska, and there, persuaded by the public speeches of a young woman known as the Colorado Joan of Arc, became a Populist, and later a Congressman of the People's Party. The homesick aspects of Nebraska, and the war between the farmers and the railroads, are described by one obviously familiar with the place and conditions. Colorado Joan preaches and teaches of Populism ("The Cause," of course, she calls it) in such a glitteringly general way that the uninitiated could easily infer it to be the only road to moral and political salvation. This was the Congressman's view of the doctrine after his conversion; and his speech on high railroad rates caused tears to run down legislative cheeks, and made a woman in the gallery sob aloud, while "the Speaker had dropped the gavel for his handkerchief."

'Stillman Gott' is the portrait of a Maine farmer-fisherman of kindly heart and shrewd head, with the fatal gift for conscious monologue that farmers and fishermen have nowadays in books. The story in which his picture is framed is thin to attenuation.

Mr. Hopkinson Smith's novel makes one think of an old-fashioned mezzotint with its scenes of Southern society and primitive New York studio life. His old gentlemen are always especially charming, be they black or white. In all who read 'The Adventures of Oliver Horn' old memories will be stirred, alike in Virginia and in New York, of the days before and just after the war. There shall be heard in the land questions as to when the iron fence of Union Square came down, when the Washington statue went up; and whether at a nocturnal revel Poe really did recite the Lord's prayer with such solemn power that the guests were stunned and sobered. The differences between Northerner and Southerner in manner and point of view are touched on delicately without exaggeration. Delicate gentleness indeed is the characteristic of the book, which, as a story, is mild, but full of pleasant reminiscence.

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*In Argolis.* By George Horton. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1902.

Any one who has ever sojourned in Greece, or loved it from afar, will enjoy Mr. Horton's 'In Argolis,' and will read it more than once, in memory of skies and scenes and a people that must always haunt his imagination. And any gentle reader who knows nothing of Greece, but keeps his palate free from doses of red pepper, will find in these little pictures of a life that is far from strenuous something rare and genuine that approaches the qualities of a classic. He, too, will read this little book, if not for love of Greece, for love of literature and humanity. The chapter which tells how Kyr' Douzinas, by the blessing of St. Peter, bought a three-pound fish one morning and had it cooked after consultation with a council of village elders—the cobbler, the butcher, the grocer, the postmaster, and the priest—is an idyl that might have come from Sophron, and deserved a smile from Charles Lamb. The vegetative life of such a village might be a sedative for the most acute case of neurasthenia developed by subway explosions and the noise of elevated trains.

It is this kind of life in the little town of Poros, stranded about 2,000 years up the stream of time, which Mr. Horton describes with kindly humor and the sympathetic insight of a poet. He found there still lingering, and hospitably sheltered under the wing of the Greek Church, a whole brood of classic superstitions, belief in the evil eye, in Nereids, the three Fates, in vampires, and in a Charos slightly transformed from the ancient ferryman. These beings haunt the mind of the peasant with a constant obsession—they played their part in Mrs. Horton's simple ménage. "In America," she remarks, "when anything goes wrong with the children we call in the doctor." "You do very well," says Papa-Yanne, who has just bestowed his benediction on the household, "but you should call in the priest first. In nine cases out of ten the child has nothing but the evil eye, which a simple exorcism would cure immediately"; and Papa-Yanne really believed what he said, though he received a regular fee of five francs for his exorcism.

It is hard for us who live in the midst of the science of the common school to conceive of such survivals, and Mr. Horton's book makes an unofficial document for the study of the human mind more valuable than if it were compiled by a professor of psychology. We in America are doing our best, as Dr. Alexander in his preface reminds us, to preserve the poverty—if not the peace—of such villages by the tariff of 100 per cent. which we impose on their currants, and all this to support the feeble, tottering State of California, which already produces offensively large varieties of cherries and peaches.

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*L'Education des Jeunes Filles.* Par Henri Marion, Professeur à la Faculté des Lettres de Paris. Paris: Armand Colin.

M. Henri Marion, who occupied the chair of the Science of Education at the Sorbonne, died about six years ago. This book, which is a posthumous one, is composed of a course of nineteen lectures delivered by him before his faithful public in the last year of his life. It touches upon the various problems which relate to the education of girls, and discusses them thoroughly without overlooking any detail, however trivial it may seem; there are no trivial details for M. Marion. In the chapter on the moral education of girls, he devotes some paragraphs to the *tutoiement* between parents and children, and insists on the danger of children's balls. The chapter on physical education deals with alimentation and cleanliness, and examines the question of garments, shoes, and corsets. In another place he discusses the part that "suggestive therapeutics," or the use of a sort of hypnotic influence, might play in order to correct bad habits, such as cowardice, anger, laziness, and untruthfulness. All the important problems which such a subject raises are abundantly considered—the theoretical arguments in favor of the education of women, the superiority of public-school instruction over private instruction by tutors or parents, the advantages of co-education in primary classes, the utility of having female teachers in elementary classes and male teachers in advanced classes, the necessity of giving to every girl a thorough training in household economy, while at the same time developing her literary, artistic, and religious faculties, etc. The last chapters deal especially with the French educational system as established by the law of December 21, 1880, which created the "collèges" and "lycées" for girls in France.

A book like this will appeal by its very title to those who are interested in these problems of pedagogy, the most difficult of all. But only those who knew M. Marion

and have listened to his lectures and felt the magnetic influence of his personality, will realize the benefit that is to be derived from this last work of his. The clear and elegant method that characterized the speaker are also typical of the writer. But, above all, the delicate and penetrating wit, the refreshing common sense and gentle kindness, which made of him the most inspiring of teachers and the most lovable of men, give to this book that supreme charm to be found only in books in which, as Pascal has it, "behind the author we can see the man."

### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Brooks. The New Empire. Macmillan.
Alexander, John. The Conquest of the Air: The Romance of Aerial Navigation. A. Wessels Co.
Alcock, Deborah. Under Calvin's Spell: A Tale of the Heroic Times in Old Geneva. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Arrhenius, Svante. Text-Book of Electro-Chemistry. (Translated by John McCrae.) Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Baker, Cornelia. Coquo and the King's Children. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Barbour, R. H. Behind the Line: A Story of College Life and Football. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Barnes, James. With the Flag in the Channel; or, the Adventures of Capt. Gustavus Conyngham. (Young Heroes of Our Navy.) D. Appleton & Co. 80 cents.
Bates, Arlo. The Diary of a Saint. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bedlow, Henry. War and Worship: A Poem. Truth Seeker Co. $1.25.
Biddle, Sarah. Some Letters of an American Woman concerning Love and Other Things. Philadelphia: Published by the Author.
Birdsall, Katharine N. Jacks of All Trades, and What They Did. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Bottone, S. R. Galvanic Batteries. London: Whittaker & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Brady, C. T. Woven with the Ship: A Novel of 1865. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Briscoe, J. P. Tudor and Stuart Love Songs. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Bucke, M. R.: Harned, T. B.; Traubel, H. L., and Triggs, O. L. The Complete Writings of Walt Whitman. Vols. I.-V. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Burroughs, John. John James Audubon. (The Beacon Biographies.) Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.
Cap'n Titus: Sketches of New England Country Folk. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Crane, T. F. Les Héros de Roman: Dialogue de Nicolas Boileau-Despréaux. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Creighton, Mandell. Thoughts on Education: Speeches and Sermons. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.60.
Cutter, Benjamin. Harmonic Analysis. Boston: Oliver Ditson.
Dumas, Alexander. The Speronara. (Journeys with Dumas; translated by Katharine Prescott Wormeley.) Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Gilbert, W. S. Patience; or, Bunthorne's Bride. Doubleday, Page & Co.
Giles, H. A. China and the Chinese. Columbia University Press (Macmillan).
Greene, Homer. Pickett's Gap. Macmillan. $1.25.
Griffis, W. E. A Maker of the New Orient: Samuel Robbins Brown. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Hastings, Gilbert. Siena, Its Architecture and Art. Brentano.
Hinds, J. I. D. Chemistry by Observation, Experiment, and Induction: A Laboratory Manual for Students. John Wiley & Sons. 75 cents.
Hinds, J. I. D. Inorganic Chemistry, with the Elements of Physical and Theoretical Chemistry. John Wiley. $3.
Howe, M. A. The Design of Simple Roof-Trusses in Wood and Steel. John Wiley & Sons. $2.
Howells, W. D. Literature and Life; Studies. Harpers.
Huntington, Helen. The Solitary Path. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Hyde, W. D. Jesus' Way: An Appreciation of the Teaching in the Synoptic Gospels. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Iles, M. W. Lead Smelting. John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Johns Hopkins University; Celebration of the Twenty-fifth Anniversary of the Founding of the University and Inauguration of Ira Remsen, LL.D. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Jordan, D. S. The Blood of the Nation; A Study of the Decay of Races through the Survival of the Unfit. Boston: American Unitarian Association. 40 cents.
Knowles, F. L. A Treasury of Humorous Poetry. Boston: Dana, Estes & Co. $1.20.
Levett-Yeats, S. The Lord Protector. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Lindsay, Lady. A Christmas Posy of Carols, Songs, and Other Pieces. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. 3s. 6d.
Marchant, Bessie. The Secret of the Everglades: A Story of Adventure in Florida. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.
Marion, H., and Des Garennes, P. J. Introduccion a la Lengua Castellana. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Meekins, L. R. Adam Rush: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Mighels, P. V. The Inevitable: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Montgomery, Frances T. Billy Whiskers: The Autobiography of a Goat. Saalfield Publishing Co. $1.
Ockhame, W. B. The Song of the Wedding Bells. Grafton Press.
Oman, Charles. Seven Roman Statesmen of the Later Republic. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.
Pardoe, Julia. Louis the Fourteenth and the Court of France in the Seventeenth Century. 3 vols. James Pott & Co. $4.50.
Parry, C. H. H. The Music of the Seventeenth Century. (The Oxford History of Music, vol. iii.) Henry Frowde. $5.
Peer, F. S. Cross-Country with Horse and Hound. Scribners. $3.
Philip, Arnold. The Electro-Plating and Electro-Refining of Metals. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $4.50.
Popham, Florence. The Housewives of Edenrise. D. Appleton & Co.
Price, Clifton. M. Tulli Ciceronis Laelius sive de Amicitia. American Book Co. 75 cents.
Price, Lillian L., and Gilbert, C. B. Heroes of Myth. Silver, Burdett & Co. 50 cents.
Raine, W. M. A Daughter of Raasay: A Tale of the '45. F. A. Stokes Co.
Rathenau, Walther. Impressionen. Leipzig: C. Hirzel. 3 marks.
Reid, S. J. Memoirs of Sir Edward Blount, K.C.B., etc. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Retrospect and Prospect: Studies in International Relations, Naval and Political. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.60.
Risley, R. V. The Life of a Woman. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.
Rodkinson, M. L. The Babylonian Talmud. Vol. VII.-VIII. New Talmud Publishing Co.
Ronald, Mary. Luncheons: A Cook's Picture-Book—A Supplement to the Century Cook-Book. Century Co. $1.40.
Rosegger, Peter. The Earth and the Fulness Thereof: A Romance of Modern Styria. (Translated by Frances E. Skinner.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Sears, Lorenzo. American Literature in its Colonial and National Periods. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Selleck, W. C. The Spiritual Outlook: A Survey of the Religious Life of Our Time, as related to Progress. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.
Street, Lillian. Song and Story. London: David Nutt. 3s.
Sutherland's Christmas: A Chapter from Two Lives. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord. 50 cents.
Taggart, Marion A. Miss Lochinvar. D. Appleton & Co. $1.20.
Tarbell, H. S. and Martha. Essentials of English Composition. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60 cents.
Taylor, Mary I. Little Mistress Good Hope, and Other Fairy Tales. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Tennyson, Alfred, Idylls of the King. 2 vols. (Holiday edition.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Thackeray, William Makepeace. Our Annual Execution, Preceded by a Word on the Annuals. Philadelphia: H. W. Fisher & Co.
The Courtship of Ferb. Translated by A. H. Leahy. (The Irish Saga Library.) London: David Nutt. 2s.
Wells, Carolyn. A Phenomenal Fauna. (Pictures by Oliver Herford.) R. H. Russell.
Wells, Carolyn. The Pete and Polly Stories. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Zimmern, Helen. Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, R. A. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters, Edited by G. C. Williamson.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.


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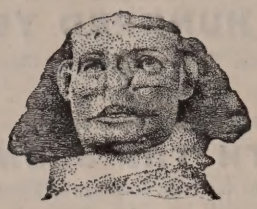

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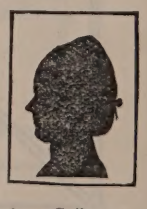

SALLY WISTER, 16 years old, daughter of Daniel Wister, merchant, of Philadelphia, kept a journal of her experiences during the winter of 1777–1778, while exiled from Philadelphia during its occupation by the British. The family lived with relatives in an old farm house on the Wissahickon, which was occupied at times by various prominent officers of the Continental army, and was in the immediate vicinity of several important military operations. Sally saw much of the officers and heard much of the fighting, and comments on both freely and quaintly. Gen. Smallwood is "tall, portly, well-made: a truly martial air, the behavior and manners of a gentleman"; Capt. Furnival, "the handsomest face I ever saw, a very fine person"; Capt. Finley is "wretched ugly"; Maj. Stoddert, "very reserved," but has "an engaging countenance and address," etc. Later the Major grows much less reserved. Another officer who throws off his reserve is Capt. Alexander Spottswood Dandridge, of Virginia, a relative of Martha Washington. Sally describes him in the Journal as "the handsomest man I ever beheld." He asks her if she is a Quaker, and on her saying "Yes," says, "Then you are a Tory," but this she vigorously denies. Gallantry, flirtation, sociability, war and humdrum country life jostle each other in the pages of this unpretentious journal, the whole making a picture of unequaled value for the historian—and of charm for the novel-reader as well.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 13, 1902.

## The Week.

Everybody has been too busy with the election to notice that silver has suffered the direst calamity which has befallen it since the "crime of '73." While the Republican and Democratic managers were jubilantly swelling imaginary majorities, silver, mute and inglorious, was suffering real depreciation, with no Bryan to cry to heaven in its behalf. In calmer language, silver was selling for $0.50375 an ounce, the lowest price that the white metal has ever brought. Not so many years ago this would have been the occasion for tearing down the temple of Rimmon and of "riding in blood to the bridle bits." To-day most of the Democratic States have abjured Bryan and Waite—their works and their phrases—and silver rises or sinks in the markets of the world like beans or pig iron, "without the meed of a melodious tear."

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President Roosevelt chose a poor advocate when he permitted Postmaster-General Payne to be his spokesman regarding the removal of Internal Revenue Collector Bingham of Alabama. If, as Mr. Payne's statement would indicate, Mr. Bingham was removed because he adhered to a form of party policy in Alabama not approved by the President, there would have been no excuse for the action. Using the Federal service as a means of partisan punishment is just as bad as using it as a means of partisan reward. But we think Mr. Payne has misrepresented the President. Collector Bingham evidently not only violated the rule which the President has insisted upon, against pernicious political activity on the part of Federal officers, but he also engaged in a scheme, thoroughly scandalous in its nature, for excluding qualified delegates from the Republican convention because of their color. Here was ground enough for his removal, and it was like the President at his best to act promptly and decisively. Mr. Roosevelt is right on the main contention also. If there is any justification for Alabama's new Constitution, it lies in the fact that only illiterates and paupers are by its letter excluded, while negroes, as well as white persons, who can qualify, may vote as under the old Constitution. Qualified negroes are thus entitled to full political privileges, and a Republican Administration cannot sit by and see them denied. It would be doubly shameful if Federal officials were permitted to become ringleaders in trampling upon negro rights.

In view of official attempts to explain away the tariff-reduction plank of the Iowa Republican platform, Secretary Wilson's report on the entire West, which he has recently visited, is of decided interest. He finds Republicans everywhere in an "attitude of inquiry." They are questioning whether great combinations of capital have not got beyond control, whether certain industries could not survive if the present duties were lowered; finally, "they do not believe that the tariff schedules are inspired like the Lord's Prayer." Secretary Wilson, on the whole, commends this studious attitude of the Western Republicans. His optimism will hardly be shared by the Hannas and Grosvenors of the party. "What! study the tariff, think about it!" —we may imagine them saying—"there is nothing to think about it except that revision spells the ruin of American prosperity."

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Addicks is very bitter towards Republican newspapers which continue to point out his gross unfitness for election to the United States Senate. He bids them "confine themselves to the affairs of their respective localities." But the election of a United States Senator is not a matter of interest to a given locality alone. On the contrary, the splendid determination and energy of the anti-Addicks Republicans of Delaware, in keeping this political blackleg out of the Senate, has tended to raise the tone of political morality throughout the Union. Addicks declares that no human power can cause him to give up the fight, and, despite recent reports, all the indications are that he will brazen it out to the end. His policy of "rule or ruin" has deprived Delaware of representation in the Senate for many years. He is prepared to continue this policy whatever the cost to the State. It seems possible that the deadlock may be prolonged. The Legislature just elected will be made up of twenty-eight Republicans, twenty-three Democrats, and one Independent. Eight of the Republicans are anti-Addicks men, and the experience of recent years furnishes foundation for the hope that they will remain stanch. It would seem that there is now an excellent opportunity for the election of compromise candidates by a combination of the anti-Addicks and Democratic votes. However this may be, it is a great relief to know that the disgrace of Addicks's election is almost certainly averted.

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In the course of his successful canvass for Governor of Pennsylvania, Judge Pennypacker said that he was in favor of ballot reform, but "could not believe" that half the stories which were told about election frauds in Philadelphia were possibly true. It is to be hoped that the extraordinary returns from two Philadelphia wards in the late voting have been brought to his attention. In 1900 McKinley received 1,738 votes in the Third Ward. This is a quarter of the city where the population diminishes year by year, rather than increases, yet the returns gave Pennypacker 3,650 votes, more than double the number received by McKinley two years before. In the Fifth Ward, which is also one of stationary population, McKinley received 1,967 votes in 1900, while Pennypacker is credited with 5,176 this year. The total vote in these two wards in 1900 was 5,470. The total vote as given this year is 9,500, an increase of more than 4,000. Such unblushing frauds speak for themselves. There can be no decency in the politics of Philadelphia, nor, indeed, of Pennsylvania, until the purity of the ballot is insisted upon and secured. There is an end of all government if such travesties of popular elections are to be tolerated. Yet it was a Republican victory won by such criminal methods, in the hands of one of the most hated and corrupt bosses in this country, that President Roosevelt said he was hoping for with "keen interest"!

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The Republican politicians of this State are much agitated by the prospect of a Democratic Attorney-General in the next State Government. The name of Mr. John Cunneen happened to be on both the Democratic and the Prohibition tickets for that office. It is not yet known whether he is elected or not, but the chances seem rather favorable to him. As soon as this contingency became known, there was a hasty putting together of heads to see how the laws of the State could be changed so as to deprive the Attorney-General of his usual functions. It appears that the powers of this officer have been augmented lately, so that he now has charge of the legal business of all the departments of the State Government. Such powers must bring within his ken many facts that a Democrat ought not to know. So what is to be done if Mr. Cunneen is actually elected? We would suggest that a law be passed restricting the Attorney-General to his duties as a Commissioner of the Land Office and a Commissioner of the Canal Fund. These are the only functions which the State Constitution gives him. It leaves the assignment of his other duties to the Legislature. So, you see, there is no occasion for fluttering over the possible election of a Democrat to that office. Who's afraid?

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In bringing forward again his stale old scheme for a State constabulary,

Platt exhibits his utter inability to grasp the meaning of the voting in this city last week. If, after driving the independents from the support of Republican candidates, he now wishes to force away also a large proportion of the enlightened Republicans, let him attempt to put this plan through. He says he wants to take the police out of politics. This has a noble sound, but, unfortunately, people have acquired a habit of looking sharp when Platt suggests political improvements. In this case no especial acuteness is required to discover his aim. He sees quite clearly how he could make use of an organization of, say, 8,000 men, all subject to his will. It would furnish a most excellent political machine, and could readily be made the medium of bestowing rewards and inflicting punishments. That is the only reason why he proclaims that the State Constabulary Bill may be pressed on the Legislature this winter. If it is not passed, it will be because there is a Governor at Albany who has not permitted, and says he will not permit, violations of the principle of home rule for cities, during his term of office. Platt exhibits already a wholesome fear of the lash. Mr. Odell has only to come out squarely against the constabulary scheme, as he did before, and Platt will have to put his bill away in a pigeon-hole again. Open warfare on the unscrupulous boss is the way to head off his nefarious schemes, as it is also the way to defeat his arrangements to disgrace New York by pretending to represent it at Washington.

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A plan for reducing taxation in this city by $8,500,000 per year was submitted by Comptroller Grout a few weeks ago to the Chamber of Commerce and to various banking institutions and experts in finance for examination and advice. In substance, it proposes to discontinue the excessive collection of money for the sinking-fund, and reduce such collections to the amount necessary to meet and extinguish the city debt as it matures. It is a fact not generally understood, although Mr. Levey, the former Deputy Comptroller, took all possible pains to make it known, that the collections for sinking-fund purposes are so far in excess of the legitimate needs of the sinking-fund that, if continued till 1928, a surplus of nearly $300,000,000 will have been accumulated, in excess of the sum needed for paying and cancelling the debt maturing at that time. The whys and wherefores of this anomaly in finance are not easy to explain. Public sinking-funds in general are hard to understand. That of New York city is a patchwork composed of so many different pieces and shapes that it is a very confusing study. If we were starting a new system of municipal borrowing we should adopt a better plan. But as the present complicated system exists, and as it has led to the consequences shown by Mr. Levey, by Mayor Low and Comptroller Grout, it is best to grapple with them now. We concur with the view expressed by the Chamber of Commerce, and we do not share the doubts which some persons entertain respecting the "contractual obligations" entered into by the city with its bondholders. Neither of the parties to the contract ever contemplated the annual collection of more money than was needful for the sinking-fund, and no court will hold that the contract has been violated if the collections are fully sufficient for the purpose.

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Judge Lambert deserves the high praise which has been accorded him for his conduct of the latest trial of the Molinuex case. He has got it to the jury in the merest fraction of the time consumed before. And his expedition has not been achieved at the cost of justice: the rights of the defendant he has scrupulously safeguarded. Nor has the prosecution been limited in its efforts to prove Molineux guilty, except as the rules of evidence and the decision of the Court of Appeals have been rigorously enforced by the presiding judge, to exclude irrelevancies and to prevent anything like a fishing excursion. Judge Lambert has, in fact, exemplified in the happiest way the Anglo-Saxon idea of the judicial character. Impartial as the light of day, and without one touch of the hectoring fashions of a *juge d'instruction*, he has been clear in his decisions, resolute in his interpretation and application of the law, the enemy only of verbosity and irrelevance, and relentless in compelling both sides to save time and come to the point. This wholesome lesson to trial justices in this county has been read by a country judge. Judge Lambert is a "hayseed." He comes from the *bête noire* of Mr. Coler, "up the State." Yet he is only typical of the class of men whom the rural voters are in the habit of placing upon the bench. The truth is, that they know more and care more about judicial fitness than do people in the city. The county and district courts still hold much of their old place in the life of the interior of the State. The leading lawyers of the local bar are watched and sifted in actual trial of their powers. They are talked about on the street-corner and in shop and home. Judges, too, in the nice points of their conduct of cases, are discussed and weighed as, it is safe to say, no occupant of the bench in this city ever is. The result is a finer sense of judicial qualification, a more ready jealousy in resenting anything like tampering with the judiciary or lowering its standards, and the election of judges who are, on the whole, of a robuster and a more athletic type, legally speaking, than their metropolitan brethren. A very striking proof of the countryman's sensitiveness about his judges was given in the defeat of Attorney-General Davies on Tuesday week, though President Roosevelt thought him just the man for a judgeship, and urged, not to say intrigued for, his nomination.

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The shocking "accident" in Madison Square on election night should lead to a rigid investigation of the custom of permitting the use of the city parks for political celebrations. Quite aside from the danger to life and limb through the explosives and from the vast crowds which assemble in narrow thoroughfares, the parks and public gardens were never intended for any such purpose. They are for the recreation and health of the people, not for the celebrations of political parties or the display of election returns by yellow journals. On the occasion of the Hearst Congressional rally in Madison Square Garden, the other night, thousands of people trampled on the grass and swarmed over the Square until it looked as if it had been the stamping-ground of an invading army. In this case the abuse of the park was all the more disgusting since the entire circus was in the interests of a self-advertising newspaper proprietor and his noisy sheet—although under the guise of a Democratic rally. No matter what the object or who the backers of the demonstrations, the police and the park authorities should forbid all such meetings and celebrations. The crowds along Broadway were dangerously large throughout the evening, and a wise police administration would have taken every means to prevent such an alarming jam as in Madison Square. The Department must share the responsibility for the accident with the person who was so criminally careless in setting off the fireworks.

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Canvassing for the next Speakership of the House seems a trifle premature, in view of the fact that the new Congress will not meet, unless called in extraordinary session, before December of 1903. The canvassing will doubtless go on, however, and "plays for position" will be made throughout the coming session. It is universally agreed that Speaker Henderson has been a great success in at least one respect—he has made it inevitable that his successor, whoever he may be, shall shine by force of contrast. Congressman Cannon is commonly thought to have a commanding lead for the succession, both from his long service and from his standing so peculiarly as the representative of the West which alone saved the Republicans their majority. If a cautious Speaker is wanted, averse to innovations and unfriendly to bold initiative of any sort, Mr. Cannon would seem to be just the man. He was understood to be opposed to the

ship-subsidy scheme. If that is a reason for making him Speaker, it would be a still stronger reason in favor of Congressman Burton of Cleveland, who was more courageous than Mr. Cannon and spoke out unequivocally against Hanna's pet measure, even though a representative of Hanna's city. Mr. Burton has also a long and creditable record of service in Congress, but we presume his occasional independence of party would be urged against him, as it would against Mr. Littlefield of Maine. Both of the last-named members would stand for a more aggressive policy than Mr. Cannon. This fact, however, as party caucuses go, would not help them to obtain the honor.

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Professor Jenks of Cornell University has just submitted at Washington a report on labor conditions in the Philippines which is not precisely pleasant reading. He has no doubt that some form of the *corvée* system is necessary, and he suggests that gangs of Chinese be imported for terms of three or five years, and allotted to certain districts which they may not leave. The employers are to be put under strict bonds to treat these laborers well, and to send them back to China when their period of contract-servitude expires. The reason for adopting this form of temporary slavery is that the native supply of labor is insufficient and untrustworthy. We do not know whether the Government will bring itself to enact into law the modified form of slavery which prevails generally in the South Seas. If it does, there will not be lacking clerical apologists to point out that these Chinese are packed in ships and herded in gangs for their own good and for the greater glory of God. But we trust that we shall not return again to the cant of slavery times. Professor Jenks's report, which is presumably correct from the economic standpoint, should direct the public mind and conscience to the real conditions of empire in the tropics. Uncle Sam as a conquistador and pacificator does very well, but we are convinced that very few of his nephews will be glad to acclaim him in the rôle of slave-driver.

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President Eliot put his finger on one of the ailing spots of trades-unionism when he said, on Monday, in his speech before the Economic Club of Boston, that some of its principles fought against both education and manly instincts. The aim of the educator is to call out the best that is in man. Labor unions hedge him about, check his skill, and forbid him to rise above a certain dead level either of competence or effectiveness. They make rules which are as so many doors closed in the faces of ambitious young men. By limiting the number of apprentices, they do their best to prevent the development of special aptitude, and then discourage it when it does appear. Nothing could be more fatal, judged by the laws of education and of evolution in general. And to make the standard of work as low as possible, to produce the least allowable and to demand the highest wages for it obtainable, can but result in a race of shirks and drones. Such was the tonic gospel of work which the President of Harvard laid down, not only as teacher but as citizen. In his mind it would be lamentable to have our working classes drop to the fatalistic temper which trades-unionism has done so much to implant in England. "We cannot rise from our class," says the British mechanic, "no matter what we do; so do not talk to us of attaining higher skill and better pay." It will be a deadened and discouraged America when that hopelessness prevails here.

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The Education Bill drags out a very weary length in Parliament, progressing through committee at the rate of a few lines a sitting, and even so only through the application of the closure. The justification for these tedious proceedings is the fact that the clause now under debate determines the degree of control that the educational authority may exercise over the voluntary schools. Voluntary schools are those which have been previously maintained by a denomination (but, practically, only the Church of England schools are in question), from private funds, with the aid of a small Government subsidy. Under the Education Bill such schools are to provide and maintain their buildings free of charge, in return for which their running expenses are to be met from the public funds. These schools, however, are under a double control, which is very ill defined. In strictly educational matters they are responsible to the County or Municipal Council of the district, and to the central Board of Education. In religious matters, and as respects local management generally, they are responsible to boards of managers appointed on a basis of two representatives from the denomination to one from the community at large. The exact jurisdiction of the educational and that of the denominational authority remain vague, even after much debate.

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It will we seen that the two authorities approach practical problems, such as the appointment of teachers, from a markedly different point of view. The County Council, for example, wishes simply a good teacher; the local managers will insist that the good teacher be also a high, low, or broad churchman, as the case may be. The compromise which has actually been made suggests trouble to come. No appointment of the managers shall be vetoed by the higher authority except upon educational grounds, and *per contra* the managers shall be free to dismiss a teacher upon religious grounds. Minor concessions to the Nonconformists, such as waiving trust stipulations as to creed in the case of subordinate teachers, and the opening of the voluntary schools, where necessary, for night classes, do not touch the main anomaly of the bill—that the local managers, virtually a private denominational committee, will have in half the schools of England a power which, in the other half, is exercised by a duly appointed public committee. In plain words, the arrangement virtually shifts the support of the voluntary schools upon the Government. The unfairness of the transaction is so apparent that Mr. Balfour, who obviously has his Parliamentary majority safely in his hand, will soon have to reckon with the people. The greatly diminished polling in a Liverpool Unionist constituency shows that even in his own party Mr. Balfour has a threatening opposition.

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The meaning of the Kaiser's visit to England is variously guessed at by the press, but all correspondents agree that the royal kinsmen are perfecting important negotiations between their respective nations. Journalistic warnings to fear the Germans even when they bear treaties seem beside the mark, for the German Foreign Office is in no position to offer reciprocal terms of trade. Whatever is on foot at Sandringham, one may fairly assume, concerns not trade, but territory. There are two points at which the relative holdings of Great Britain and Germany obviously need adjustment—China and Southeast Africa. In China Germany has just taken the initiative in recommending the withdrawal of the foreign detachments, an act which must have been very gratifying to Great Britain. In Parliament recently the versatile Mr. Gibson Bowles forced the Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs to a tacit admission of the existence of a secret treaty with Germany concerning South Africa. Viscount Cranborne's rather awkward evasion of the question tallied accurately with the rumor that Great Britain held an option of purchase on the southern portion of Portuguese East Africa. And now the inclusion of two Portuguese naval officers among those decorated on the King's birthday reminds one of the care which is taken to gild an awkward transaction with extraordinary amenities. Such a redistribution of the territory below the Zambesi would gratify German pride and further British interests, while the East African would probably feel none the worse for the change of sovereignty. The frank avowal of such an intention would do much to allay that popular suspicion of the Kaiser's motives which is unhappily at variance with the warmth of his official reception.

### *THE ROAD TO DEMOCRATIC RECOVERY.*

One lesson of the late elections is written large on the face of the returns: the Democrats have not regained the confidence of the country. More narrowly, there remains evident a distrust of Democratic leadership. The Democratic policies give signs of winning their way again, but all the would-be party leaders of the hour have been dealt terrible blows by the electors. Even Bryan's volubility is quenched under the cold douche of both Nebraska and Colorado gone Republican. His fellow-charlatan in Ohio has folded his tent like the Arab. In New York, Hill's offensive personality was the obvious and agreed cause, ultimately, of Democratic defeat. If Judge Parker had been nominated instead of Coler, and if, in his judicial capacity, he had sentenced Hill to silence and effacement during the campaign, there is no doubt that he would have been triumphantly elected, and would have been to-day hailed as the coming nominee for the Presidency in 1904. There never was a clearer case of a vicious and abhorrent leadership wrecking a party's fair prospects.

Now the truth which the disappointed and sobered Democracy must take to heart is, that an exceptionally high leadership will be demanded of it under present circumstances. What would have been regarded as passable or excusable in other years will not do now. The party is very much in the position of a man who has been running a round of dissoluteness for some years, and suddenly professes a determination to reform. This will, of course, interest all his friends and well-wishers, but they will be sure to keep a sharp eye upon him to see how he behaves. They certainly will not admit him to their houses the very first day after he has shaved and cleaned up. He will have to win his way back to respect and confidence by a steady course of decent living; and if he is caught occasionally dropping into one of his old boozing kens, all his virtuous pretences will go for nothing. Reform is a good thing to promise, but where are the fruits meet for repentance?

For six years the Democratic party has been playing the political drab. It has sinned grievously, and driven away thousands of its best supporters. Many of them have now formed the habit of voting the Republican ticket. Forced first to do it by way of protest, and much against their will, they have kept it up year by year, until to-day it requires an unusual effort and a powerful attraction to win them back to their old allegiance. Emerson used to say that he preferred to vote with the Democrats but to live with the Whigs. Changing the name Whigs for Republicans, that attitude exactly corresponds to the position taken by great numbers of our best citizens for many years. Their political convictions were with the Democrats; their friendships and social affinities were with the Republicans. But now they have been preferring to vote with the Republicans for several elections, as well as to live with them. That is the situation which puts the Democracy to its trumps.

Yet what are we witnessing at this moment? Nothing less than the spectacle of obnoxious and defeated machines preparing to make themselves still more obnoxious and to incur new disasters. Look first at Ohio. In that State, Tom Johnson has just undergone a more emphatic and pointed rejection at the polls than any Democratic leader has suffered since Vallandingham. But what does he propose to do? Take his hand off the lever, retire, be silent, and give place to a worthier? Nothing of the kind. He announces his determination to perfect his control of the party machine. His hold on the Hamilton County organization had not been absolute, and his next step is to make himself supreme in party management in Cincinnati. The idea seems to be that, if the voters show signs of being disgusted with too much Johnson, the proper move is to give them still more of him. Then, perhaps, next time the majority against him will be 150,000, instead of the mere 100,000 of this year.

What is going on in this State is fully as instructive. The Hill machine was the admitted cause of the defeat of the Democratic party. It is demonstrable that the intense hostility to Hill changed enough votes to prevent Mr. Coler's election. But what is the discarded boss going to do with himself and his machine? Beyond all doubt he has already begun plotting to make himself more absolute dictator than ever. If the machine he had built up was like chastising the voters with whips, he will give them one that will be like chastising them with scorpions. Your true boss's remedy for machine methods is more, and more outrageous, machine methods. Lieut.-Gov. Woodruff announces that he means to follow that plan in Brooklyn. The antics of his organization in Kings County have confessedly repelled thousands of Republican votes. Coler's immense plurality in Brooklyn was a stinging blow levelled at the Woodruff-Dady machine. Yet all the talk of the defeated and discredited machine leaders is about the need of strengthening their power and making the clank of their political machinery more odious than ever.

The explanation is, that the machine has come to be thought of as an institution to be justified and upheld quite independently of success in the aims for which it was ostensibly founded. What it is really maintained for is the personal ascendency of men in control of it, their ability to dictate nominations, and the recognition of their power on 364 days of the year, even if on the 365th—election day—they are shown to have no power at all except to wreck their party. Studied as men with these ends in view, the bosses are seen to be as shrewd as they are selfish. But considered as aids to their party in elections, they are the absurdest of misfits, a demonstrated nuisance and calamity.

A clean, strong, inspiring leadership is the great Democratic need of the hour. The issues stand waiting. A cause is prepared for which thousands are ready to fight devotedly. But they scan the field eagerly and in vain for a sight of that commanding figure, that political genius, that compelling character, who is able to unite the scattered forces, and to wield them as a great instrument for the country's good. Were ex-Gov. Russell of Massachusetts alive to-day, how the eyes and hopes of the nation would be turning to him! How the Hills and the Gormans would wriggle off the scene before him! And nothing is more certain than that some man of his type and temper must be found and put at the head of the Democracy before it can fairly be said to be on the road to recovery.

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### *THE INDEPENDENT VOTE OF NEW YORK CITY.*

One year ago a candidate for Mayor in this city, nominated by the Republican party and numerous independent organizations, carried Greater New York against Tammany Hall by a plurality of 31,632. This year, candidates presented by Tammany and the Democrats have in turn swept the city by the enormous plurality of 122,005. These are truly startling figures; and two of the parties to the election of a year ago have been quick to seize upon them for their own purposes. "Tammany is invincible, the Democracy is reunited," cry the Sullivans, the Plunkitts, the Murphys, and their kind. "Mayor Low has refused to give us jobs and places, and has wrought the ruin of his party in this city," shriek the Quiggs, the Ten Eycks, and the Gibbses, seeking an excuse for the overthrow of their political machine. Everybody knows, however, that the Democrats of Greater New York are fighting bitterly, even desperately, among themselves; and everybody knows also that, so far as his position as Mayor is concerned, Mr. Low has no party with whose ruin or advancement he can have anything to do.

The jubilations of the Sullivans and the Murphys are as hollow as the recriminations of the Quiggs and the Gibbses. Croker's disappearance may have brought back a few votes to Tammany, and undoubtedly dissatisfaction with Mayor Low has alienated many Republicans; but this does not account

for a Democratic gain of 153,637 in the city. Those figures mean that 76,814 voters who cast their ballots against Tammany candidates a year ago, supported such candidates at the polls this year. Who made up this large body of voters, to what class or classes do they belong, and why did they change? These are questions of the deepest moment. For our part, we do not believe that the election just passed indicates that the people are ready to return to the corrupt and humiliating rule of Tammany Hall. We do freely concede that a good many persons chose a year when they could do so with comparative safety, to slap at the local reform administration; but in the election returns as a whole we read a very different and a less discouraging lesson.

Mayor Low's total vote a year ago was 296,807. As soon as the election of 1901 was over, the Republican managers announced that their organization had contributed 84 per cent. of that total. In other words, they asserted that the voting strength of their organization one year ago in the greater city was 249,318. Yet, despite a year's natural increase in voting population, "unbounded prosperity," and generally unobjectionable candidates, they can now muster but 202,559. Allowing for the normal gain in the voting population, here is a discrepancy of about 50,000 which the Republicans must account for, unless they are ready to admit that their estimate a year ago was grossly exaggerated and absurd. The fact is, that they cannot account for this discrepancy, and that, whether they admit it or not, their 84 per cent. claim has been completely demolished by the result this year.

All the explanations of this year's voting, noted above, proceed without reference to the existence in this city of a truly independent vote of large proportions. How the reality of such an element can be disregarded in the light of election figures of recent years passes understanding. In 1897, Mayor Low, running as the Citizens' Union candidate, polled 151,540 votes; Gen. Tracy, the Republican candidate, polled 101,873. This makes a total anti-Tammany vote of 253,413. In 1898 the total vote for Mr. Roosevelt, the Republican candidate for Governor, was 200,252. Here again is a difference of more than 50,000 anti-Tammany votes to be accounted for. Of course, there is but one possible explanation. The fact is absolutely clear that there is in this city a vote, amounting to probably 75,000, which is but lightly, if at all, attached to any party. It is a vote which baffles the politicians because it is cast silently and without ostentation. This body of electors does not hold meetings, burn red-fire, or employ a band. It makes up its mind quietly and calmly, and goes to the polls determined to do what it considers to be duty, without reference to any partisan gain or loss in the result. It looks at political questions chiefly from their moral side. It is merciless in its condemnation of fraud, injustice, pretence, or truckling. It is the element which the politicians never take account of, because generally they cannot understand it; yet it controls elections in this city.

This vote was not cast for the Republican ticket this year. It had been affronted by the attempt of Republican politicians to interfere with the judiciary; it shrank from endorsing a Governor who, however he came to own it, owned stock in a company selling supplies to the State; it was out of patience with the timidity of the local Administration, which hesitated to move on boldly and fearlessly to the accomplishment of the reforms in the Police Department and elsewhere which it was put in power to achieve. This independent body of voters demands that public men exhibit in public affairs the same qualities of honesty, courage, scrupulousness, capability, and moral worth which are ordinarily required in private life. It is never taken in by scheming. If those who are to lead in next year's contest to keep Tammany out will remember these things, there is no reason to be cast down over the situation.

## *THE OFFICERS OF THE NAVY.*

From present indications it is evident that a great effort will be made to bring about a large increase in the number of naval officers during the coming session of Congress. Secretary Moody, it is known, is very anxious to throw all the influence of his Department in this direction, and is willing to make his demand for new ships less insistent than that of his predecessor. President Roosevelt is reported, however, to be in the mood for plenty of "real fighting" ships to carry out a naval programme which shall make the United States "one of the foremost naval powers." They must be seagoing "battle-ships of great range of action" and extremely powerful batteries, and superior, of course, to those of any other nation—all new battle-ships are, until the next ones are built, which is generally a question of months only. Our fighting President is eager for more officers, too, but he thinks the demand for them should not precede that for new ships, but go "hand in hand" with it.

In the magazines and the press a quiet campaign for more officers has been going on for months past. Every resignation or retirement announced at Washington is coupled with the statement that it is due to overwork, and the number of recent deaths of officers has been attributed to the same cause. Favorable editorial comment on the general proposal has been secured by industrious writing of letters to editors, and particularly by the publication of elaborate tables showing that when the new ships now under construction are completed, 783 more officers will be needed, and that by July, 1905, the navy will lack more than 1,000 officers, although Annapolis will have furnished about 355. These figures were also given out by Secretary Moody in a recent speech at Chicago.

The whole question has, in fact, been reduced to a ratio of officers to tons. For every 1,000 tons of our war fleet we should have, it appears, three officers, and the slightest falling off in that respect is, we are assured, "exceedingly serious." The author of this phrase and of this admirable ratio corrects himself on the next page of his article by declaring that "to say that this is a serious state of affairs does not reach the outskirts of the situation. It is nothing less than astounding," he continues; "and it is worse, because the people are absolutely ignorant that such a condition exists. Are we to fall down helpless, or are we to accept the situation and stir ourselves to meet it? . . . Surely, now that the truth about this matter has been made clear, the American people will not sit idle and see an institution in which they take a just pride exposed to the risk of a humiliation that will be national, if it should come." The remedies suggested by this writer—a naval officer—are the education of 2,000 midshipmen at Annapolis instead of 500, and the formation of a patriotic "Navy League," like similar organizations in Germany and England, to keep the people informed as to the needs of the service.

Now, all these arguments are of importance if it can be proved that the United States really needs a large navy, and is menaced by such grave and imminent dangers that every ship we build must be kept at sea, fully manned, and ready to go into action. Not even England undertakes to keep all her warships in service or with their full complement of men. As in Germany and in France, many vessels are laid up at the navy-yard ready for active service, but with only a few caretakers on board. In war time they are to be manned by reserve officers and men. If the United States is going to depart from all its best traditions and rival these European nations, it must certainly build up a large naval reserve capable of going to sea at a moment's notice, for such a reserve is the most economical arrangement, and permits many thousands of men to contribute to the industrial development of a country, except during periods of drill.

We do not believe that the United States will come to this, or that the American people are anxious for the creation of a great war fleet at an extravagant cost, at the very time when every humane and civilizing impulse in Europe is in the other direction. We

agree with Mr. Carnegie that her swollen fleets and armies are the greatest menace to Europe's industrial life. For the United States deliberately to handicap itself in a similar way would argue unparalleled stupidity and shortsightedness. It would be all the more inexcusable in view of the fact that this country is menaced by no foreign enemies, and will not be unless it seeks trouble, as it did in 1898—especially as it has gone in for an elaborate system of land fortifications at enormous expense. The bogey of a war with Germany over South America having been disposed of, our most belligerent Imperialists have no other impending national danger to bring forward.

This game of getting more ships for our officers, and then more officers for our ships, has been worked long enough. Our navy is more than sufficiently large for police duty in foreign waters and for coast defence in the remote possibility of our being attacked. The ships now under construction more than insure the replacement of worn-out vessels. Instead of increasing the navy, we believe that Congress should decline to authorize any more officers, or men, or vessels. The danger signals upon our financial horizon which Mr. Vanderlip pointed out so ably the other day, if read aright, warn also to economy in national expenditures. The Republican Administration has pointed the way by reducing the army to the smallest number authorized by law, while the recent elections indicate clearly a growing return to sanity after the war debauch of 1898 and 1899. The time is ripe for men and parties to return to the policy of a small navy and army, under which the country has waxed great and strong throughout its history without detriment to national security or honor.

### *ANOTHER CHANGE OF POLICY.*

It was announced in Washington on Friday that Secretary Shaw had revoked the order which he made on the first of October, allowing "other satisfactory security" than United States bonds to be taken for Government deposits in banks. It is understood that about $17,000,000 of such deposits have been made on such other security, chiefly municipal bonds, and that the Treasury has reached the limit of its power to "bring relief to the money market by such deposits." This new change of policy, for so it will be regarded, will not add anything to the Secretary's reputation as a man knowing his own mind and sure of his footing. It is safe to say that Mr. Gage would never have made the ruling of October 1, but if he had made it he would not have rescinded it on the 7th of November. Nor would he have coupled the ruling of October 1 with a requirement that the banks putting up municipal bonds as security for deposits should take out an equal amount of circulating notes on the security of United States bonds. The latter requirement was not helpful to the Secretary's main purpose of relieving the money market, although it might seem so to a superficial observer.

Meanwhile, the Secretary's order of October 1 has been the subject of a good deal of comment in business circles. At a meeting of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday, Mr. Jacob H. Schiff made some remarks on current conditions in the money market, in the course of which he advanced the opinion that some of the recent acts of the Secretary of the Treasury might have serious consequences. Being asked by a reporter what particular acts he had in mind, Mr. Schiff said that he had special reference to the Secretary's construction of the words "and otherwise" in the law relating to the collateral security for Government deposits in the banks. Continuing, Mr. Schiff said:

> "He has construed these words to mean that the banks may put up municipal bonds against the Government balances. This seems to me a dangerous precedent and a serious misinterpretation. A less able and less wise man than Mr. Shaw might, in time to come, with the present Secretary's precedent to guide him, allow the banks to deposit railroad bonds as collateral, and, if railroad bonds, why not farm mortgages? Why, if Mr. Bryan or one of his stripe should be elected, his Secretary of the Treasury might elect to accept warehouse receipts. The law in question was passed during the war, and those two words, 'and otherwise,' mean that the Secretary of the Treasury might take *additional* security, not other security. The law does not read 'Government bonds, or otherwise.' Mr. Shaw's interpretation may have serious consequences because it opens the way for the abuses I have pointed out."

We agree to all that Mr. Schiff says in the foregoing paragraph, but we do not apprehend any loss of money to the Government in consequence of the Secretary's disregard of the law in this particular. Another law gives the Government a paramount lien on all the assets of national banks for any dues to itself, and this provision would undoubtedly protect the Government even if no collateral security whatever were taken for deposits. It is safe to assume that the Secretary will exercise as much prudence is placing his deposits as a private individual would in handling equal sums of money. Now if Mr. Carnegie, or Mr. Rockefeller, or Mr. Schiff were secured, when placing money on deposit in banks, in the same way that the Government is, so that in case of the failure of a bank they could exhaust the entire assets and the stockholders' liability before any other depositor could get a penny, is it imaginable that the persons so favored would ever lose anything by a bank failure? Assuredly not. The requirement of Government bonds, or municipal bonds, or farm mortgages, or warehouse receipts, or the I. O. U. of Wilkins Micawber, is alike unnecessary.

The possible harm to flow from the Secretary's action will come through a different channel. It will result from a growing contempt for the law of the land; and this, if countenanced by the highest officers of the Government, may break out anywhere, and may take the most unexpected forms. It is not open to doubt that the act of Congress governing deposits of public money in banks makes one kind of security indispensable, and that is United States bonds. Security may be taken in addition to it, but not in substitution for it. This has been the interpretation of the law by every Secretary since it was passed, until now. Such was the interpretation given to it in Congress when it was under debate. Such was apparently the interpretation of Secretary Shaw himself only a few days before he announced the new rule.

It will be the duty of Congress, early in the coming session, to inquire in courteous terms why this uniform interpretation of the law regarding Government deposits in banks has been changed. A debate on this question would be altogether wholesome, and would probably deter any other Secretary from overstepping the limits marked for him by Congress, and serve as a warning to other officers of the Government not to take such liberties. It would be a wise step, also, for Congress to inquire how the Secretary came to change his mind so suddenly after announcing that no proposition would be considered for taking other security than United States bonds for Government deposits. Such inquiries cannot be considered disrespectful to the head of the Department. Congress addressed a similar inquiry to Secretary Boutwell when he paid out a few millions of greenbacks that had been redeemed and cancelled in pursuance of law by Secretary McCulloch. The motives of Mr. Boutwell were not questioned in that case, nor are those of Mr. Shaw impugned in any degree now.

### NEW LONDON AND ITS WAYS.

LONDON, October 11, 1902.

When the Campanile fell in Venice last summer, a loud outcry of indignation was heard in London, and Young Italy was warned that, if it could not preserve its own great monuments, the rest of the civilized world would have to step in and take them in charge. But the regular and approved system of vandalism that is going on quietly in London, promises eventually to prove as disastrous in its consequences as Italian indifference and neglect. Since the County Council has been managing municipal affairs, there has been a continual pulling down and rebuilding, until the chances are that in ten years or so London will be practically a new town. A few of the old buildings, like Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's, will no doubt be preserved—in an unpicturesque state of repair, as neatly classified and prepared for the tourist as the Forum and Baths and Tombs in Rome. But the rest of London will be but a tribute to the

mistaken "progressive" zeal of County Councillors. It is true that sometimes the pulling down and sometimes the rebuilding are necessary, but the late scheme for erecting a Town or County Hall on the Adelphi site shows the utterly thoughtless and vandalistic spirit in which these so-called reforms are undertaken. The scheme, fortunately, was defeated in (as one of the London papers puts it) a sudden access of common sense on the part of the Council. But it is typical of what has been done, what is being done, and what will be done.

That the Council must have a County Hall, few intelligent people will deny, though it might be remembered that the British Government still has a Parliament House so small that if all the members of Parliament were to take the trouble to turn up, many could not even get in. The County Council has outgrown the building in Spring Gardens which it inherited from the Metropolitan Board of Works, and various departments are now lodged in offices scattered throughout the neighboring streets. But that, to secure a hall for itself, one of the most beautiful and complete pieces of domestic architecture in all London should be destroyed, and this, too, at an enormous expense, is quite another matter. After Inigo Jones and Wren, England has had no more distinguished architects than the Adam Brothers. Robert Adam was an artist of distinct originality, though his inspiration was classical. He developed a style of his own, and was strong enough to impose it upon the architects of his day. He had not the great opportunities of Inigo Jones and Wren—his work was confined to domestic architecture; but in this he triumphed. Mansions still survive here and there in the country to testify to his genius; he is also to be studied in some of the spacious houses of Portland Place, familiar to every American who stops at the Langham Hotel; but he never did anything finer in its way and more completely rounded out than the row of houses on Adelphi Terrace, above the Embankment Gardens, overlooking the river, near Charing Cross. And all the surrounding quarter, known as the Adelphi, is full of his work—houses with doors and windows that architects and students come from far to copy, and ceilings and fireplaces that have become models for the decorator.

I say nothing of the memories clinging about all this quarter, in the very names of the streets—Robert, John, Adam—called after the brothers, and, to go further back, after the Duke of Buckingham of ill fame; in the record of tenants—from Lord Bacon to Pepys and Dr. Monroe, Turner's friend—who have lived in this little quiet corner, and succeeded each other in its beautiful old houses and chambers. These would be purely sentimental reasons that carry no weight in politics. Nor do I find that the architectural plea weighed with the Councillors. Only one or two made the sacrifice of Adam's masterpiece an argument against the scheme, and they were assured by an ardent Progressive that, if that were all, matters could be set straight by building the new hall "in the Adam style"!—a remark that gives the measure of the average County Councillor's intelligence where art is concerned.

If sentiment and fine architecture alone had stood in the way, I am afraid that already the hammers or pick-axes of the destroyer would be heard in the Adelphi. But, luckily, the financial side of the question had to be faced; £900,000 was the price of the site as it was before the first old brick had been thrown down or a new cornerstone laid. Economy has not as yet proved the failing of the Council, but, with the most extravagant municipal body, there comes a moment when the rate-payers cannot be ignored. It is too soon to forget the heavy debt with which the new street has burdened the municipality, and the more sober Councillors stopped to ask what they were going to get for their money. And at once the absurdity of the whole scheme became manifest. For, if the Council finds it must have a new hall, and is willing to pay for it, every one must agree that this hall should be given the dignity, and even splendor, befitting the headquarters of the rulers of the largest and wealthiest capital in the world. But, on the Adelphi site, a County Hall would be totally invisible from the north, the east, and the west; on the east side, curiously enough, overshadowed by the Hotel Cecil, the building which, before it was turned into a hotel, was offered to the Council and promptly refused. Though but a stone's throw from the Strand, on the north, the hall would have no entrance upon it unless, as has been whispered, the scheme should later on have been found to embrace a Strand frontage at an additional enormous outlay; though overlooking the Thames on the south, it would have no direct approach from the Embankment, unless, as also is likely, provision has been privately made for ripping up the Embankment Gardens and building an imposing entrance on the river front. In a word, £900,000 would have been thrown away on an insignificant site—insignificant, that is, for the purpose—buried in a series of back alleys and *culs-de-sac*. It is no wonder that the Council's critics have been asking what lay beneath it all. It is the sort of scheme in which, at home, honest men would immediately suspect a job.

The whole movement is the more inexplicable because, when the new street from Holborn to the Strand was first projected, the idea was to reserve the space at the southern end, where the avenue is some day to open into a wide circus, for the Town or County Hall. Here, indeed, it might have been erected with becoming magnificence, and something of that respect for order and design which in modern Paris has helped to reconcile one to the loss of the old town. When a certain number of architects were commissioned to prepare plans for this street and circus, the County Hall was an important and central feature in almost all. But, for some unknown reason, after the architects had been well paid with the rate-payers' money, no more was heard of the competition, and, according to the present plan, the new avenue, at its southern end, is to be flanked on one side by Short's, a well-known public house, on the other by the Gaiety Theatre, a sort of music hall.

Again, while the public was being assured that such a fine site as the Adelphi, at £900,000, was a wonderful bargain, to be grabbed at once before the price went up, as it was sure to, the suggestion of a still finer site at the southeastern end of Westminster Bridge, to cost £150,000 less, was dismissed, apparently, as not worth discussing. And yet here also the County Hall would have commanded the river, and, moreover, have been within a few minutes of the Houses of Parliament and almost all the Government offices—without question a consideration, since so much of the Council's business is connected with that of the state. Another suggestion, recently made, but outside of the Council, has also its advantage: the triangle, which every one who has been to London will remember, formed by Trafalgar Square, Cockspur street, and Pall-Mall East, a site in the very centre of London, the very heart of the Empire, which, if in any other capital in the world, would long since have been filled by a building of public importance, instead of clubs and shops and private offices. For the moment, however, the matter seems to have been laid aside that the Council may turn its attention to the underground railroads of London and save them, no doubt, from the rapacity of the American company promoter, who threatens to run the entire metropolis—if not all England—for his own profit. But one thing is sure. If the public, in a patriotic outburst, supports the County Council in opposition to Mr. Morgan and Mr. Yerkes, it will have to pay for the privilege of patriotism. To compete with private enterprise in order to save public money has no place on the programme of political "progressives."

Indeed, it is the growing extravagance in municipal government that is so discouraging. The Borough Councils, in the first flush of their new power, are even more reckless than the County Council. In the City of Westminster, which happens to be my borough, the rates—that is, the local taxes—have increased all but four pounds within the year, though for ten years previously they had varied but by a few shillings. And yet the street in which I live, and a great many others, are kept in a state that would disgrace a Spanish village or an Italian hill-town. There is nothing to show for the money except the vulgar coronation decorations last summer; a few sand-boxes; a series of street-signs (white panels with black and red lettering, neatly and inappropriately framed, already grimy in the thick London atmosphere); and another series of absurd notices, hung up on the street-lamps, directing pedestrians to keep to the right—and of no possible use to anybody, except on those rare crowded occasions when a handful of police can regulate the traffic a great deal better. And what goes on in Westminster is going on, in varying degrees, all over London. Extravagance is the order of the day. The County Council's action in the matter of the Adelphi is simply characteristic of the modern tendency. But it seems better than most of its measures as an example, because, while so little, if anything, was to be gained by the wholesale squandering of public money, so much was to be lost.

## MADAME DE KRÜDENER.

PARIS, October 22, 1902.

The name of Madame de Krüdener appears but for a moment in French history. In all the accounts given of the invasion of 1815, she is represented as having exercised some sort of mystical influence on the Emperor Alexander, who, with his brother sovereigns and allies, held for a time in his hands the fate of France and of the dy-

nasty of the Bourbons. But little is known of her, and M. Joseph Turquan has tried to satisfy our curiosity with regard to this extraordinary person. He has entered Madame de Krüdener in his already long series of "Souveraines et Grandes Dames." M. Turquan cannot be called an historian in the strict sense of the word; he is content to collect original documents; he makes use even of the gossip which is found in newspapers and of accounts given of past events by more or less credible witnesses. He is not a critic, and his judgments are too often inspired by his personal prejudices; as, for example, in his book on Madame Récamier. He knows the value of a catching title, as is shown in his present volume, styled 'Une Illuminée au 19e siècle: La Baronne de Krüdener, 1766-1824,' and made up from the accounts of her contemporaries, from letters and inedited documents. M. Ch. Eynard had already published in Geneva two big volumes on Madame de Krüdener; but they have never fallen under my eye, and M. Turquan says that they are very rare and can no longer be found. Sainte-Beuve did not neglect Madame de Krüdener, but his account is far from exhaustive.

Barbe-Julie von Wietinghoff was born at Riga, in the cold province of Livonia, where she spent all her early years (the date of her birth is uncertain, but it was probably 1766). Her father was a rich landlord; two of her ancestors had been grand masters of the Teutonic order. She was taken by her parents, when she was a girl, to Spa, and afterwards to Paris, where she remained during the winter of 1777-1778. On her return, she was married at the age of eighteen to Baron de Krüdener, a diplomat, who had already been married twice. In 1784, she had a son, Paul, and soon afterwards left for Vienna, where her husband had been appointed Ambassador. She was twenty years younger than he; he seems to have been very cold and pedantic, and she was quite the reverse. She stayed a long time at Venice and adopted the Italian manners of the time, as they have been depicted by Stendhal. She never appeared except escorted by a staff of elegant young men. She became at Copenhagen the mistress of one of her husband's attachés, and her adventures soon became so public and so numerous that a separation took place between her and her husband.

She went to Paris, where she arrived in the month of May, 1789, at the time of the meeting of the States-General. She has traced a portrait of herself at the time in a novel called 'Valérie,' which was published many years afterwards.

"Valérie has something peculiar which I have not yet seen in any other woman. It is possible to have as much grace, much more beauty, and to remain far from her. People don't admire her, perhaps, but she has something ideal and charming which forces attention. One would say, on seeing her so delicate, so slender, that she is a soul. However, the first time I saw her, I did not find her pretty. She is very pale, and the contrast of her gayety, of her lightness, and of her face made to be sensible and serious, produced on me a singular impression."

In Paris she became acquainted with M. Suard, an academician (well forgotten now, like many other Immortals). She had found Baron de Krüdener too old, but accepted the attentions of Suard, who was twelve years older than the Baron. She threw herself into his society, became acquainted with Bernardin de St. Pierre, the author of 'Paul and Virginia,' and the Abbé Morellet. Suard took a wife at the age of fifty-two, not without having obtained the permission of Madame de Krüdener. She soon consoled herself, and on a journey in the South of France made at Montpellier the acquaintance of a handsome lieutenant of dragoons. She returned to Copenhagen under his protection, and announced herself to her husband as fleeing from a country where the Revolution was raging. Baron de Krüdener was weak enough to allow her to come back to his house, where she had the impudence to bring her lover, the officer, as a sort of secretary. This was more than Baron de Krüdener could bear; he sent his wife back to her parents at Riga. The French officer returned to France; though he was a nobleman, he remained and fought in the Republican army. He became a general under the Consulate.

In 1793, Madame de Krüdener went for her health to Berlin and Leipzig, in the latter city making the acquaintance of the brilliant Count de Tilly. We have a letter of hers, written from Leipzig, addressed to Bernardin de St. Pierre, which was reproduced in the complete works of the latter. In it she describes all her sufferings, and tells of her future plans of life. She speaks in it of her children, of her son, of her little girl, whom Bernardin de St. Pierre used to call "Her Beatitude." Krüdener was appointed ambassador to Berlin, and his wife joined him there; she had for a time a salon where she received Count de Tilly; the Chevalier du Boufflers and his friend Madame de Sabran, to whom he had recently been married at Breslau; several French *émigrés*, among others M. de Chênedollé, well known afterwards by his great devotion to Chateaubriand; and Rivarol, the pamphleteer. Her restless mind was not satisfied in Berlin; her ambition was to return to Paris, and her health became again a pretext. She made several stops on the road—at Teplitz, where she took the waters; at Lausanne, at Geneva; at Coppet, where she paid a visit to Madame de Staël. When she arrived in Paris she found it in that turmoil of pleasure which followed, under the Consulate, the Reign of Terror. Madame de Krüdener naturally took her place in the new society; she became the mistress of the singer Garat, who was all the fashion at that time, the "incroyable des incroyables." This liaison did not last long, and Madame de Krüdener was soon ashamed of it. In her last letter to Garat, she says: "It was not you that I loved; it was a phantom created by my imagination. . . . I see you now as you are, and I must confess that I never loved you."

Krüdener died at Berlin from an attack of apoplexy; his wife lived in retirement for a short time at Lyons, but soon resumed her ordinary life, under pretext of showing the world to her daughter. She was seen again dancing the "shawl dance," which has been described by Madame de Staël. But she wished now for something more, she wished to have a literary reputation like Madame de Staël, and wrote the novel 'Valérie.' I doubt if any person nowadays reads 'Valérie'; but Madame de Krüdener enlisted all her friends in praise of it, and she herself took great pains to spread it and recommend it to the public. She wrote what we call "réclames" (puffs), which were inserted in the press. She was a precursor in that line, and had an advertising agent. "All this," justly says Sainte-Beuve, "is neither delicate nor handsome." She writes to a friend: "I thank you for your verses; they are charming. Could you not, through your relations, get some from the *grand faiseur Delille*? [Delille translated Virgil into French verse.] Never mind the contents; they would be useful to Sidonie [her daughter]. You know how much I love her; the world is so stupid!" The success of 'Valérie' was great. People compared it to 'Werther'; hats were made "à la Valérie." Madame de Krüdener thought she had reformed the public. Forgetting her own life, she writes on the 15th of January, 1804, to her former lady companion: "The success of 'Valérie' is complete and unheard-of. There is in it something supernatural. Yes, my friend, God would have it that these ideas, this purer morality, should be spread in France, where they are less known."

She was entering now on a new phase; she was becoming an apostle, a preacher. She sent her book to Bonaparte; he threw it away, and returned not a word of thanks to the author. Thinking that the volume had been lost, she sent a second copy, magnificently bound. Bonaparte noticed the binding, glanced over the book, and said to his librarian: "It seems that Madame de Staël has found her *Sosie:* after 'Delphine,' 'Valérie!' A worthy pair! The same pathos, the same *bavardage.* The women will be pleased with this sentimental extravagance. You may advise this mad Madame de Krüdener, from me, to write her books henceforth in Russian or in German, so as to deliver us from this insupportable literature."

Madame de Krüdener never forgave Napoleon. She left Paris, and we find her back in Riga in June, 1805. Her life, so unedifying thus far, took a new direction: she became excessively pious. Her religion took a mystical form. It was at this period that she entered into relations with Queen Louise of Prussia (after Jena and Auerstaedt). She spoke to her of the misfortunes of Prussia, and of the Russian armies which were marching against Napoleon. She used the figurative expressions of the Bible, and there is no doubt that the unhappy Queen fell somewhat under her influence, and accepted her consolation and words of hope. Madame de Krüdener visited the Moravian brethren, and at Carlsruhe she became acquainted with an oculist, Jung Stilling, who pretended to have direct communication with God. She was well disposed to adopt illuminism; she had trances, and lived for a time in Stilling's house. She visited in Alsace Oberlin, a holy man who had christianized populations in the Vosges that were almost pagans before he lived among them. She was looking in every direction for extraordinary religious characters, but it did not prevent her from cultivating and increasing her worldly acquaintances.

She had a correspondence with Mlle. de Stourdza, a lady-in-waiting of the Empress of Russia. In a letter written on the 27th of October, 1814, she predicted, in the figurative language of the prophets, the downfall of the Bourbons, who had just been restored: "The storm advances; those lilies which the Almighty had kept, emblem of a pure and fragile flower which had broken

an iron sceptre, . . . have appeared only to disappear again." These letters were shown to Alexander, who was much struck by their prophetic language. He had himself a great tendency towards mysticism. He wished to see Madame de Krüdener. She met him just after the landing of Napoleon at Fréjus, when Alexander was on his way to Vienna. When she left the Emperor, he was conquered; she had foreseen everything; she had the secrets of God. After Waterloo he asked her to join him in Paris, and as soon as she arrived he called upon her; he saw her afterwards every day. Had Madame de Krüdener anything to do with the wording of the extraordinary Act of the "Holy Alliance"? The Emperor Alexander held the pen; was she the moving spirit? The style of the Act would almost justify the affirmative.

We must leave Madame de Krüdener here. The Allies once gone, she fell back into her usual life of worldly agitation, intermixed with politico-religious conversations. French society never wholly adopted her; her ill conduct had been too notorious, her literary merit was too small. She died in the Crimea on the 25th of December, 1824.

# Correspondence.

## THE MAIN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been greatly interested in your weekly comment and editorials on the coal strike. You have devoted a great deal of space to wholesale condemnation of Mitchell and his followers, but I have looked in vain for any word of enlightenment as to the proper course to be pursued by any body of workmen who, by peaceful methods, have sought redress for grievances, or made demands for a more equitable share of what they help produce, and have failed to obtain satisfaction. You ridicule trade unions and their "windy spouters" of leaders. In what other way shall labor protect itself?

It quite often happens that workmen have real grievances. The *Nation* has grudgingly admitted some to the miners. Their demands for a larger share of what they produce, either by increased pay or shorter hours, are sometimes just. When these are denied, what then? When good, conservative workmen (there are some, you know) have tried to get a hearing for their grievances and have been met with a refusal which is none the less unsatisfactory because it is courteous, what should be their course? Grin and bear it? Are workmen to be compelled to accept every condition which an employer chooses to impose? Do you not know there are employers of labor who would grind the life out of a man if they were not kept in check by fear of an organization which could hurt their business by refusal to work and by keeping others from doing so?

I am a non-union workman; I am no sorehead. I have been working for seven years for a very fair firm in a good trade, and receive first-class wages. The firm I work for is insured in an accident insurance company. Should an employee be injured in the performance of his or her work, the case is turned over to this company. If the accident is a slight affair and unavoidable, or not due to the negligence of the employee, he may be paid for time lost. If the accident is a serious affair, resulting in maiming or permanent injury, and the employee sues for damages in the courts, the insurance company fights the case for the firm, and assumes all the charges incident thereto. Now, if the employer has a right to insure against the stupidity or negligence of an employee, why has not the employee the right to insure against unreasonableness in an employer, unjust conditions, poor pay, and all the ills which labor endures?

A poor kind of insurance, you say, which does not insure; but it is the best they know, and it has been partially and indirectly effective. All that labor has to-day is not due to unions; a large share is due to politics, a very small part to philanthropy, and certainly labor unions have had some share in bringing about the improved conditions under which men work to-day. The insurance has insured a little. What scheme have you for a more effective insurance? The case of an employee injured in a factory and suing for damages is being tried in the courts by the insurance company. In other words, "the fight [strike] is on, call in the tithes of all the insured [union] band, they will be paid without question." The case of an injured employee is being fought, therefore it is unjust. "The strike exists, therefore it is just." The employer is fighting the case with money he has not earned. "The strikers and their poorer victims are supported by money they have not earned."

I do not want to take too much of your valuable space. During the last three or four weeks I had hoped some one of your more enlightened subscribers would feel impelled, by your exaggerated position, to write some word of protest or interrogation. I have read the *Nation* for some four years with great profit and keen pleasure. I appreciate the justice and truth of a great deal you write concerning labor unions. I am only one of thousands of non-union men who deprecate the strike, execrate the boycott, and have nothing but the harshest condemnation for violent interference, or interference of any kind, with a non-union worker, but who feel, nevertheless, that, wrong as are some of the methods of the union, they have some justice in, and cause for, their position. Granted the strike is anarchy and the purchase of votes with the offer of favorable labor legislation criminal. Take these away, what means remain to labor of obtaining fairer conditions under which to work?

Everything you have written on the strike has been condemnatory; there has been no enlightenment for the strikers or the great army of workers, union and non-union, whom the coal strike, or any strike, directly or indirectly affects. What light have you to offer, not on the coal strike—we shall soon have all we want of that—but on how to avoid such strikes without placing an armed soldier over every disaffected worker?—Respectfully yours,

Henry Chequer.

7 Dimick Street, Somerville, Mass.

[Nothing seemed to us more imperative, in the late crisis, than to divest the question at issue of all extraneous considerations. Granted that an army of workingmen in virtual control of the output of a necessary of modern industrial and domestic life may conspire to stop work as lightly as if they were employees of a sweat-shop in a great city—a postulate which as moralists we cannot admit; granted that they had a right to build up their organization by a system combined of stress of class opinion, boycott, and persecution, directed against all who stay out of the union—a right to which we shall never give our support; shall we proceed from this to allow the right to terrorize the coal region and prevent the prosecution of mining by means of non-union labor, on the spot or ready to flow in if safety is assured? In other words, shall labor be free in this country whether a strike is pending or not? Our answer is, So should it be, so must it be if we are to remain a nation of freemen. The sins of the operators, the sins of the miners up to the time of their going on strike, we put aside for discussion at the proper moment. The issue, as made up, was whether the operators should give over the direction of their business to an outside organization—or to any organization; and whether they should be violently debarred from filling the places made vacant by the strikers by free contract with non-union men? We feel that the country owes them a debt of gratitude for their firmness in both particulars.

Peaceful methods for the redress of economic grievances are the only conceivable methods in a government like ours. All else are revolutionary. Constant appeals to public opinion, open deliberations, entire abstinence from menace or persecution, united with sober living and exemplary behavior, will not fail of their effect with the American people, though it may be only in the long run.—Ed. Nation.]

## THE RESOURCES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: President Butler of Columbia, in proposing a plan for giving the baccalaureate degree in arts at the conclusion of two years of collegiate work, is probably actuated in part by what he knows of the needs and demands of a very large class of students. To those undergraduates whose college and university life finds its limit only in their own or their parents' ambition, this curtailment does not appeal. As I take it, Dr. Butler has in mind rather that student for whom every year of the coveted college experience is marked by the sacrifices made in his behalf by devoted parents. If, with their help and by his own efforts, he can achieve a year or two of collegiate study before setting himself to the special work of preparation for law or medicine (singular how we now omit all mention of another alternative once the equal of these!), he accepts it gratefully, even without the hope of degree.

And why take we thought for degrees? For two reasons, neither of them answering to lofty ideals of life: social prestige and commercial advantage. Casting these aside, it is the culture we still grasp at. We value a friend not because he has the priv-

ilege of affixing a string of capitals to his signature, but rather for the depth of character and insight which those letters ought to imply. That he has spent years in the society of the great minds and hearts of antiquity means that he has received of their abundance and is no longer poor. Yet, sadly enough, and perhaps naturally, too, the young man who puts his time and money into acquiring this full or fragmentary acquaintance with the immortals, holds out a pleading hand to receive the badge which shall be for a sign unto them who look for signs; for of such are the kingdoms of this world.

Now a practical word, Mr. Editor, as to what is possible while the degree is still withheld, and possible for those for whom even the bisected college course, if it is offered, will be a pinch too hard. Let these avail themselves of the fullest resources of the best near high school. One young fellow whose parents had planned for him this very thing before seeing the suggestion contained in your editorial of October 16, that our preparatory schools might adopt curricula making them "comparable to the French Lycée and German Gymnasium," found that it would be practicable to add to his four years at the high school two more, most profitably, and yet not exhaust its resources. Especially to be noted are the advantages offered in French and German to supplement full courses in Latin and Greek. The magnificent equipment, too, of many of the new schools in the way of chemical and biological laboratories, with skilled and even noted specialists in charge, makes it possible in the case of the intending physician, for instance, to do work in these sciences that will be credited to him in his professional course.

The saving in money of such a plan, and the fact that it keeps the youth under the parental eye a little longer while he is reaching an age suitable for the serious work of the professional school, ought to recommend it in many cases when love of culture and the necessity for rigid economy are engaged in a seemingly irreconcilable conflict.—Sincerely yours,

SARAH WILLARD HIESTAND.

CHICAGO, November 7, 1902.

## "COUNT THAT DAY LOST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is perhaps of little moment who may be the author of the familiar couplet:

"Count that day lost whose low-descending sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action done";

but I have to confess a curiosity in relation to it which books of quotations have failed to satisfy. The ninth edition of Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations' takes it from Staniford's 'Art of Reading' (Boston, 1803, third edition, p. 27), and compares with it the lines:

"Think that day lost whose descending sun
Views from thy hand no noble action done";

which, attached to Jacob Bobart's autograph, occur (according to Nichols in his work on Autographs) in an album of David Krieg's in the British Museum; Bobart, son of the celebrated botanist of that name, dying about 1726.

Now, a French poet, Guy du Faur, Sieur de Pibrac, a contemporary of Salluste du Bartas, more than three centuries ago, produced (in 1574) a little volume of quatrains somewhat resembling the Rubáiyát of Omar, although tending more towards moral lessons. There are, in all, 116 of these stanzas, of which the 31st is as follows:

"Jusque au cercueil, mon fils, vueilles apprendre,
Et tien perdu le jour qui s'est passé,
Si tu n'y as quelque chose amassé,
Pour plus sçavant, et plus sage te rendre."

The little work was rendered into English—and very well rendered, too—by Joshua Sylvester, the leading religious poet of his day in England (1563-1618). I am ignorant of the date of Sylvester's publication, which is not specified in the Dictionary of National Biography, but can approximate to it by noting that his translation of the second of Du Bartas's "Devine Weekes" was dedicated to Prince Henry of Wales, among others, and published in 1611. In the dedication to the Prince, Sylvester says:

"The gracious welcome you vouchsafed erewhile
To my grave Pibrac, though but meanly clad,
Makes Bartas now—no stranger in this isle—
More bold to come, though suited even as bad,
To kiss your Highness's hand."

Henry was seventeen years old in the year 1611, so it is not likely that the Pibrac translation was more than a few years earlier, at most, and it may probably be placed between 1605 and 1611. Sylvester's version of the quatrain is as follows:

"Cease not to learne untill thou cease to live;
Think that Day lost wherein thou draw'st no Letter,
Nor gain'st no Lesson, that new grace may give,
To make thy Selfe Learneder, Wiser, Better."

The relation between the stanza and the couplet appears to be close enough to indicate that one of them was adapted from the other.

T. W. HAIGHT.

WAUKESHA, WIS., November 1, 1902.

# Notes.

The Century Co. has secured the American allotment of President Kruger's Memoirs, which it will have ready by the end of the present month.

About the same time, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue 'The Life of Roger Wolcott,' late Governor of Massachusetts, by William Lawrence, Bishop of Massachusetts. They further announce a new edition of Maria S. Cummins's 'The Lamplighter,' published originally in 1854, and attaining a remarkable vogue.

'Boston Days,' by Lilian Whiting, is in the press of Little, Brown & Co.

L. C. Page & Co. have nearly ready 'Our Noblest Friend the Horse,' by Francis N. Ware, with many illustrations.

Illustrated in color and line will be 'A Patrick's Day Hunt,' by Martin Ross and E. O'E. Somerville, to be published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

The seven-volume edition of 'The Works of Edward FitzGerald,' over which Mr. W. Aldis Wright presides, will make a monthly appearance through Macmillan Co., from December on. Few announcements of the season rival this in interest.

That the best is not always the enemy of the good will be proved, we think, by the reception that awaits A. C. McClurg & Co.'s clear and handsome reprint, in two volumes, of the Biddle text of the 'History of the Expedition under the Command of Captains Lewis and Clark.' In other words, the late Dr. Coues's monumental annotated edition, being out of print, can no longer compete in the market with the original edition of 1814. The present publishers have appropriately chosen for "supervisor" rather than editor Dr. J. K. Hosmer, the historian of the Louisiana Purchase. His part has been also to furnish an introduction containing a broad view of the causes leading up to the purchase, and which linked Napoleon's name with Jefferson's in the most famous of our continental expansions; and to supply an index. This is a welcome innovation upon Biddle. It is analytic in the case of the two leaders of the expedition and in some minor rubrics; but such a one as "Mosquitoes" has fifty blank numerical references. Two new reproductions of portraits of Lewis and Clark accompany the facsimile of Biddle's maps; but we miss a map of the whole route laid down upon our existing political divisions. In other respects we have nothing but praise for this venture of the Chicago firm.

Two white and gold volumes in duodecimo issued for the gift season by G. P. Putnam's Sons are a reduction of the Moxon edition of Tennyson's 'Idylls of the King.' Doré's designs have undergone a corresponding change of scale with the letterpress, and naturally lose somewhat as illustration while answering all the purposes of decoration. Print and binding are in commendable taste.

The joint effort of Carolyn Wells and Oliver Herford in 'A Phenomenal Fauna' (R. H. Russell) reflects the cleverness of both. Miss Wells's metres sometimes limp from a false stress, and Mr. Herford's pencil occasionally shows less droll, but they generally pull evenly together, as in the case of "The Fire-Dogs." The lady's natural history of "The Human Swallow" is more successful than the artist's conception, which is, however, paralleled with great effectiveness in "The Flying Buttress" and "Time-Flies"—two very convincing designs—and in "The Brickbat." Excellent, also, are Mr. Herford's "Round Robin," "Bookworm," "Jail Bird," and "Irish Bull" (to whose jokes John Bull is so impervious). Miss Wells sings merrily of "The Haycock" that never crows and

"has no brains,
No, not enough to go in when it rains,"

and concludes, respecting the bird already mentioned—

"The Swallow's strong when he is in his prime,
And yet a man can down him every time."

Mr. William J. Long, in 'School of the Woods' (Ginn & Co.), has another entertaining collection of animal stories derived from his experience in Northern woods. His subjects are chiefly the larger and rarer animals, seldom met except by hunters and naturalists; and some of his incidents are strikingly uncommon. He believes that instinct has much less to do in governing the lives of birds and mammals than early education has; and that animal fear, which he defines as watchfulness and timidity, is not instinctive, but results from the mother's teaching. As reasons for this belief, he suggests the frequent fate of young, untrained wild creatures abandoned to instinct, and of domesticated animals forced to take to the life of the woods, and, further, gives various observations of his own. On one remarkable occasion, described more fully in a preceding volume, 'Beasts of the Field,' he watched a group of caribou mothers teaching their young ones

to follow a leader and to jump over a fallen tree; on another, he found hidden away two young fawns that showed no fear of him, and he noted the means by which the terrified mother inspired them with distrust. Later, he had other opportunities to watch their education, until one fawn became wise and wary, and the other perished through disobedience to the mother's teachings. Mr. Long also takes the ground, in opposition to well-known naturalists, that on the whole the life of wild animals is untroubled and joyous, and that for most of them death is not a tragedy.

Helen Zimmern's 'Alma-Tadema,' in "Bell's Miniature Series of Painters" (New York: Macmillan), gives, in pleasant enough form, as much as is necessary to be known of that eminently skilful and popular but uninspiring painter. In the illustrations, however, his especial qualities of elaborate detail and suave execution are hardly treated by the excessive reduction which the scale of the booklet necessitates. In the more elaborate and crowded subjects, especially, one gets only a sense of confusion, which the artist's system of composition does nothing to clarify.

In 'Sea Fighters from Drake to Farragut' (Scribners) Jessie Peabody Frothingham tells afresh the stories of Drake, Tromp, De Ruyter, Tourville, Suffren, Paul Jones, Nelson and Farragut, in a manner well calculated to arouse enthusiastic admiration for these gallant sailors in the boyish breast, and win a renewed tribute of respect on the part even of "the grown-ups." It is only when she struggles with technical details that our applause falters. What Drake was doing when "he lay close-hauled in Lisbon Harbor"; what happened to Tromp's vessel when raked "from helm to stern"; what "machinery" was "riddled" on board of Suffren's sailing-vessel, the *Mars;* who, in 1756, had ever heard of a "coaling-station"—these are conundrums to puzzle Benbow himself. Clear type, good paper, excellent illustrations (too few in number) combine with a stirring subject and an agreeable style to commend the book to those weary souls soon to be in the thrall of the annual search after Christmas gifts, not only for sons and nephews between the ages of the hobby-horse and the polo pony, but for older friends as well, who still relish a deed of daring skilfully told.

Capt. A. T. Mahan has collected a number of his contributions to various magazines, and republished them in a volume entitled 'Retrospect and Prospect' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The vaticinations concerning our future as a "World-Power" seem now a little stale, and must pall upon the appetite of even the most enthusiastic Imperialist. The spirit of Capt. Mahan's teaching is well illustrated by his contention that private property upon the sea should be destroyed in war. Gen. Jacob Smith's order to the American forces in Samar, to kill every one over ten years old, seems to be an improvement on this doctrine.

Four addresses by Carroll D. Wright are republished by the American Unitarian Association, Boston, under the title 'Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question.' The essays are homiletical in character, and prove at least that their author has a benevolent disposition. He repeats the popular fallacy concerning the followers of Adam Smith, that they maintain that men should seek their own advantage without regard to the welfare of others; but he can hardly be blamed for believing a proposition so generally accepted. On the other hand, he does something to expose the fallacy that the condition of laborers in factories is inferior to what it was under the domestic system.

That our American public is more or less apathetic in regard to the artistic decoration of country homes by means of vegetation effectively arranged, is shown by the fact that *Garden and Forest*, a journal devoted very largely to this subject, and characterized by a fine taste, was suffered, after a useful life of ten years, to die from lack of support. This deplorable state of affairs cannot be remedied in any more effective way than by the publication of just such works as 'A Plea for Hardy Plants, with Suggestions for Effective Arrangement,' by J. Wilkinson Elliott, Landscape Architect (Doubleday, Page & Co.). One may not agree with all the advice here offered by Mr. Elliott, but one must confess, nevertheless, that very little of the advice is really misleading; nearly all of it is good and stimulating. The facility with which photographs can now be reproduced in printed illustrations gives modern works on landscape architecture a very great advantage over their predecessors. In Mr. Elliott's volume the photographs have been excellently chosen, and their execution is nearly perfect. All the working plans seem to be practicable, and the descriptions are lucid. Any person of taste ought, with a little leisure and with the suggestions offered in this book, to be able to arrange, fitly and harmoniously, around a country-house, plants adapted to our outdoor conditions. It is pleasant to think that, even in our exacting Northern climate, we have a wide selection of beautiful plants. The main thing is to get them put in the right instead of in the wrong places.

The first annual issue of the 'International Catalogue of Scientific Literature: Botany, Part I.' (London: Harrison & Sons) forms a volume of rather less than 400 pages, embodying an immense amount of work. Considering its costly character, it is offered to the scientific public at an astonishingly low price, namely, one guinea. It deals with one of the seventeen branches of science for which the International Council of the Royal Society of England has undertaken to provide catalogues. The original scheme, it will be remembered, provided that each catalogue "should comprise all original contributions, whether these had been published in periodicals or in the journals of societies, or as independent pamphlets, memoirs, or books." It was held to be of great importance that not only the titles of papers, but their subject-matter also, should be indexed; but financial considerations have led to the number of subject-entries being at present limited in number. There has been less coöperation on the part of authors themselves than the committee had a right to expect. Therefore, the index at present leaves a good deal to be desired. The second part of this volume on Botany will be issued in the course of a few months. The sections under Botany number more than one hundred, and many of these are subdivided into numerous minor headings. When the plan is once understood, it is comparatively easy to find the special topic indexed. It may not be known to some of our readers that in Zürich, at the present time, an American, Mr. Field, is conducting successfully a comprehensive index to current zoölogical literature. His system is admirable in conception and execution. Mr. Field has thought of extending his system to botany, but, so far as we are aware, he has not yet done so.

We lately noticed the appearance of Part I. of 'Petrie's Collection of Ancient Irish Music' (London and New York: Boosey & Co.). Part II. is now to hand, bringing up the number of tunes and variants of tunes to 1,054. We understand that a third part will finish this most wonderful collection of Irish folk-music in existence. All the tunes in Part II. are named, as were only some half of those in Part I. The ancient lullabys, laments, and funeral cries are particularly interesting. The setting, which is in the treble clef alone, is simplicity itself.

The issue of Parts xxviii., xxix., and xxx. of Poole's 'Historical Atlas of Modern Europe' (H. Frowde) brings that work to a close. Part xxviii. contains Mr. C. Grant Robertson's map of the Growth of Russia, 1415-1890; Miss Eckstein's Italy, 1167-1250; and Mr. S. Lane-Poole's India under Mohammedan Rule, the Kingdom of Delhi *c.* 1340, and the Mogul Empire at the death of Akbar, 1605. The map of Prussia, in addition to the large map of Germany, comprises three insets, the Principality of Neufchâtel, the Principality of Orange, and the Gold Coast, too small to serve as maps of value, but interesting and important as calling attention to abandoned incidents of expansion. The letterpress of Mr. Poole's map is accompanied by a large table of the Mohammedan dynasties of India. Part xxix. comprises Europe at the time of the Third Crusade, by the Editor; Mr. Robertson's Germany, 1815-1897; and Mr. W. A. Craigie's Scandinavia in the Thirteenth Century. Part xxx. includes Mr. Robertson's Germany, 1647-1795; Mr. Charles Oman's India in 1792 and in 1845 (double map with inset); and Mr. G. Geoffrey Palmer's South Africa previous to the suppression of the Boer Republics. With these the series is complete, and the work can now, presumably, be obtained in bound form. Judgments as to what maps should or should not be included in such an atlas must of necessity vary, but in the main the grouping, both in respect to selection and proportion, is very good. The inclusion of many maps, hitherto inaccessible in any authoritative form, notably those connected with English history, gives the atlas a value independent of its general worth. No one could recognize its dependence on the work of Spruner and Menke more fully than does the Editor in his preface, yet the new material, the recasting of the older matter, and the mechanical execution make this atlas worthy to rank beside its predecessor and model. One feature, to be sure, hoped for rather than expected, is, indeed, lacking—an index. Such an addition would, no doubt, have greatly increased the labor and expense of making the atlas, yet one can but regret its omission.

Our readers may be glad to know of the *Quarterly Bibliography of Books Reviewed in Leading American Periodicals* (29 in number), edited by George Flavel Danforth, Librarian of Indiana University, and published at Bloomington. The successive issues

embrace what has gone before, on the well-known cumulative plan. The entries are by author, when possible; the name of publisher and the price are given; and the reference is by volume and page. Volume i. began with January, 1902, and the third issue comprises 144 octavo pages.

The *Smith College Monthly* for November contains in the Alumnæ Department an article on "The Problem of the South," by Miss Helen M. Chesnutt, daughter of Mr. Charles W. Chesnutt, the well-known author. It treats briefly of the race problem, and more at length of its solution in the work at Tuskegee. The subject and the writer make the article notable.

The fifth Bulletin of our Copyright Office at Washington is a second edition by the Register of 'Copyright in England: Instructions for Registration for Copyright Protection within the British Dominions,' already embodied in Bulletin No. 5. But there has been added Sir J. Stephen's Digest of the English Copyright Law, together with the text of copyright acts from 1875 to date, and a list of all copyright enactments 1709 to 1902, with notations of modifications, amendments, and repeals, etc.—altogether a labor such as Mr. Solberg alone is capable of. The seventh Bulletin will present German Copyright.

The account of the operations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, volume xvi., is devoted to 'Details of the Tidal Observations taken during the Period from 1873 to 1892, and a Description of the Methods of Reduction,' by John Eccles, M. A. The observations were originally begun in order to investigate the supposed secular changes in the relative level of land and sea, more particularly on the coast of Káthiáwár. Eventually, the system of tidal investigations adopted by a committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science was put in practice, with a view to securing scientific results of the highest value. These researches, it was expected, would lead to an evaluation of the mass of the moon, to information concerning the rigidity of the earth, to an approximation of the depth of the sea from the observed velocities of the tide-waves, and to various practical benefits to navigation. The results of the observations and values of the tidal constants appear in the second part of the volume. Daily records of temperature, pressure and wind have been taken at every station by means of a complete equipment of meteorological instruments. Some attempts have been made to trace a connection between errors of tidal prediction and the effects of wind and pressure, but without success. Irregular tides, falsifying predictions, may be produced on a coast by storms in mid-ocean too distant to affect the barometer or the anemometer of the tidal station; or the effects of storms may be transmitted through the air and the water at widely different velocities, and may thus be recorded on the tidal and meteorological instruments at widely differing times.

The Geological Survey of Canada has published Part VII. of its 'Catalogue of Canadian Plants.' It contains descriptions, by John Macoun, of all the species of liverworts and lichens known to occur in Canada, and an addendum to Part VI., in which knowledge of American mosses north of the United States is brought up to date.

—The Soule Art Company, Boston, have issued what they boldly name a 'Complete Art Reference Catalogue.' It is a stout volume of nearly 1,500 pages of clearly printed text—evidently an enterprising venture. The 30,000 or more entries are the titles of the photographs which the company offers to supply at the prices named. Such a volume might have been of almost incalculable utility to students of art, but it is unfortunately constructed on false principles. To begin with, it mixes old masters and contemporary artists together, which every buyer of photographs of works of art will perceive to be a blunder. Few purchasers collect both kinds. It would have been quite easy to separate them in two volumes, and group the old masters in schools, and chronologically instead of alphabetically. The other and worse error is that the name of the photographer is never stated. Now in modern books on art history the pictures of old masters are often, and their drawings are almost always, identified by the Braun or Hanfstängl number. In the preface it is stated that the best print of a given subject is supplied, whoever its photographer happens to be. A buyer, however, will not be inclined to trust a dealer's judgment in that matter, and will prefer to select for himself. We do not intend to imply that this catalogue will be useless—far otherwise; but serious students of art history will prefer to keep on hand for their own use the now classical catalogues of Braun, Hanfstängl, Anderson, and the other photographers of established reputation.

—'Fifty Mastersongs,' for high voice, edited by Henry T. Finck for Oliver Ditson & Co.'s "The Musician's Library," is a quarto volume most attractive without and within. The print of both words and music is beautifully clear, and each piece has attached to it the names of poet, composer, and (if need be) translator; their life period; and the date of composition. The editor, an experienced book-maker, also supplies author and composer indexes repeating the above personal data, portraits of nine among the greatest of the twenty musicians represented, and some informing discourse concerning the collection, with special remarks on each piece and its author. Mozart is the only one whose life fell wholly in the eighteenth century; Beethoven and Schubert the only other two born in that century. From Chopin on, we keep nineteenth-century company, down to Richard Strauss (born in 1864) and the American MacDowell, whose setting of Mr. Howells's "The Sea" dates from the present year and so is a twentieth-century product. The distribution of nationalities is very catholic. Of the fifty "mastersongs," but twenty-nine are of German origin. Norway, Russia, Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, France, and the United States divide the remainder. Significant is the quota (six) allotted to Grieg. Mr. Finck could find no Italian song worthy to stand in line with the others; and what a shock this would have given to the author of the 'Dictionnaire de Musique' of 1765, who mentions never a song-writer except French, and refers solely to Italy and Scotland as other lands of song. (But he was later to be a partisan of Gluck.) Some now may wish that Mendelssohn might not have gone without a single witness in this collection, as being all "stale." Heine leads Goethe in it as the inspirer of musical song, with seven and six texts respectively. Bodenstedt and Tom Moore occupy the third place with two each. On the musical side, Schubert figures most prominently, with Robert Franz and Grieg tieing each other next after. We forbear to catalogue the songs, of which the high order is indisputable; but we can testify to the validity of the publishers' claim regarding the renovated translations, that they are a great improvement on those heretofore in vogue.

—Under the title 'Mediæval Europe' (Holt), Miss Mary Sloan translates an excellent text-book on the history of the Middle Ages which MM. Charles Bémont and Gabriel Monod have prepared in collaboration. Though written by two eminent members of the École des Hautes-Études, this book is free from all parade of learning, and is even adapted to the use of higher schools. Prof. G. B. Adams, who furnishes a preface, is impressed by the authors' "great simplicity of statement," and we must concur in the view that nothing clearer or more direct could be desired. We also approve an arrangement that allots all the space to text, maps and brief bibliographies. It is becoming doubtful whether in these short manuals the illustrations are worth the room they occupy. As for the scope of the book, it begins at the close of the fourth century, and comes down to the death of St. Louis. There is an admirable account of institutions, and no time is lost in the narration of facts which cannot be made to illustrate features of expansion and advance. The importance of France is not exaggerated, neither is there a disposition to slight the annals of the Church. One other point deserves notice: while all show of erudition is avoided, the text keeps in close touch throughout with original sources, and to this fact we must attribute much of its vitality. In short, we can praise the book with great heartiness, and urge its adoption in cases where the student's view of the Middle Ages must be restricted to a brief survey.

—Whatever effect the "Rhodes" scholars may hereafter produce on the academic life of Oxford, the University itself has obviously no choice, at present, but to ignore what does not exist. The point of view in America and the British colonies is naturally less detached. With a somewhat precipitate faith in the ability of trustees and electors to light on students who will satisfy all the tests, intending candidates, chiefly Americans, are already inquiring into the conditions of study at Oxford. On behalf of the American Club of Oxford, Mr. Louis Dyer has recently issued a neat sixpenny pamphlet entitled 'Oxford As It Is' (Macmillan), in which he answers these inquiries and forestalls others that will be certain to arise. It is, in fact, a revised and enlarged version of the circular published by the Club in May, 1900, "for the purpose of presenting information with regard to Oxford conditions of study in terms intelligible to American students unfamiliar with English University and College systems." The need of such a summary will be felt by the American student who realizes that full official information is not to be had in a concise form for the asking, but is scattered in a number of University publications, such as the *Statuta*, the Oxford University Calendar, the Oxford

Examination Statutes, and the University *Gazette*. In addition to these, one could hardly dispense with the 'Students' Handbook to the University and Colleges of Oxford,' and to acquire them all would cost at least four dollars; to use them effectively, one would need experienced advice. On the other hand, Mr. Dyer, in some forty pages, defines the general system of Oxford education, describes the Colleges and the University with their officers, and gives all the necessary information for the requirements of residence, matriculation, examinations, and degrees. He does not, of course, attempt to give any list of the lectures in the various departments; for these the student will need the *Gazette*, in which the official programme is published at the beginning of each term, having been drawn up, as a rule, at the end of the previous term. Under the head of information concerning degrees and the steps to be taken by a candidate who approaches examinations, Mr. Dyer's readers, if they are already graduates, will probably be most interested in those degrees which do not require the Oxford B.A. as a condition precedent. These are the B.C.L., the D.C.L., and the new "Research" degrees in Science and Letters. Until 1895 no degree except that of B.A. was open to graduates of any university or college but Oxford, excepting only cases of "incorporation." There are now, however, six degrees open to advanced students resorting to Oxford; those in Science and Letters being conferred upon candidates who give evidence of having received "a good general education," while those in law are open to students who have obtained an approved B.A. elsewhere than at Oxford.

—It should be noted by those having Rhodes scholarships in view that they will not be allowed to avail themselves of the "non-collegiate status"—that is to say, they will be expected to enrol themselves on the books of one of the Colleges. Mr. Dyer has devoted a chapter to "Expenses and the Like," in which he estimates that, "with strict economy," £120 (or $600) may be made to cover all the necessary charges of a student residing in college rooms for the twenty-four weeks of the academic year. But it would be a grave mistake, we are convinced, for an outsider, with no knowledge of English life and the points at which economy can be practised, to embark on an Oxford career with so small a margin; it would entail a narrowing of outside interests and of social life that would rob an Oxford course of many of its advantages. The full account given by Mr. Dyer of the Oxford B.A. requirements is not intended for Rhodes scholars, but it will serve students from the British Colonies who go to Oxford with the intention of taking the B.A. course. A few Americans have done this in the past, while others have added the Oxford B.A. to their American bachelor's degree. But whether or not it was Mr. Rhodes's intention, it seems probable that his scholarships will be given to graduates, in which case it is to be hoped that an interchange of advanced students between America and England will result. Advocates of the elective system in America will see from Mr. Dyer's table of examinations for the B.A. degree on page 25 that only "Responsions," the first and very elementary examination, answering to the "Little Go" at Cambridge, and Holy Scripture are compulsory. After this, the whole scheme offers alternatives, and is as truly elective as the Harvard programme, except for certain regulations governing the intermediate stage of work for the student of Mathematics, History, and Law. Mr. Dyer devotes a page and a half to the Women's Colleges at Oxford. But their interests are more fully served in the 'Graduate Handbook' published by Bryn Mawr College; moreover, they are outside the pale of the Rhodes foundation.

## NORMAN'S ALL THE RUSSIAS.

*All the Russias.* Travels and Studies in Contemporary European Russia, Finland, Siberia, the Caucasus, and Central Asia. By Henry Norman, M. P. With 129 illustrations, chiefly from the author's photographs, and four maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The public is already, in a way, acquainted with Mr. Norman's book. In its original form, it appeared as a series of articles in *Scribner's Magazine*. During the two years and a half which have elapsed since the first of them saw the light, the author has amplified his material to about twice its projected dimensions, and has brought the political portion of it up to date; the statistical as nearly so as possible.

In his engaging preface, Mr. Norman states that the book is the outcome of four journeys to Russia, added to an interest in the subject which had extended over years. He disclaims any intention to write a comprehensive account of Russian institutions and Russian life, confining his aim to a presentation of the aspects of contemporary Russia, with especial reference to the recent remarkable industrial and commercial development, and the present and possible future commercial and political relations of the country with Great Britain in particular, and other nations in general. He says that he has tried to be fair and frank in his judgments. Every facility was afforded him for studying the country and its problems—even to the point of furnishing him with special trains and steamers, on one or two occasions, to enable him to reach otherwise inaccessible spots; and, very obviously, the Russian law-student from the University of Moscow whom he took with him as interpreter, deserves to the full the author's cordial acknowledgment of indebtedness, and contributed not a little to the success of the undertaking.

Mr. Norman's previous books have made his graphic "reportorial" style familiar to the public. His powers do not fail him here: but it must be said that he is so intent upon his ulterior purpose of presenting political and economic facts that he uses the descriptive part of his work chiefly as the sugar-coating of the solid substance beneath. It is superficial, somewhat surprisingly so; as when, for instance, instead of using his eyes, he repeats the hoary misstatement of the guide-books, that each of the great steps of the St. Isaac Cathedral in St. Petersburg consists of a single giant monolith, says that there is an *ikona* (holy picture) in every room of every house, that the present Emperor's coronation took place in 1894, that "the demand for cotton goods is practically unlimited, for the entire population of Russia wears it" (they wear linen chiefly), makes two states in the Caucasus out of one, by mistaking Gruzia, the proper form of Georgia, for a separate entity; describes the Hermitage as "once Catharine's pavilion, but since 1850 the magnificent home of the world-famous collection of pictures"—the fact being that Catharine II.'s Hermitage, where she held her renowned little gatherings, is the Old Hermitage, situated between this picture-gallery and the Winter Palace, and connected with both by glazed galleries over the intervening streets. Precisely what Mr. Norman means, too, when (p. 37) he labels a picture "The Kremlin Square and Memorial of Alexander III.," it is difficult to divine. The square is the Red (or Beautiful) Square, outside of the wall of the Kremlin, within which, on the diametrically opposite side, a quarter of a mile or more away, stands the memorial to Alexander II., which Mr. Norman probably intends to refer to.

Perhaps the most striking instance of erroneous statement (the responsibility for which must, evidently, be divided between the author, his interpreter, and the printer) is the sonorous list of the Emperor's titles which Mr. Norman, with a fine perception of their suggestive value, quotes on page 35. The score of mistakes therein contained are so varied and complicated that nothing short of a complete (double) transcription of the passage would cover the ground. From this we refrain, confining ourselves to one or two examples and suggestions: *Foer* and *Ingor* are intended for Tver and Yugria; but if the abbreviated Russian adjective form, Tcherkask, is to be used for Circassia or the Russian noun, and Kartalinsk (here distorted into Kastalnisk) for Kartalinia, the above should read Tversk and Yugorsk, while all the rest should be made to match, *e. g.*, Finlyandsk, Norvezhsk, Turkestansk, Moskovsk, Permsk, and so forth. Again, if the Russian form of the proper name is to be retained, Estlyandiya, Lifiyandiya, and the like, should replace Esthonia, Livonia (here distorted into Libonia); while Samogitiya should be allowed to stand, or consistently left in the adjective form, Samogitsk(y), instead of being translated into another purely Russian word, Samoyeds. Kabardinsk and Armenia should either read Kabarda and Armenia, or Kabardinsk and Armensk; and the erroneous punctuation after Armenia throws the title out of shape in that place. In another edition, it would really be worth while to have this passage revised and the typographical errors also eliminated.

Mr. Norman was, probably, more intent upon his special subjects, the political and economic aspects of the country; and we will assume that his study of those aspects is as thorough and accurate as it is interesting. For, even despite these and other inaccuracies, he contrives to convey a generally fair and vivid picture of the impression which things Russian, of the surface also, make upon the unprejudiced foreigner. It may even happen that he will be disbelieved by the average person and the sensationalist (or the American who has passed through the ordeal of the American custom-house of late years), when he truthfully says that he was never more courteously treated or more expeditiously dispatched than at the Russian frontier. Thoroughly just, profound, and broad of grasp is the prefatory summing up of the situation, on page 32,

in regard to the industrial development of Russia:

"It is a momentous development. Russia, with great aggregations of capital in middle-class hands, alongside an impoverished nobility; Russia, with her fields, like our own, depleted of labor, which has gone to the factories and the towns; Russia, with the character of her masses, upon whom alone rests the mighty and complicated fabric of her Church and State, essentially changed; Russia, with her colossal mineral wealth in full exploitation; Russia, ever more nearly self-sufficing and more independent of the Western World; Russia, pushing her railways, building her factories, and opening her mines, right out into the heart of China and the centre of Central Asia, while she is deliberately ringing India round with her net of railways—this is the Russia of the future. . . ."

Here we have the keynote to the book—generous appreciation of the past, present, and future problems, both domestic and foreign, with their significance to the world at large. Occasionally, one could wish for a few words of explanation, as when Mr. Norman touches upon the grain harvest, and says: "But it is in her most fertile districts that the worst famines occur; a little one every year, a big one every seven years, has now become a regular occurrence." The reader naturally asks, Why? Because of the scanty normal rainfall, from which nothing can be spared, and which, in the lack of irrigation to replace it and of fertilizers to counteract the superficial cultivation, is gradually reducing the famous black-earth zone to the condition of the arid plains adjacent on the East, embracing the Sea of Aral; because of the lack of laborers (at a reasonable hire) to reap, and elevators or public granaries to store, the harvests of the fat years, in spite of the fact that Russia possesses, at one of her southern ports, the largest grain elevator in the world. The author partly covers the ground—though he does not make the connection—when he says:

"The extraordinary—the almost incredible—growth of industrialism in Russia is bringing about a great and vital change in the masses of the people. The peasant who works with hundreds or thousands of his fellows in a mill or factory soon becomes a different being from the peasant toiling on his bit of village land, and migrating hither and thither, in seasons of agricultural work, for employment. This, to my thinking, is by far the most significant and important aspect of Russia of to-day. . . ."

But before we proceed further in this direction, let us advert to his interesting chapter on a visit to Count L. N. Tolstoy, at Yasnaya Polyana. Practically, the author confesses to defeat in his attempt to interview the Russian sage, "for his soul dwells apart, and you cannot get on the same plane with him"—so Mr. Norman winds up his description of an attempt to get at personal details or opinions. When one of the novelist's daughters (whom Mr. Norman calls "Miss" Tolstoy) tells him that the landed estates are passing out of the hands of the nobles into those of the rich merchants and manufacturers of the cities, who seek the prestige conferred by lands, and adds that, even of these, the third generation is always ruined and has to begin again—"No Russian ever 'founds a family,' as you say. A man makes his fortune, his son lavishes it, his son disperses it"—Mr. Norman accepts it for gospel truth, as he does the Count's delphic utterances, over which he confessedly ponders for days. To this version of "From shirtsleeves to shirtsleeves is three generations," he should have replied by asking—he might have omitted allusion to the speaker's own family—how the Demidoffs, the Stroganoffs, and other aristocratic families were founded; and, conversely, if it was not a fact that the aristocracy, during the last half of the 18th century, for example, did not monopolize all the despised commercial undertakings to such an extent that no ordinary merchant could exist in competition. Tolstoy's utterance, that he wished the Government would arrest and banish him—that this would be a great joy to him—is characteristic. The summary of the excommunication decree and resulting correspondence is interesting; but it would seem superfluous to explain that the decree was not eternal, only temporary, since repentance always abrogates such a decree.

As our readers are aware, in the chapters on Finland and the Finns Mr. Norman shows himself a partisan of Russification of that province. For violating her promises to Finland, Russia, he thinks, cannot be criticised by the very countries which are most vociferous, but which have themselves violated sacred promises—Germany (to Denmark), France (to Madagascar), England (to Egypt), the United States (to Cuba). In a concluding paragraph he calmly points out the extremely simple method whereby Russia could, with perfect ease and safety, absorb the whole of Finland in a couple of months without a voice being raised in protest. No doubt.

Mr. Norman visited, also, the Caucasus, Central Asia (Russian), and went as far as Irkutsk on the Trans-Siberian Railway. His conclusions as to Russia's civilizing work in Asia, and the world-wide importance of the industrial and commercial fields which she has opened up, are absorbingly interesting. After ample statistics as to the Trans-Siberian Railway, and description of its comforts and defects, he concludes: "Since the Great Wall of China, the world has seen no one undertaking of equal magnitude. That Russia, single-handed, should have conceived it and carried it out, makes imagination falter before her future influence on the course of events." At Irkutsk, he is amazed, when he visits the prison, "at the good feeling, not to say familiarity, which prevails between the officials and the prisoners," among whom, as he confesses, he was at first almost afraid to go, protected only by the three officials. He records that he saw a number of "politicals" elsewhere, at various times, but they were all earning a good living as clerks or bookkeepers; and he again states the well-known fact that the "politicals" have made Siberia what it is, and that the lot of the common criminal will, hereafter, be harder when imprisonment replaces the outdoor life of Siberian exile.

Of the Trans-Caspian Railway, he says: "It has brought peace and commerce (and civilization, as Russia understands the word, to a vast region where so few years ago utter barbarism reigned. Moreover, it is but the beginning of what is to be in this part of the world. No thoughtful foreigner can make the journey without conceiving a profound admiration for Russia's courage and a profound respect for her powers; . . . for the rest of the world, it is half-a-dozen object-lessons in one." He is confident that Bokhara will soon revolt and demand to be annexed to Russia, for the sake of securing good government and other benefits. As to the burning and exceedingly delicate question of rivalry for supremacy in Persia, between England, Russia, and Germany, and Russia's aim to build a railway to the Persian Gulf and block off Germany's designs, he says that "Russian statesmen would be poor in patriotism, indeed, if they did not make every effort to secure it"; in fact, as a general proposition, he thinks Russia is England's natural ally, and he hopes to see that combination effected in the near future. He does not believe that Russia has any designs upon India—especially in view of the recent prolonged distress there; and he not only regards railway connection, through Afghanistan, between Russia and India as inevitable, but is certain that it will be of as much benefit to England as to Russia. He even thinks that Kashgaria and Kulja belong in Russia's sphere, and utterly outside of England's, and that the latter should raise no objections to their annexation by the former. In a very instructive passage he goes to the root of Germany's aspirations and machinations for power in Asia Minor and Persia, but declares that nothing short of a superior force can keep Russia from a warm-water port and the control of Persia and the Persian Gulf.

One of the points on which Russia has, of late years, been greatly misunderstood is her attitude on the liquor question and the bearings of her Government monopoly in the sale of spirits. This, as Mr. Norman lucidly sets forth, is one of M. de Witte's most important reforms. M. de Witte proceeds on the theory that a man drinks for three reasons: because he has a natural desire to do so, because he is incited to do so, because he is given credit to enable him to do so. Of the new Russian plan for coping with this evil, it may briefly be said that the present Government monopoly eliminates the last two reasons, with the result that the people are immensely improved, physically and morally, and the state receives a large income from supplying a much more wholesome quality of liquor at a minimum price. But we cannot enlarge further on Mr. Norman's economic chapters. While his volume has not the permanent value which such works as those of Wallace and Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu must, of necessity, retain even when they have become more or less antiquated, it is indispensable to every student of Russia at the present time.

## THE ARGIVE HERÆUM.

*The Argive Heræum.* By Charles Waldstein, with the coöperation of George Henry Chase, Herbert Fletcher De Cou, Theodore Woolsey Heermance, Joseph Clark Hoppin, Albert Morton Lythgoe, Richard Norton, Rufus Byam Richardson, Edward Lippincott Tilton, Henry Stephens Washington, and James Rignall Wheeler. In two volumes. Volume I., General Introduction, Geology, Architecture, Marble Statuary, and Inscriptions. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

When, in 1892, Dr. Waldstein, at that time Director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, began to excavate on the site of the great temple of Hera near Argos, there was reason to expect that

interesting fragments of decorative sculpture would be found, and perhaps that the plan and elevation of the temple erected about 420 B. C. could be made out. There was also some reason to hope that the plan of the earlier temple, which was destroyed in 423 B. C., might be determined, and of course there was every probability that a considerable number of miscellaneous objects, such as inscriptions, terracottas, small bronzes, coins, and vases, would be unearthed; but whether any of these would be of great importance could not be foretold. The excavations, carried on in the four springs 1892 to 1895, brought to light the remains of no less than ten buildings, nearly all of which can be more or less satisfactorily restored in plan and elevation, numerous fragments of most beautiful sculpture from the temple erected in the fifth century, and vast numbers of terracottas, vases, and bronzes. In every respect, except perhaps in the number and importance of inscriptions and coins, the results far exceeded the most sanguine hopes.

The site of the Heræum is a detached hill projecting into the Argive plain a little more than three miles from Mycenæ, a little more than five miles from Argos, and some six miles from Tiryns. It is, however, not visible from Mycenæ, as a spur of the mountain intervenes. On the other hand, the site is especially prominent when seen from the region of Tiryns and Midea, and yet these ancient cities are so far away that the Heræum can hardly have been founded in connection with either of them. The very position of the sanctuary indicates that it was founded independently of any of the four cities in its neighborhood, and Dr. Waldstein's suggestion that it was the original citadel of the earliest inhabitants of the region is inherently probable. Among the walls found at the Heræum is one resembling those of Tiryns, while others seem to have been built by the builders of Mycenæ. Dr. Waldstein distinguishes three periods in the history of the Heræum, in which it belonged successively to Tiryns, Mycenæ, and Argos, as each in turn was the ruling city of the Argolid. Now the walls of Tiryns were, according to tradition, built by Lycians brought to Argos by Proetus.

To Proetus, then, the retaining wall of the Old Temple, which resembles the walls of Tiryns, is to be ascribed. The date of that temple is fixed by Mr. Penrose, on astronomical grounds, at about 1830 B. C., which therefore stands for the date of Proetus and of the greatness of Tiryns. But the genealogies given by Pausanias contain a long list of names before Proetus, and there is evidence of human habitation at the Heræum before the building of the retaining wall of the Old Temple. This evidence seems to Dr. Waldstein to add to the credibility of the ancient traditions. The date of the earliest objects found at the Heræum is in this way removed to a time several centuries before 1830 B. C. While we are not ready to attach as much historical importance to the ancient genealogies as Dr. Waldstein does, and although the application of astronomy to the orientation and dating of Greek temples seems to us not fully demonstrated, we do not hesitate to accept the fact that the site of the Heræum was occupied continuously from a time before 2000 B. C.

The importance of the discoveries at the Heræum is due in no small degree to the fact that they furnish a record of continuous habitation at a site in the heart of continental Greece from the earliest times to the end of ancient civilization. For various reasons, some of which are given by Dr. Waldstein, by far the greater number of terracottas, vases, and metal objects found at the Heræum belong to early times. The publication and discussion of these three classes of objects will occupy the greater part of the second volume of the work, but Dr. Waldstein includes in his general introduction enough description to show the importance of the discoveries made, and enough discussion to awaken the interest of every archæologist in the theories outlined. Of especial interest is the evidence of the persistence of linear ornament, from the earliest hand-made vases with incised patterns through the Mycenæan period and the succeeding centuries. Among the vases and fragments with linear decorations is a large number of the class commonly known as "Proto-Corinthian," for which Dr. Waldstein, following his collaborator, Dr. Hoppin, prefers the name "Argive-Linear."

The detailed publication by Dr. Hoppin of the evidence upon which his arguments in favor of the new name are based will form an interesting part of the forthcoming volume, but in the meantime Dr. Waldstein makes it clear that the Argive plain contained an important manufactory of the vases in question, and shows that these vases occupy a well-marked position in the development of ceramics as seen at the Heræum. The progress of primitive art is traced also in the terracotta figurines; and the successive periods marked out by tradition, by development in architecture, and by progress in ceramics and the manufacture of terracottas, are shown to coincide. On the whole, Dr. Waldstein's introduction, even though one may not agree with him in every detail, presents in a clear light the historical importance of the discoveries made at the Heræum. Other discoveries have in the last few years made the earliest civilization of the Greek islands known, but no other site has furnished so complete a record of the early ages in continental Greece. Many others as well as brave men "lived before Agamemnon."

In the chapter on the Geology of the Heræum Region, by Dr. Washington, the part most interesting to the archæologist is that dealing with the various agencies by which ancient ruins are buried. These agencies are wind, water, volcanoes, man, the earthworm, and plants. Of these, the first and the last seem to have been most active in burying the remains of walls and buildings at the Heræum. The wind carried the dry dust, and with it various seeds, to the Heræum hill, the seeds sprouted and kept the earth from washing away, and, as the plants grew, they arrested more and more dust as time went on.

The chapter on Architecture, by Mr. Tilton, contains a topographical description and survey of the site, careful descriptions of the existing ruins, and reconstructions of the buildings, with numerous figures in the text, and twenty-nine plates. Of the Old Temple, which stood on a terrace above the later structure, a small part of the stylobate was preserved, with the marks of three columns. From these, and a few other indications, Mr. Tilton has restored the building as a hexastyle, with fourteen columns on the side and a cella 36.30 m. long and 8.50 m. wide. The proportions of the naos inside are as one to four. The columns and beams were doubtless of wood and the walls of crude brick. The remaining buildings are, besides the temple erected in the fifth century, four stoas and four other structures, one of Roman date, the various uses of which can no longer be determined with certainty. The whole must have formed, as is seen in the beautiful colored restoration on plate vi., a striking and magnificent group. The temple built by Eupolemus soon after 423 B. C. was a hexastyle, with twelve columns on the side. In the pronaos and the opisthodomus were two columns between antæ. The columns and walls were of limestone coated with fine stucco, but the metopes, pediment figures, cyma-mouldings, and roof-tiles were of white marble. The cyma is beautifully carved in high relief with a conventional anthemion pattern interspersed with Hera's typical bird, the cuckoo-dove. The number of fragments of sculpture from the metopes makes it virtually sure that all the metopes were sculptured. The restoration of the temple is practically certain in nearly all details, though the stylobate is so ill-preserved that no conclusions can be drawn as to its curvatures. Mr. Tilton's careful work in the drawing and restoration of all the buildings deserves high praise, but can hardly be appreciated without the accompanying plates. It is a pity that the restoration of the "East Building," with seven columns across the front, was not incorporated in the general view on plate vi.

With the exception of a few fragments of archaic sculpture and a hardly greater number belonging to statues of the Græco-Roman period, the whole large mass of sculptured marble fragments is derived from the ornamentation of buildings, and belongs to one date and style of workmanship. Since the date of the Second Temple is fixed within a few years at most by the burning of the Old Temple in 423 B. C., the date of the sculptures, as well as the building to which they belonged, is known. Dr. Waldstein, who writes the chapter on Marble Statuary, believes that in the eastern pediment the Birth of Zeus was represented, and in the western pediment the Capture of Troy, while the eastern and western metopes were adorned with scenes from the Gigantomachia and the Trojan war respectively. This arrangement of the sculptures is based upon the words of Pausanias (ii., 17): "The sculptures over the columns represent, some the Birth of Zeus and the Battle of the Gods and Giants, others the Trojan War and the Taking of Ilium." Pausanias certainly seems to indicate that the two scenes or groups of scenes from the life of the gods are at one end of the temple, the Trojan scenes at the other. In his preliminary publication (1892) Dr. Waldstein expressed the opinion that the departure of the Greeks for Troy was represented in the western pediment, the Capture of Troy in the western metopes. This view, which was based upon a misunderstanding of Pausanias, he has now relinquished, and he is led to assign the

Capture of Troy to the pediment, partly, at least, on account of the discovery of an archaic draped torso, "round the back of which a life-sized arm is roughly sculptured—evidently the arm of one grasping the sacred image as a protection against an advancing foe." The proportions show that this fragment belongs to the pediment sculptures rather than to the metopes. Dr. Waldstein therefore concludes that the Capture of Troy was represented in the pediment.

Now in this scene the person who flees to the divine image for protection must be a Trojan, and the image must be that of a deity friendly to the Trojans. But it is difficult to imagine a pediment group so composed that a *xoanon*, standing of course upon a pedestal, could find its place anywhere except in the centre. We should then have the pediment of a Greek temple in honor of Hera adorned with a pediment group in which the most important place was occupied by an image of a deity hostile to the Greeks, and to Hera as their divine champion. Moreover, Dr. Waldstein believes that the figure to which the beautiful head discovered in 1892 belongs, and to which he gives the name of Hera, occupied the middle of the pediment. If this is correct — and the head certainly seems to belong to the pediment sculptures — it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the *xoanon* clasped by a suppliant must find its place elsewhere. Possibly the *xoanon* may have been a part of some group not belonging to the temple, though the rough work on the back shows that it was not intended to be seen from all sides. However this may be, there are other reasons for assigning the Capture of Troy to the pediment, even though the argument drawn from the *xoanon* fail. Several fragments from the metopes, notably one beautiful head, seem to come from figures of Amazons. Dr. Waldstein therefore believes that the metopes of one side at least of the temple contained scenes from the Amazonomachia, while the metopes of the other side may perhaps have been carved with scenes from the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ, though no fragments of Centaurs are preserved.

It would be impossible within the limits of a brief review to give even a summary of Dr. Waldstein's able and suggestive discussion of the style of the Heræum sculptures, and a criticism of his views in detail is out of the question. He is certainly right in mantaining, in opposition to Professor Furtwängler, that the sculptures belong to the Argive school, and more especially to the school of Polyclitus, though whether the great master himself was charged with "the superintendence, if not the designing and elaboration of the sculptured ornamentation of this very temple," as Dr. Waldstein believes, is another matter. The Heræum marbles have the square faces of the works of Polyclitus—they have even the peculiar pouting lips which all the works ascribed to Polyclitus show; but these and other peculiarities may be the marks merely of the school, not of the individual artist. Nor does the recurrence on an Argive coin of the anthemion ornament from the cyma of this temple prove that the *stephane* of the Hera represented on the coin and the ornament of the cyma were designed by the same artist. Both may, for instance, be developments of some earlier tradition. The connection of Polyclitus with the decorative sculptures of the Heræum was probably as close as that of Phidias with the Parthenon sculptures, but how close that was we do not know and probably never shall know. At any rate, the sculptures from the Heræum, even if they are the works of the school of Polyclitus, not of the master himself, enable us to appreciate his qualities as an artist at least as well as do the late copies of his works by which he has hitherto been judged.

The volume before us closes with the publication of Inscriptions on Stone by Professor Richardson and Professor Wheeler, and of Stamped Tiles by Professor Richardson. The work of the editors is carefully and ably done, but the material is of little general interest, and leads to no important results. The editorial committee in charge of the publication has done its work conscientiously and carefully. Only three misprints have met our eye, and of these the only one likely to cause trouble is on page 108, where the name of the River Alpheus is printed "Nepheus." The illustrations are, with few exceptions, remarkably fine. It is a pleasure to study so beautiful a book. The work is dedicated to Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, first President and, we may add, founder of the Archæological Institute. It is eminently fitting that he is thus identified with the most important contribution yet made by American scholars and investigators to classical archæology.

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*Haunts of Ancient Peace.* By Alfred Austin. Macmillan. 1902.

*Horæ Solitariæ.* By Edward Thomas. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

Sir Alfred Austin's 'Haunts of Ancient Peace' is an amiable and pacifying work. The narrative of the experiences of a party touring in search of the vestiges of a quieter and less strenuous age, affords the author opportunity to set down many reflections upon the times, relieved by sentiment and gentle humor. In view of the writer's position as court poet, his characterization of a great English statesman who is nameless in his pages, is of sufficient interest to be reproduced here:

"Is it arrogant to ask how is it possible for any serious person to allow himself to be overawed by the opinion of the present Age, for instance, that, for several years, believed a greatly gifted and splendidly energetic man of action, with an imperious but mercurial mind, a sonorous voice, a commanding manner, and a copious but somewhat redundant vocabulary, but no continuity of judgment, no true insight, to say nothing of foresight, and a curiously perverse sense of patriotism, to be not only a Great Statesman, but one of the greatest that ever lived, and considered any one incorrigibly stupid or bigoted who thought otherwise?"

This typical period is scarcely either sinuous or firm, yet it is not devoid of sense. Indeed, throughout the book the author appears to much better advantage in the prose than he does in the frequent lyrics wherewith his personages oblige the company. Yet, when all is said, the volume is a singularly slight affair. We trust we shall not be thought fantastical, or failing in a properly decorous attitude toward his Majesty's Laureate if we venture to suggest that 'Haunts of Ancient Peace' is most happily described in three lines from a poem pronounced by one of the party:

> "Nothing stirring, nothing doing,
> Save white clouds white clouds pursuing,
> And the ringdove's lovelong cooing."

We come to metal of a clearer tone in Mr. Edward Thomas's 'Horæ Solitariæ.' Mr. Thomas's thought is not robustious, his writing is still somewhat too obviously mannered; yet his work shows unity and distinction of mood, and a conscious striving after that "lapidary economy" of style which he admires. The fifteen essays, including such taking themes as "Inns and Books," "Epitaphs as a Form of English Literature," "The Passing of Pan," and "Digressions on Fish and Fishing," are very judiciously made up of leisurely rumination, weighted with timely allusion, both literary and humane, and tempered by bookish, but playful and unaffected, humor. Once or twice in the slender volume one comes upon a passage which mellow music and coursing imagination make fit to rank with the best of De Quincey. At such times Mr. Thomas's writing exhibits a definiteness of form which makes it more truly masculine, and hence more thoroughly satisfying, than most composition of this species. The elect readers who are accessible to such charms may justly expect much of a young writer who unites scholarship and sensibility; who can compass, though it be as yet but momentarily, the effect of "Celtic magic" by brooding, Virgilian workmanship.

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*The Administration of Dependencies:* A Study of the Evolution of the Federal Empire, with special reference to American Colonial Problems. By Alpheus H. Snow. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

This book is written for the purpose of establishing the paradox that our "Revolutionary forefathers" were imperialists in the sense in which that word is now commonly used. So far from believing that there was no just government without the consent of the governed, they clearly contemplated, and deliberately provided for, government of this kind by the Congress of the United States. In spite of the cry "No taxation without representation," there was in 1775 a substantial unanimity of sentiment in Congress that Great Britain ought to levy taxes in the colonies. The great question which agitated the minds of American statesmen "was whether the British Empire was a Federal Empire or a Unitary State." They were willing to remain in the empire, if it should be declared to be a "Federal organism," in which the power of the imperial State was not a "limited" but a "conditional" power, the subjection of the colonies being a "conditional subjection." Their subjection was under an "implied" contract, to the terms of which both parties agreed, and which was conditional in exactly the same way as if the contract had been between equal parties.

These conclusions, it is maintained by Mr. Snow, were involved in the approval by Congress of Gouverneur Morris's pamphlet, entitled, 'Observations on the American Revolution,' which appeared in 1778:

"The final word of the American Union to Great Britain, therefore, was a declaration that the States of the Union would never consent to anything less than a Federal subjection to the State of Great Britain—that is, a contractual or conditional subjection, not of the inhabitants of the States of

the Union to the State of Great Britain, or to its Government, or to its inhabitants, but of the States of the Union, as States, to the State of Great Britain. By this declaration, made almost contemporaneously with the declaration contained in the French treaty of alliance that the American Union proposed to hold its conquests as dependencies, the American Union bound itself, and its successors, forever, by all the obligations of national good faith, to treat every community external to and connected with the Union as a State in a relationship of Federal subjection. . . . In case of disagreement between the parties concerning the interpretation of the contract, or concerning what was just and reasonable, when the parties left the terms indefinite, it was to be interpreted and adjudicated by an impartial expert tribunal."

Adopting Mr. Snow's conclusions, we find them fatal to the present claims of Imperialists. The people of the Philippine Islands, in their struggle against the Government of the United States, are situated as the people of the American colonies were in their rebellion against British rule. To say that our "implied contract" with the inhabitants of these islands has been interpreted and adjudicated by an impartial expert tribunal, is an assertion that can hardly be taken seriously. If George III. and his Ministers constituted such a tribunal at the time of the Revolution, the proposition might be admitted, but no one would maintain that theory. It is essential to the concept of a contract that there should be two contracting parties, and that their minds should meet. With some straining, we may say that a contract existed between the colonies and Great Britain; but we cannot seriously maintain that the wretched people whom our troops have been slaughtering on the other side of the globe, had entered into any contract with our Government. If anything could make them smile in their distress, it would be to hear such a theory expounded.

But if Mr. Snow's theories survive these difficulties, he gives them the *coup de grâce* by his view of the competency of Congress to administer dependencies. His whole Constitutional argument rests on the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of the Northwest Territory, and the clause in the Constitution providing that Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States. In his final chapter, however, Mr. Snow declares that to apply this provision would be to establish, "when viewed from the standpoint of the dependencies," an administration by an oligarchy of foreigners. In order to discharge its duty, Congress would have to sit continuously. It would be incompetent in many ways to carry on colonial government. We do not question this, but we need not suppose that Congress will abdicate its functions because Mr. Snow thinks it cannot properly discharge them. It may turn them over to the President; but it will not do so without making sure of the patronage. The "idea of the Imperial power," Mr. Snow asserts, "implies opening new markets, not for the Imperial State, but for all the world." Such is not the idea of Congress, or of the Republican party, or of the American people.

Notwithstanding the display of research in the citation of ancient documents, we cannot regard this work as giving correct views of the past. We are told that France, for eight centuries before the Revolution, or until the seventeenth century at least, had a good and orderly government. It had a "harmonious" connection with its colonies, profitable to it, and beneficial to them. The necessary adjustments were made judiciously and advantageously. France "consulted the wish of the dependencies and regarded their interests." This just solicitude, it will be remembered, was shown by granting monopolies to exploiting companies, by forbidding the colonists to manufacture their own products or to buy goods not made in France, by restricting trade to French vessels, and by many like regulations.

Up to the year 1750, no one in the American colonies, according to Mr. Snow, "appears to have dreamed that there was anything which was not dignified, just, and proper" in their relationship to Great Britain. It was in 1750, by the way, that Great Britain forbade the manufacture of iron in the colonies. But it would be a waste of time to expose the evils of the colonial administration which Mr. Snow regards with such favor. His theories concerning "implied contracts" and "moral obligations"—"contracts" made, construed, and applied by a strong power in effecting conquests, and "obligations" to itself alone—are mere sophistry. He declares explicitly that the United States can levy taxes on its dependencies and enforce their collection, although it thus becomes a judge in its own cause. But Mr. Snow naïvely continues; "Where one is obliged to judge in his own cause, such obligation increases enormously the moral responsibility." Of course the familiar goody-goody talk follows, about the trust which the American people have assumed, and the necessity of providing means "for educating the public sentiment so that the people of the American Union may be in position to superintend both the President and Congress." This comprehension of their high responsibilities by seventy-five millions of people is to be brought about largely "by object-lessons, through expositions and museums."

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*The Growth and Decline of the French Monarchy.* By James Mackinnon, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. 840.

The industry and facile pen of Dr. Mackinnon give us this thick volume on France in close succession to large works on Edward III. and the union of England and Scotland. The present disquisition (for the book is more an essay than a chronicle) begins with the coronation of Hugh Capet, and closes at the death of Louis XV. The study, as the preface tells us, was undertaken with reference to the origins of the Revolution, but it has so far branched out from this purpose as to have a different character from that which was at first designed.

"I became engrossed in my subject," says the author, "apart from its direct bearing on the Revolution. I studied it, in fact, for itself rather than for its ultimate effects. I found myself looking at each successive reign from the standpoint of its effects on its period rather than on the future, though I have emphasized the prospective tendency of events and institutions as I proceeded. In other words, I have made a study of government in France, under the old régime, in its relation to the nation for the time being."

So much may be cited to convey Dr. Mackinnon's explanation of his chief aim. For our own part, we must say that this book appears to rest upon a radically unsound basis, or at least that the method pursued is not one which helps us to understand the growth and decline of monarchical institutions in France. Dr. Mackinnon has not sought to describe the development of institutions.

"It is of government," he says, "in connection with contemporary history, that I have treated—a very different, and, as I believe, a far more important subject. It is with the actual operation rather than with the mere form of institutions that I am concerned. It is a question of minor importance in my view, whether, for instance, the Council of State was composed of so many individuals, or of so many subordinate councils, compared with the question whether its acts affected France, for the time being, for good or evil."

In criticising this statement, we shall admit that administrative forms and the routine of bureaucracy need not be taken up at any great length in a general historical treatise. At the same time, the state is an organism, and the rise of the main political institutions should be seriously considered. The mediæval part of this volume is extremely meagre and altogether inadequate. The five centuries from Hugh Capet to Louis XI. receive one hundred pages, the three centuries from Louis XI. to Louis XV. receive seven hundred pages.

This disproportion is excessive, but it is not all. It might have been possible, even in a hundred pages, to show how the Capetian monarchy took form and how it strove with the forces of feudalism; but throughout the whole of this section the treatment is essentially superficial. For a single example we shall quote, in part, Dr. Mackinnon's comment upon the eleventh century—a cycle which is dismissed in half a page; "The eleventh century is a century of pure anarchy in France, with most tragical results to the miserable people, who had no rights and seldom knew what happiness was. The chronicles of the time are grim reading indeed, with their oft-recurring story of famine driving men even to cannibalism, of pestilence, brutality, murder, crass superstition, and leaden, heartless oppression." A passage like the above almost takes one's breath away. To be sure, the eleventh century was in many respects a rough and brutal age, but, judged by the test of relative improvement, it will stand comparison with any period of equal length since the decline of the Roman Empire. Not only was Western Europe ablaze with the fire of improvement, but France was a very beacon, as the history of Cluny, of Normandy, of the communes, of Romanesque architecture, and of the First Crusade attests. To say that "the eleventh century is a century of pure anarchy in France" is to dogmatize in great haste and with little thought.

Our main proposition, however, is that Dr. Mackinnon adopts a wrong attitude towards the evolution of institutions. Though purporting to deal with the rise of the French monarchy, he does not show satisfactorily how it took form in the Middle Ages and drove its roots deep into the national soil. By neglecting the institutional side, he fails to bring the monarchical institutions of France into comparison with those of other countries at the same period. The result is, that we get a somewhat miscellaneous narrative, which is

studded with energetic passages, but runs to declamation where it should be soberly tracing the operation of processes.

We have not hesitated to express thus plainly an unfavorable opinion of Dr. Mackinnon's method. So far we have confined our strictures to the mediæval portion of his work. As he advances, he gets into closer touch with his subject, and the book improves; but throughout there is a failure to explain the organic growth of the monarchical institution. On the other hand, there is much in the book which is better than the treatment of its leading theme. Dr. Mackinnon seeks above everything else to connect the monarchy with the nation at large.

"Most important of all," he says, "is the effect of the exercise of the monarchic power on the people. The grand test of the value of any government is contained in the question, What did it do for the people? Did it contribute to its elevation, its welfare, its happiness, in the widest sense, or did it not? Practically every other question is subordinate to this, and I shall have entirely missed the mark if I have not made it clear, all through, whether the government of the French monarchs served, not the aggrandizement of France or the grandeur of this or that individual who happened to wear the French crown, but the grand purpose of the general interest."

With this appreciation of the value which belongs to social history in its relation to the history of politics, one must heartily sympathize, and Dr. Mackinnon does from time to time discuss the effect of government upon the masses. Still, even here expectation is not quite realized, for the courtiers and politicians are more to the fore than the people. The best features of the work are, in our judgment, these: Dr. Mackinnon has a considerable range of reading and writes with evident love of his task. Secondly, he is alive to the importance of social and economic questions. Thirdly, he shows a degree of interest in the emergence of fresh political ideas which he does not show in the development of political institutions. From the time of Henry IV. forward, this ample volume contains much material which students will find means to use, but we must confess that we have found the earlier portions of it disappointing.

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*Thoreau: His Home, Friends, and Books.* By Annie Russell Marble. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Mr. Sanborn's later study of Thoreau is still recent, and, on the eve of a third and enlarged edition of Ellery Channing's 'Thoreau,' we are confronted by a new writer venturing boldly into the once lonely field. Some time since, Thoreau attained to the glory of a *de luxe* edition, and his vogue has other and more healthy signs of growth. A host of writers swarm upon his track, who are not so much imitators as disciples quickened to a studious love of nature by his spirit. The whirligig of time is bringing many exquisite revenges on that season of inappreciation when, with straining back, he carried seven hundred copies of 'The Week,' that had been returned to him as unsalable, to an upper room. But the swelling chorus of repentance has heretofore had no voice so out of tune with Thoreau's character and mind as that of Mrs. Marble. Her manner of writing affects us the more painfully because it is so often brought into contrast with Thoreau's English, "caught," as Lowell wrote, "at its living source, among the poets and prose-writers of its best days." It is remarkable that she could soak her mind in Thoreau's books and take on so little of their virile tone. Her own style is distinctly young-ladyish. To words that smack of the soil she has a particular aversion. She delights in such as are pretty and sesquipedalian, in such tinsel forms as "basal" and "fontal," and such compounds as "view-points" and "heart-life." A good many adjectives are or appear to be introduced, because they sound nicely, without any reference to their meanings. In general, we do not get the impression of a natural affinity with Thoreau's work, but of an accidental inclination to him as a good subject for a book. With plenty of good sources, our author permits herself such a congeries of inaccuracies as this, where she is writing of Thoreau's friend, H. G. O. Blake:

"He had been in Harvard when Thoreau was there, graduating from the Divinity School in 1839, when Emerson, by his famous address, sent quivers of apprehension through Calvinistic creeds. Mr. Blake became deeply interested in Emerson, and adopted many of his theological tenets. He was himself a preacher at Milford, New Hampshire, when Emerson resigned his pastorate and received such sharp censure, especially from Professor Norton."

The necessary corrections are, that Blake graduated in 1838, when Emerson's address was delivered to the graduating class—that the address delighted the Calvinists because it enabled them to say to the Unitarians, "Where are you now?"—that it was this address which drew Mr. Norton's censure, "The Latest Form of Infidelity," the following year—that Emerson's resignation of his pastorate was then ancient history, having occurred in 1832, when Blake was but sixteen years old.

We do not find much in the way of incident or comment in Mrs. Marble's book with which the Sanborn and Channing books have not already made us acquainted. There is scant acknowledgment of their help, with frequent vaunting of the writer's novel acquisitions, some of which are interesting and valuable, but injured by the awkward setting which attempts to give them prominence. At many points there is a courageous and often just demur at the judgments expressed by earlier biographers and critics, and, throughout, the writer's aim, in so far as it is controversial, is to relieve Thoreau from the character of eccentricity which has burdened him, in good part because of his own humorous exaggeration. The "view-point" in this particular is less original with Mrs. Marble than she would proudly fancy it: she is able to make liberal quotations from her predecessors in defence of her position. But her reiteration does not come amiss.

A second reading of the book, after one had learned to discount the writer's foibles, and to be more amused than irritated by her wordiness, would yield a rather favorable opinion of its main effect. It is convincing that Thoreau was not misanthropic, and no convert to Rousseau's gospel of a return to nature as the solution of the social problem. He found the Maine woods less to his liking than the humanized Concord fields. "What is nature," he said, "if there be not an eventful human life passing within her? Many joys and many sorrows are the lights in which she shows most beautiful." This quotation, though much to Mrs. Marble's purpose, is one that she has overlooked. But she has others to the same effect:

"I think that I love society as much as most, and am ready enough to fasten myself like a blood-sucker for a time on any full-blooded man that comes in my way. I naturally am no hermit, but might possibly sit out the sturdiest frequenter of the bar-room if my business called me thither."

This does not counter the Walden episode so much as the popular misconstructions of that "experiment." A good deal of satire has been wasted on Thoreau's frequent visits to Concord and his meals there with his family and friends. He knew very well what he was about, as the success of Walden proved. It is true, as one of his students has written, that he "represents himself as an epicure rather than an ascetic." He did not wish to be amenable to the criticism of Emerson's "Days," but to get the best afforded and to pass it on. "I would fain communicate the wealth of my life to men, would really give them what is most precious in my gift. I will sift the sunbeams for the public good." The simplification of life was the main haunt of his thought and purpose. He would disengage himself from those social trappings which are commonly regarded as advantages, but are actually encumbrances. His protest is needed now much more than it was when he first uttered it, and one would gladly be assured that the increasing interest in his writings means that his teachings are being taken seriously to heart by a great many people.

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*Through Hidden Shensi.* By Francis H. Nichols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

It is almost a commonplace among would-be authors who sojourn as diplomatists and intelligent men in the professions and trades, that there is no better time for the writing of a book on the strange country they live in than when one has just arrived. Even the late S. Wells Williams once told the reviewer that the time when he felt most like writing a book on Japan was when he had been in it—or, rather, partly on and partly off, but near it (in Perry's expedition)—during six weeks. This seems to be the real secret, or at least one of the chief reasons, of the fascinating quality of Mr. Nichols's new book on a very old subject, as his map shows. Leaving Pekin, October 16, he reached "Sian," the extreme western limit of his journey, beyond the bend of the Yellow River, November 14, and, floating down the great Yang-tse-kiang, he reached Shanghai December 22. He went to China to carry the benevolent contributions of Americans to the sufferers by the famine in Shensi, and was on the move most of the time. He had observing eyes, an alert mind, and a ready purpose to enjoy everything he possibly could, and he certainly knows how to make his story thoroughly interesting.

In Pekin he received the red visiting card of Prince Ching, which proved an "open sesame" everywhere, and worth more than all other official documents. With the help of a Scottish missionary, Mr. Duncan, he was able to reach his goal and carry out the eminently Christian pur-

pose of his patron, the proprietor of the *Christian Herald*. He visited the Nestorian tablet, the refuge camps, and a few interesting places besides, suffered the usual trouble with tenants other than human that preoccupy the bedclothes of China, had no extraordinary adventures, and yet he tells a story which is attractive on every page. The region which he visited has been of special interest of late, because of the flight thither of the court of Pekin during the Boxer troubles, and the imperial residence there for over a year. Furthermore, Shensi, being the oldest part of civilized China, is interesting in itself, as showing Chinese life in its quintessence as continued through scores of centuries with but little change.

Yet to Mr. Nichols the chief impression was of the variety that there is among the Chinese. Before entering China, he, like other Westerners, had thought of its inhabitants as a people homogeneous in body, mind, and outward estate. His surprise was great in finding a wonderful variety. They were different according to their physical environment and inheritances; one province being in many things no standard for another. In a word, he discovered that here were many tribes of differing origin, history, experience, and religion, while all apparently dissolved in the same solution wrought by language, customs, and social ideas. Beyond the seaports he quickly discovered that foreign influences had but a minimum power of penetration. Even the telegraph to Sian was never taken seriously until after the coming of the court, which then kept the wires busy. Now the merchants and other people strain the resources of the local office, and four operators are necessary. He learned that the usual way of showing opprobrium, when one Chinese was angry with another, was to call out "Japanese." This the author thinks is a survival of the time when "the land of the Mikado was a tribute nation," but this, we can assure Mr. Nichols, has no historic basis, or at least none better than that which, in China only, asserts that the British, Americans, Germans, French, and Dutch are tribute nations. The term is derived rather from the fact that the Japanese pirates and marauders, for so long a time, centuries ago, kept desolate the coasts of China.

Mr. Nichols was charmed with the humanity and good morals of the average Chinaman. His previous notions, instilled in the Sunday-school and by the American newspapers, were all set awry by the kindness which he received, and of which among the natives he was a constant witness. He was surprised at the bright eyes and ruddy cheeks of the children in the interior. He notes the general absence of enduring monuments of China's antiquity, but sees proofs of the nation's great age in the landscape itself, especially in those deeply sunken roads, often thirty feet below the level of the fields which have been rutted to such depth by the wheeled traffic of centuries. In his philosophy of the subjects which he handles jauntily, we cannot usually agree with him. He saw only the crowded lines of traffic and places of habitation, and land which for the most part is fertile, and therefore densely populated. One may gain an entirely wrong idea from some of his statements, which need a work like that of 'An American Engineer in China' for correction. As matter of fact, the densest population is massed on the fertile plains and in the river valleys, while large portions of China proper and even more of the Empire at large are but thinly inhabited. The introduction of railways would have the same effect in China, as elsewhere, in distributing the population more equally. New industries and methods of transit would at first paralyze old methods of livelihood, but adjustment would come in due time, nor is there any reason to think to the contrary because almost without exception the former boatmen on the Pei-Ho River were Boxers (p. 305).

A glow of humor lends added brightness to many pages. Mr. Nichols is at his best in describing the mandarins and the play of Chinese human nature in every-day life. His quiet manner of calling attention to things that are very "heathen" in Western ideas, but very Christian in reality, is highly effective. He is moderate and self-controlled in describing the famine-desolated districts, though his description of the sale of meat balls made from the bodies of human beings who died of hunger, and sold for four cents a pound, is sufficiently realistic. As a result of famine conditions, dysentery and cholera broke out and swept away thousands who had escaped the worst rigors of hunger. More terrible to witness even than famine-devastated districts are the villages inhabited by the victims of opium smoking.

The illustrations in this work are uncommonly good, and somewhat out of the common run. Those which reproduce for us the Nestorian tablet, give also the top portion containing the cross, as well as the Syrian and Chinese text. The analytical table of contents, map of the journey, and a very full index complete a fine piece of literary workmanship, and a most delightful narrative of travel, fresh, piquant, and enlightening.

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*John Ruskin.* By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan Co. 1902.

Mr. Harrison touches nothing that he does not adorn. Such an adept in the art of writing could make even an ordinary man seem worthy to be enshrined in the "English Men of Letters" series; and when he has a subject like John Ruskin, the result is a magnificent apotheosis. Ruskin, he tells us, was the writer of the Victorian era who poured forth the greatest mass of literature upon the greatest variety of subjects, and about whom most was written in his own lifetime in Europe and in America. Many biographies of him already exist; but, as Mr. Harrison says, the matter available is still abundant. It is certainly well that he himself was chosen for this task; for by admiration, affection, common ideals, aims, and sympathies, he is exceptionally qualified.

Ruskin's place as an artist, and as a critic of art, is too well known to require much to be said of it, and Mr. Harrison attempts little more than to characterize briefly the great books which first made the young author famous. He expatiates more, and perhaps sufficiently, on Ruskin as a social reformer. He admits that Ruskin's diatribes were full of sound and fury, but finds them significant of something. The chief principle of the political economy of this modern prophet was that "the conditions producing material wealth are inextricably intermingled with the general conditions of a healthy and worthy body politic." Probably no human being, whose opinion is worth having, ever denied the substance of this proposition. We might almost say that none ever thought it necessary to assert it as a profound truth. But if the conditions producing material wealth are really so inextricably intermingled with others as to admit of no disentanglement by scientific methods, political economy is of course impossible until sociology has been developed. So far, Positivism is in harmony with Ruskinism; but very few people think that sociology has advanced enough to be applied practically.

As to what Ruskin accomplished in his promiscuous polemics, Mr. Harrison is explicit enough. Ruskin, he declares, was utterly unfitted to construct a social philosophy, by his very scanty learning, by habit, and by the cast of his mind.

"He can only throw forth a few suggestions, more or less echoes of Plato, the Bible, mediæval art, and Carlyle. Nothing less adequate as a coherent and systematic synthesis of society can be imagined. He, the self-taught, desultory, impulsive student of poetry and the arts, rushes in to achieve the mighty task which Plato, Aristotle, Aquinas, Leibnitz undertook—and failed, and which Locke, Kant, Hume, and Bentham touched only in sections."

It is quite true that Ruskin asserted many truths, and advocated some social changes that have been made. But it was a haphazard process, and the task of reconciling his utterances with one another and with facts would be as futile as that of the commentators who act on the theory that the Hebrew prophets knew what the history of the world was to be. Carlyle said that Ruskin had a "divine rage against falsity," and he constantly prophesied in the name of Truth. In fact, few writers have ever shown a more reckless disregard of truth. His pages are crammed with false statements of fact, and with grossly libellous accusations. He was destitute of the "scientific conscience," which has sternly consigned so many pretty hypotheses to oblivion, and which recognizes nothing as true until it has been proved by the severest tests which reason can apply. He preached of sweetness most bitterly; he praised thoroughness, and never attempted to ground himself in political science; he raved of a past which he absurdly misinterpreted, and he rhapsodized over a future which is grotesquely impossible. It was said of Sir Isaac Newton that his commentary on Revelations was apparently meant to console the human race for the superiority he had over it; and Ruskin's political disquisitions may cause the humblest reader to think better of his own intellect.

Rightly viewed, Ruskin's essays in social reform are like music, appealing, not to the reason, but to the emotions. During most of his life he was nearly insane, and his cerebral disease became several times acute. Doubtless this explains why he seems—

> "——that delirious man
> Whose fancy fuses old and new,
> And flashes into false and true,
> And mingles all without a plan."

From such a mind we must not expect system, or reason; but we may get, and many thousands have got, inspiration. The ar-

rogance, the scorn, the hatred, the vituperation; the crudities, the absurdities, the falsehoods—all these may be overlooked because of the seraphic music of the style, because of the coruscating wit, because of the incomparable wealth of allusion and suggestion. For these we must go to his books; but those who would have a critical estimate of them, and those who would learn what manner of man their author was, will appreciate Mr. Harrison's essay. His judgments are merciful, but not too partial, and if he goes far in his extenuation, it is a generous fault. As a Positivist, he is sufficiently detached to criticise schemes of social reconstruction with intelligence; and as a man of letters, his competency to judge of literature has been amply proved.

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*The Origin and Significance of Hegel's Logic:* A General Introduction to Hegel's System. By J. B. Baillie. Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. xviii, 375.

This book is, on the whole, of any that we have seen, the most helpful for a student prepared to take up the study of Hegel. It is not designed as a substitute for reading Hegel's own works, but, as the title-page proclaims, as an introduction to such reading. It explains how Hegel's 'Phänomenologie,' 'Logik,' and other works came to be written, which is what the student of any system should desire to learn, first of all. In saying this, we are supposing that the student is not a neophyte in philosophy. When a man first takes up the study of philosophy, his difficulty, at the outset, is that he is already possessed by a crude system of metaphysics, and that, while he has a vague curiosity to know why others do not think as he does, he really has no desire to learn. After that first difficulty is conquered, he has to make a study of some one system of philosophy, which, however, it is impossible for him really to understand at this stage, because he does not comprehend the original state of mind of the author at the time his original studies were begun. In the case of Hegel he must, as a matter of course, understand Kant, and especially the deduction of the categories, not only as his doctrine appeared to Kant himself, in his two editions, but as it appeared to the young theological students who read it while it was fresh. He will necessarily make some study of Fichte's 'Wissenschaftslehre' and of some of the earlier writings of Schelling. He can then take up this book of Dr. Baillie's with profit, and thereafter the study of Hegel (in German, of course, for the 'Logik' is, in a sense, a dissertation on the German language) will not present any insuperable difficulties, unless Hegel's own inaccuracies be considered such. In particular, he should have carefully read Dr. Baillie's admirable concluding chapter, entitled "Criticism." His only danger will then be that of overlooking, what Hegel entirely overlooks and Dr. Baillie does not distinctly recognize, that thought and "immediacy" are not the only factors of experience. To avoid that danger he ought to be penetrated with the spirit of science, to understand English thought, that of Herbart, that of Fries, and be well acquainted with modern exact logic.

Hegel is a vast intellect. The properly prepared student cannot but feel that the mere contemplation of the problems he presents is good. But that the study of Hegelianism tends too much toward subjectivism, and is apt to break that natural power of penetrating fallacy which is common to all men except students of logic, especially of the German stripe—seems to be the result of experience.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, F. O. The History of Enfield, Connecticut, Vol. III. Lancaster (Penn.): Published by the Editor.
Book-Prices Current, Vol. XVI. London: Elliot Stock.
Butler, H. C. The Story of Athens. Century Co.
Campbell, A. C. Insurance and Crime. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Cary, Elizabeth L. William Morris, Poet, Craftsman, Socialist. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Chase, Jessie A. Mayken: A Child's Story of the Netherlands in the Sixteenth Century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Chubb, Percival. The Teachings of English in the Elementary and the Secondary School. Macmillan.
Cobb, A. G. Earth-Burial and Cremation. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Coe, G. A. The Religion of a Mature Mind. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Cole, Timothy. The Old English Masters. With Historical Notes by J. C. Van Dyke, and Comments by the Engraver. Century Co. $8.
Corelli, Marie. Thelma. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Ellwanger, W. D. A Summer Snowflake, and Drift of Other Verse and Song. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Fiske, John. Essays Historical and Literary. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Fowler, N. C., jr. The Boy: How to Help Him to Succeed. Boston: Oakwood Pub. Co.
Gilman, D. C., Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopædia. Vols. I., II., and III. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Deserted Village. (Illustrated by Edwin A. Abbey, R.A.) Harpers. $3.
Graham, Douglas. A Treatise on Massage. (Manual Therapeutics.) New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Hill, Janet M. Practical Cooking and Serving. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Hosmer, J. K. History of the Expedition of Captains Lewis and Clark, 1804-'05-'06. Reprinted from the edition of 1814. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $5.
Kingsland, Mrs. Burton. The Book of Weddings. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.20.
Lamb, Charles. The Essays of Elia. (Century Classics.) Century Co.
Lord, W. S. This Is for You: Love Poems of the Saner Sort. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Lovell, Isabel Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lyon, R. T. Eugene Field's Favorite Poems. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord. 50 cents.
Macdonell, Anné. Sons of Francis. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Mackenzie, W. D. John Mackenzie, South African Missionary and Statesman. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.
McCarthy, Justin. The Reign of Queen Anne. 2 vols. Harpers.
Mowbray, J. P. A Journey to Nature. (Illustrated ed.) Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.50.
Otis, James. The Cruise of the Enterprise. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Schmidt, Alexander. Shakespeare-Lexicon. New ed. 2 vols. Berlin: George Reimer; New York: G. E. Stechert; also, Lemcke & Buechner. $8.
Sexton, Ella M. Stories of California. Macmillan. $1.
Shadwell, C. L. Registrum Orielense: An Account of the Members of Oriel College, Oxford. Vol. II. Henry Frowde. 12s. 6d.
Silberrad, U. L. The Success of Mark Wyngate. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Smith, Gertrude. The Queen of Little Barrymore Street. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Spurr, H. A. The Life and Writings of Alexandre Dumas (1802-1870). F. A. Stokes Co. $2.
Steele, L. E. Essays of Richard Steele. (Golden Treasury Series.) Macmillan. $1.
The Golliwogg's Airship. Pictured by Florence K. Upton. Verses by Bertha Upton. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
The Record of the Celebration of the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Founding of Yale College. New Haven: Published by the University.
Tomlinson, E. T. In the Camp of Cornwallis. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Vallings, Harold. By Dulvercombe Water: A Love Story of 1685. Macmillan. $1.50.
Von Hutten, Baroness. Our Lady of the Beeches. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wright, C. D. Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.

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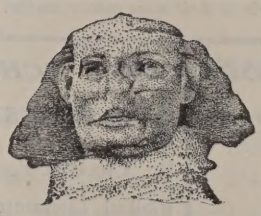

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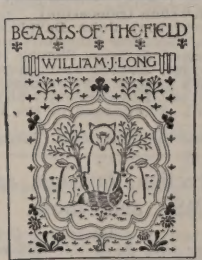


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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 20, 1902.

## The Week.

Mr. James Creelman at last gives us Addicks's *apologia* in the *World*. Stripping off the accessories of Italian art and domestic felicity in which the narrative is embowered, the apology comes down to this: that Mr. Addicks had rehabilitated the Republican party in Delaware. Towards this disinterested work he had offered a slight contribution of $10,000 a year, and the total cost of his leadership in Delaware, he is "quite certain," has been, not millions, but a trifling $250,000. The fact of the matter was, said Mr. Addicks, that all the trouble had arisen because he (Addicks) had been a Theodore Roosevelt out of due time. As he said this blushingly, he presented to Mr. Creelman's untroubled gaze "a pale sapphire ring, an inheritance from an O'Sullivan ancestor in Ireland, who caused the family motto, 'Modestia Victrix,' to be engraved under the rampant lions, the wild boar, and the deer of the family crest." Mr. Creelman avoided the subject of "victorious modesty" with Jesuitical astuteness, while Mr. Addicks, as "a gentle breeze scattered the yellowed leaves of trees among the dying flowers and the drooping bushes," explained how he had "simply got around" a Massachusetts law regulating the capitalization of gas companies. In this connection he felt that attempts to control great corporations by the State were ill-advised. Trusts were best "let alone," and matters would soon "adjust themselves along natural laws." Finally, the forerunner of Theodore Roosevelt felt that in the matter of the Byrne appointment the actual Theodore Roosevelt has acted "gracefully and properly." Since Mr. Addicks had already explained that he was not "an ignorant, vicious vulgarian," his opinion on a matter of personal propriety should be given due weight with the President.

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If Platt has rendered any public service entitling him to the honor of reelection to the United States Senate, the fact should be known. Will none of his friends come forward to tell us what it is? We and the vast majority of his fellow-citizens are lamentably ignorant of our indebtedness to him, if any exists. What has he done for the State? Wherein has the city benefited by him? As Senator, what act of his deserves praise or recognition? Platt's offences we know. The objections to him are mountain-high. But what can be said in his favor? We ask his admirers, his defenders, even his apologists, to tell us. Is it not an extraordinary condition of things when the State of New York is called upon to elect a Senator for whom not a word can be said; who is to be elected amid universal silence and hanging of heads; for whom even his private adulators will not speak up in public?

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This municipality was flung by him into the arms of Tammany in 1897. When reform triumphed last year, the most that Platt did was to keep out of the way. If he aided in the election of the anti-Tammany ticket at all, it was only because Mr. Jerome wakened vast enthusiasm by his fearless linking of Platt and Croker as the two bosses who were the veritable enemies of the city. Since then he has done nothing to show that he was not justly placed in that category. State legislation has been of a highly important character during Platt's term as Senator. He has touched it only to make trouble. There have been sweeping changes in taxation; laws passed vitally affecting the civil service, the dependent classes, the forests, the canals. With which one of these measures has Platt's name been connected, except malignly? It is not that he has kept his hands off State affairs, He has professed to direct them. But what has he done? He has urged a bill to take away the police power from New York city—a bill so bad that a Republican Governor was forced to break with him on that issue. He has affronted and assailed the judiciary in a manner so flagrant that the voters rose up to give him a stinging rebuke. If Mr. Platt has done anything else for this State, we should like to be told what it is. As for his service at Washington, who can point to a speech made by Platt? Who to an important bill introduced by him? Being in Washington simply as an office-broker and patronage-hunter, he made no pretence of being anything else. A vacant chair, or a lay figure to vote when a button was pressed, would have been as good a Senator as he.

---

Without any wish to prejudge Mr. Mitchell's case, we cannot resist a certain pleasure at seeing him so neatly cornered by Mr. MacVeagh. For some months John Mitchell has been cornering both his friends and opponents. He actually snubbed the President for his offer of a commission, without leaving him any grounds for a retort, and later he calmly annexed the President to the strikers' side without possibility of protest. Not that Mitchell need wholly be ashamed of the chase he led Mr. Wayne MacVeagh on Monday. On the contrary, the angel of peace himself could not have been more inflexibly opposed to all acts of violence, by whomsoever committed, than was the man who testified that his union had profited by what he described as "intolerable" conditions of disorder. But his attitude was clearly that of resignation, not of indignation, and in an unguarded moment he admitted that the dynamite outrages were presumptively the work of the strikers. For this means of terrorism he was careless enough to assert the advantage that it had been bloodless; an admission which proved that such intimidation had been deliberately planned.

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The time is ripe for society to take action to protect itself against all boycotts. This evil has reached such proportions that freedom of action, and even freedom of thought, have been annihilated in some localities, so that men go to their daily work trembling in fear of an unseen monster, the boycott. In some places two or more boycotts are raging at once. The boycotters boycott each other, and then threaten all men, women, and children who refuse to obey the orders which they discharge against each other. This was what Mr. Samuel Gompers referred to in his opening speech at New Orleans last Thursday, when he said that unless there was a speedy change in the ways of organized labor, the unions would be fighting each other behind barricades in the streets. Yet Mr. Gompers goes in for boycotts when he has the making of them himself. No man who believes in the boycott at all is fit to put a limit on the use of that anti-social, uncivilized, un-American weapon.

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The Board of Supervisors of Warren County, N. Y., has asked the boards of the neighboring counties of Saratoga and Washington to join in an appeal to the Legislature for an appropriation to pay the bills caused by the riotous strike on the Hudson Valley Railway. It was this which made necessary the keeping on duty of the various companies composing the Second Regiment, N. G. N. Y., for a number of weeks. It is to be hoped that this appeal will fail. If the daily reports of the incidents of the strike were correct, the rioters received no little encouragement from the attitude of the people in the towns and villages connected by the railway's lines, particularly in Glens Falls, Sandy Hill, Fort Edward, Saratoga, Mechanicsville, and Waterford. Indeed, the number of employees on strike was relatively so small that it would have been impossible, without the assistance of a large number of unruly local sympathizers, to organize riots so serious as to make necessary a call for State troops. In this view of the case, the people of the neigh-

borhood affected by the disturbances were largely to blame for the outbreaks, and it would be a wholesome lesson for them to be compelled to pay the fiddler after their dance.

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It is now plain that neither the Governor nor the State military authorities can take any action with a view to punishing the Schenectady labor leaders who are engaged in an attempt to injure the National Guard of this State. It is not treason to deprive a man of his employment because he has chosen to become a citizen soldier; it is probably not even a conspiracy against the State, as that term is at present defined. The injured militiaman might properly bring suit individually against the leaders who have arbitrarily deprived him of his employment because he chose to serve the State. As far as the State authorities are concerned, however, they are powerless to act in the matter, and their helplessness will undoubtedly lead to efforts to secure legislation on the subject as soon as the Legislature meets, particularly as this is not the first case of union hostility to the militia. Were the efforts of the labor unions directed towards discouraging enlistments in an over-large and menacing standing army, there might be some excuse for the attitude taken in Schenectady and elsewhere. But there is nothing whatsoever about the character or organization of the National Guard which can be construed as menacing the liberties of the people, or as threatening the right of laboring men to work or to strike whenever they see fit. When troops have been called out on strike duty, there has never been an instance, to our knowledge, where the soldiers have taken sides with one or the other party to the dispute. They have in every case confined themselves to the duty of policing the districts into which they were sent, and of protecting private property from the attacks of the lawless. In remarkably few cases have the troops fired upon the crowd in their efforts to uphold the law. Strikes often collapse on their mere appearance; but no large strike of moderately skilled labor, such as motormen, freight-handlers, switchmen, etc., is likely to succeed unless public opinion is emphatically behind the strikers.

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Mr. Griggs's statement, in last week's preliminary hearing of the suit of the United States against the Northern Securities Company, opened what is perhaps the most important line of defence. He alleged that during several years, before even the anti-Trust act of 1890, many important American railway companies "had acquired all or a majority of the shares of the stock of competing railway companies, or had acquired by purchase or lease the control of parallel and competing lines of railway, and that this state of things was a matter of common knowledge, and was reported to the Interstate Commerce Commission, and by it to Congress." Mr. Griggs further maintained that Congress never intended, by the act of 1890, to touch this class of operations. Whatever may be said as to this latter inference, Mr. Griggs's statement of facts is correct, and was, of course, amply sustained by the copies of annual railway reports submitted in evidence. This phase of the matter has, in fact, been from the first the most significant. Even people who were more or less in sympathy with the Government's purposes in the Northern Securities suit, have asked, with some concern, how a decision against the company would affect such well-known railway aggregations as the New Haven or Pennsylvania Companies. It is natural that the defence should push to the front this argument in its case.

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The argument was anticipated, however, by Attorney-General Knox in his brief of March 10. The Government's position, as then outlined by Mr. Knox, forestalled with a good deal of skill contentions that the pending suit was really a suit against all existing railway systems, formed through purchase and consolidation of outlying properties. The Attorney-General maintained:

> "The defendant, the Northern Securities Company, was not organized in good faith to purchase and pay for the stocks of the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific Railway Companies. It was organized solely to incorporate the pooling of the stocks of said companies, and to carry into effect the unlawful combination or conspiracy aforesaid. The Northern Securities Company is a mere depository, custodian, holder, and trustee of the stocks of the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific Railway Companies, and its shares of stock are but beneficial certificates issued against said railroad stocks to designate the interest of the holders in the pool. The Northern Securities Company does not have, and never had, any capital sufficient to warrant such a stupendous operation."

The ingenuity of this plea has been much commented on by lawyers. It was met, in the defendant's answer of last May, mainly by allegation that "this defendant is not a railway company, and has no power to operate or manage railways or make or control rates of transportation," and, moreover,

> "that every share of stock issued by this defendant has been issued to the persons or corporations receiving the same, for full value paid for it, either in cash or its equivalent."

The interesting part of the legal battle in this case will be the effort of the defence to assimilate the Northern Securities combination to the smaller railway purchases and consolidations which preceded it, and of the prosecution to distinguish it from them.

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Gen. Chaffee has manfully assumed the unpleasant responsibility for everything done in the Philippines during his tour of duty as commander-in-chief. It must be noted, however, that he limits this responsibility and his approval to the written orders issued by his subordinates. "Hell-Roaring Jake's" instructions to kill and burn in Samar were, it will be remembered, verbal orders. Gen. Bell's severe course in Batangas Gen. Chaffee heartily approves, because it was "for peace and not for war" that he was contending. Gen. Chaffee also furnishes us with a new description of reconcentration, "separation with their effects from those not disposed to peace," which should be added to the long list of palliative terms invented by conquerors the world over to minimize their cruelties. But Gen. Chaffee is in danger of being considered over-optimistic when he thinks that the end of the insurrection is surely accomplished. It is easy enough to call small bands "ladrones" and outlaws, but when the Civil Commission finds these robbers increasing in such numbers as to compel it to call on the military for aid, as it did last week, the disguise grows thin. Like Gen. Young, Gen. Chaffee has great praise for the soldiers; but he qualifies his belief in their exerting a good influence on the natives with the phrase, "unless the alleged demoralizing influence broadens so as to make the presence of the white race as a race demoralizing to the native races." Plenty of proof of this is to be found both in and out of army circles in our four years' occupation of the unhappy Philippines.

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A telegram from Washington says that the report of the Philippine Commission recommends the establishment of the gold standard in the islands at the earliest possible moment. The decline in the price of silver has caused a loss to the Government of about $1,000,000 during the past six months; that is, since the adjournment of Congress. The public revenue is collected in silver, while purchases are made for the most part on the gold basis. Payments of salaries, if made with silver, cause loss to the recipients, who are mostly Americans. President Taft himself is a sufferer in this way. The condition is like that which compelled Japan, in 1895, to adopt the gold standard. At that time the gold dollar was worth, as bullion, exactly two silver dollars. Now it is worth two and a half, and yet the State of Colorado went Republican in the last election. The latter fact should embolden the United States Senate to adopt the Conant bill for currency reform in the Philippines before the price of silver falls materially lower. According to all reports received from the islands, their financial condition is desperate. The Government is obliged to borrow large sums of money to meet its necessary expenses and to avert starvation among the inhabitants. In short, the after effects of the

war have come in the usual form of pestilence and famine. A change in the currency system will not cure these afflictions, but it will improve the country's credit, and enable the Government better to cope with the evils confronting it.

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Careful readers have formed the habit of suspending judgment on all matters relating to the Danish West Indies until the statements of evidently biassed cablegrams have been either verified or, as has usually been the case, contradicted by the Danish papers. Many of our enthusiastic editorial writers, however, have not learned wisdom from past errors, and the result is a fresh outburst over the report that the opponents of the sale have been unable to make good their promise to support a steamship line between Denmark and St. Thomas. But it is now stated on no less authority than the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, the Government organ, that the full capital of the new company has been guaranteed, and that all that is lacking is the subscription of additional shares for the extension of communications with Central and South America. The article contains a list of the directors of the company, which includes some of the strongest names in the Danish commercial and aristocratic world. Danish capitalists are not in the habit of backing out of an engagement once made, and it was a slur on the national character to suppose that they had done so in this case. Hardly less unfair is the statement, often made since the rejection of the treaty by the Danish upper house, that this action was taken solely in order to embarrass the present Liberal Ministry. It may be that political motives played a part with many, but in the main the hostility to the sale was along national, not party, lines. Georg Brandes, the leader of the Danish radicals in literature, was among the first to give voice to the national conscience, and it is childish to suppose that he would act in the interests of Danish conservatism.

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It is not so long ago since Congressman Grosvenor solemnly warned the nation, under penalty of dire financial distress, not to elect a Democratic Congress. Now the prophecy has been completely fulfilled, except in the matter of the Democratic Congress. Depreciation in securities and the prospect of falling prices for commodities have come as promptly to time as if the nation were chilled and prosperity checked by the prospect of Democratic ascendency. The awkwardness of continued semi-panic conditions following upon a rousing vote for the Republican party and prosperity is sufficiently obvious. It is not too much, however, for the Republican oracles. What would have been very like an expression of Divine wrath for a vote against the "god of things as they are," becomes now a beneficent chastening for the common good. That is, a Democratic bear market is a high political offence, but a Republican bear market is a casual incident of speculation, for which the party assumes no responsibility. The speculator who burns his fingers under Democratic depression has the sweet savor of a martyr; the speculator who liquidates a losing account during Republican depression is a foolish fellow who suffers the natural penalty of his own recklessness. All of these things go to show that it makes all the difference in the world whose panic it is. But such reflections yield imperfect consolation to those who believed Congressman Grosvenor and voted the Republican ticket to hold the market up.

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The fact that October's import of foreign merchandise, as shown by Saturday's official figures, was the largest ever reported for that month, is not in itself especially surprising. The country is wealthier than it ever was before, and better able to buy what it chooses from foreign producers and manufacturers. Comparison of the year to date with previous years, however, makes the showing a little startling. In the ten completed months of 1902, this country has imported $61,700,000 more foreign merchandise than in 1901, $94,600,000 more than in 1900, $131,500,000 more than in 1899, and $261,900,000 more than in 1898. As compared with the last-named year, the rate of increase in our imports has been very nearly 50 per cent. Whatever the immediate cause or meaning of the movement, it disposes of several theories entertained during this trade revival by philosophers who had established to their own satisfaction a wholly new order of things in American finance. Judged in the light of these more recent developments, we do not seem to have learned how to dispense with foreign purchases, while we do appear to have discovered how to dispose of a "foreign credit balance."

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"Everything ends in songs," said that apparently frivolous but really wise Frenchman, Beaumarchais. If he were living in New York to-day he would have probably said, "Everything ends in dinners." It was in recognition of this principle that Senator Depew and Mr. James H. Hyde assembled the notable company that on Saturday bade farewell and godspeed to Ambassador Cambon. It will not be invidious to say that so representative a gathering could hardly have been made in honor of any other member of the diplomatic corps at Washington. M. Cambon had exceptional responsibilities, of which he acquitted himself with rare skill. During the late war he represented with rare dignity the interests of Spain. No doubt, the perfectly correct attitude of the French Government at that time was in large part due to his representations. There was every reason, then, for making such public and hearty recognition of his eminent services to this country as can most fully be offered in the post-prandial hour. That hour has its perils, as was amusingly shown in the case of Secretary Root, who spoke for the Administration. Something of the "Visigothic" warmth of Mr. Root's political prophecies has been eliminated from the press reports, but enough remains to show that he charged M. Cambon to create "a great Latin republican empire on the continent of Europe, in which the Seine and the Guadalquivir will flow in unison and harmony." In other words, he authorized M. Cambon to overthrow the sovereign to whom he is accredited—diplomatic credentials of an unusual order. At this point M. Cambon's English, which had previously served him admirably, failed him utterly, and he gave no signs of understanding Secretary Root's rearrangement of the map of Europe. In the privacy of his first interview with Premier Combes, he will possibly find occasion to say that the duty of "telling it to the marines," which in France falls to the Naval Minister (the original inventor of the "champagne speech"), is in America performed by the Minister of War.

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The German Reichstag has by a large majority given the Government authority to proclaim retaliatory tariff schedules against all nations which discriminate against German products. By a curious coincidence, this vote was taken only a day or so after President Roosevelt's declaration before the Chamber of Commerce that "the voice of the just man armed is potent." Naturally every nation must be considered just by its own legislature, and the Reichstag made a prompt and justifiable application of the President's dictum in taking up arms. Probably the German Foreign Office will assure our State Department that the new tariff weapon is not for use, but merely for potency. It is hard to see how we could object to such an explanation. For years it has been our boast that we held up cheap foreign products and inferior European labor. That "just man armed," Brother Jonathan, who has been used to mulcting Wagoner Hans at the pistol point, will have no real grievance if some day Hans draws not his purse, but his snickersnee. It was, in fact, precisely President Roosevelt's argument that "arms" were necessary which the Agrarians used in the protracted debate of Thursday. How fallacious is that reasoning which sees in fumbling with deadly weapons a means of keeping political and industrial peace, no one who has observed societies in which every gentleman "wears a gun" will need to be told.

### *ROOSEVELT & ADDICKS.*

Who would have believed it, if told a week ago that Addicks would be seen today trampling upon the prostrate form of Delaware, and boasting that he had the support of Theodore Roosevelt in his efforts to complete that State's dishonor? Yet that is precisely the kind of swaggering which the gas-man is doing. All his subsidized country newspapers have had the tip from him, and are gleefully saying that Addicks is now the sole dispenser of Federal patronage in Delaware. He still needs a few votes in the Senate, but, with the prestige of President Roosevelt's endorsement, he hopes now to win them. It is a shameful and humiliating spectacle.

Mr. Roosevelt has appointed an Addicks man United States District Attorney. To do so, he had to pass over the name of the temporary incumbent of the office, Mr. J. P. Nields, who was endorsed for the position by nearly every lawyer in the State, irrespective of party, by both of the Federal judges, and by the entire judiciary of Delaware. The Addicks tool named by the President, Mr. W. M. Byrne, is a man whose appointment is conspicuously unfit, quite apart from his political affiliations. During his first term in the office—which he resigned at the word of command from Addicks—he was notorious for inefficiency. He had to undergo the humiliation of being rebuked in open court by Judge Bradford, for having neglected his duty. It would be a shame to appoint such a man even if his political sponsor were a saint. To take him at the behest of Addicks is an unspeakable degradation. His confirmation ought to be fought and defeated. We sincerely hope that the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, with Senator Hoar at its head, will show a more scrupulous regard for the honor and purity of Federal justice than the President of the United States has displayed in this case.

But even if Byrne were a Story and Webster rolled into one, his appointment ought not to be thought of so long as it could be of the slightest aid to Addicks in the commission of his political high crimes and misdemeanors. The Postmaster-General explains the President's position, just as we know from other sources that Mr. Roosevelt himself puts it. "Why," he says, "the election returns show that Addicks has 12,000 votes behind him, while his Republican opponents have but 8,000. How, then, can I deny him recognition?" When, however, did the moral law begin to depend upon a sum in arithmetic? Can we not speak our mind about the outrages of a notorious political criminal until we have worked out a problem in proportion? We understand, of course, that the President attempts to throw the whole thing back upon the electorate of Delaware. He cannot, he maintains, interfere in a factional quarrel within the party. He is forced to make a rule that he will deal with any leader whom the majority of the party voters send to him, and therefore he will recognize Addicks just as he has recognized Platt and Quay.

Now, saying nothing, for the moment, of the expediency or morality of a "rule" which compels an honest President to embrace brigands when they come to him with a party label on their backs, we have to point out that even the President's rule does not excuse him for striking hands with Addicks. That colossal corruptor of the suffrage is not yet Senator. He is not, like Quay, a successful pirate, in charge of the captured ship; he is still fighting, and the beleaguered crew is still hoping to beat him off. But Mr. Roosevelt, observing that the piratical assailants outnumber the crew in danger of massacre by 12 to 8, decides to aid the buccaneer! A party President may be compelled by some strange rule to aid a man who has actually broken his way into the Senate, like Platt, but how can he be bound to go to the assistance of a man who has not yet completed his burglary? What Addicks says to Mr. Roosevelt is, in effect: "See, I have sandbagged the policeman on the beat, I have gagged the night-watchman, I have got my jimmy, my drills, and my dynamite all ready, and if you will only help me up to that window I can break in and make a good haul." And Theodore Roosevelt offers his broad back to help the burglar up!

We are informed that the President is impatient that "something be done" in Delaware. He tells the anti-Addicks Republicans that their policy is one of pure "negation." They deadlock the Legislature and prevent Addicks from being elected, but they are able to elect no one themselves. He thinks that an intolerable kind of inefficiency. The same might be said, however, of a woman struggling to prevent her honor from being violated. That, too, is a policy of "negation." All she can do is to fight to the limit of her physical strength; and the fact that she is weak is not usually adduced by a bystander as a reason for going to the aid of the ravisher who is strong.

The loathing which the honest people, not only of Delaware, but of the whole country, have come to have for Addicks, in both his private and his public character, cannot be unknown to President Roosevelt. The facts are beyond dispute. A political highwayman is trying to rob a sovereign State, and now boasts that he is getting aid and comfort from the Chief Executive. The situation is one that calls for strong words—and we do not know where to find stronger ones than in the writings of Theodore Roosevelt. He is the author, out of office, of the following sentiments, and he cannot blame us if we hold him to them in office:

> "There must be no compromise with official corruption."
> "We cannot trust those base beings who treat politics only as a game out of which to wring a soiled livelihood."
> "The real and dangerous foe is the corrupt politician."
> "No man who is corrupt, *no man who condones corruption in others*, can possibly do his duty by the community."

Is Mr. Roosevelt going to eat all these and the other burning words of his in which he has expressed his hatred of the men of whom Addicks is the perfect type?

It would be interesting to know how the President squares his action in the case of Internal Revenue Collector Bingham of Alabama with his announced rule as applied to the situation in Delaware. He removed Collector Bingham for the very good reason that this Federal office-holder was engaging in a corrupt and vicious scheme of party politics—namely, the denial of the just political rights of negroes qualified to vote under the laws of the State. Did the President pause to inquire whether the Collector and his associates represented the dominant faction among the Alabama Republicans? What is good for Delaware surely ought to be good for Alabama; and yet there is nothing to show that Mr. Roosevelt got out his tape measure or his scales before he chopped off the official head of the offending Bingham. The offence of the now reappointed Byrne in Delaware was fully as flagrant as Bingham's. Under orders from Addicks, Byrne resigned his office to run for Congress; the sole and avowed object being to defeat Representative Ball, an anti-Addicks Republican. This was surely a blow to the party (for it sent a Democrat to Congress) as well as an offence against political morality. Yet Byrne is rewarded, while Bingham was punished. Does the President have to take observations of latitude and longitude as well as consider weights and measures, in applying his rule? As a political moralist he had himself laid down the real rule for treating the demand of Addicks for recognition. What the public man must do, said Mr. Roosevelt, who would "avoid wreckage," is never to assume "the attitude of deifying mere efficiency, mere success, *without regard to the moral qualities* lying behind it." If he had applied that to Addicks, the gas-man would now be gnashing his teeth instead of chuckling over Presidential support.

### *ENEMIES OF SOCIETY.*

That labor leaders should grow drunk with power, like other men, is not surprising. The surprising thing would be if the intoxicating draughts which have recently been held to their lips had no effect in heightening their arrogance and making their demands more extravagant. They have been recognized

and flattered by our Chief of State. They have been treated almost as if they were a coördinate branch of the national Government. No wonder, then, that they have set up as, at least, an *imperium in imperio*, with separate laws of their own, often conflicting with the law of the land; with an allegiance to the labor union ranking above that to the State; and with an accelerating recklessness and folly displayed in turning the hand of "labor" against the hand of every independent citizen and against the best interests of society as a whole.

We are not astonished at the way in which organized labor has been showing its teeth of late, but we are instructed by it, and so ought all Americans to be. If any man had doubts about the inherent tendency of unchecked unionism to run into tyranny and a new slavery, as respects its victims, and into a sharp challenge of the fundamental principles of our government, the events of the past few days should have disabused him. We have seen President Eliot denounced as a Judas Iscariot and Benedict Arnold combined for daring to say that he detected a heroic strain in the workingman who refused to submit to union despotism. This honored bearer of a distinguished American name, this leader of those who lead in the intellectual world, has been covered with foul abuse by labor oracles who know as little of our country's traditions as they apparently do of its language. And now close upon the heels of these verbal ferocities comes the most extreme and high-handed and cruel-minded boycott ever attempted in the United States. Scarcely had President Mitchell denied that the boycott had a place in the programme of organized labor, when he and the other apologists for unionism had the lie given them by the Schenectady boycott.

This is laid out on paper with the thoroughness of a military campaign, and with the minute specifications of a mediæval interdict by the Pope. Every street car in and about the city is to be picketed, and if a union man is caught riding upon the unclean thing (unclean because operated by non-union motormen and conductors), he is instantly to be deprived of his union card—that passport of citizenship—and to be expelled as a traitor. Any business man who patronizes the cars is to be boycotted. Inasmuch as the Schenectady Railway Company has some connection with electric-light and gas companies, householders are to be forbidden, under penalty of the union's displeasure—that is, its boycott—to light their residences except with candles or kerosene. That is to say, a would-be labor monopoly is willing, in the use of unlawful weapons, to play into the hands of that other monopoly which it has spent its breath in denouncing—the Standard Oil Company!

But it is not necessary to give further details of this boycott *in excelsis*. That it can succeed, we do not for a moment believe. Common sense has not yet fled from this country. The spirit of personal liberty is not dead. And until both reason and a self-respecting independence cease to exist among us, no such absurd and intolerable system as the labor boycott can live here. The Schenectady proposals are too insensate to be admitted even in a labor-ridden community. They must be rejected unless the city wishes to turn over its government absolutely to walking-delegates. But the incident is valuable as displaying the unscrupulous tendency which all the while lurks in a unionism ambitious of boundless domination. As some diseases are best studied in their most virulent forms, so can we easiest see the inherent nature of trades-unionism exhibited in its moments of extravagant terrorism. We perceive then its inner drift; how it would make every workingman whom it cannot coerce a pariah, and every citizen whom it cannot frighten a ruined man. The Schenectady boycott aims simply at compelling certain men to unionize themselves. In order to force that result, the existing labor unions are ready to wreck the city's business and make the life of its inhabitants one long misery and terror. It is when unionism thus brings forth its perfect work that we see how its leaders and dupes really make themselves enemies of society.

We are evidently approaching another of our periodic crises, in this business of labor organization and the boycott. John Stuart Mill said that he had learned to have great trust in "the capability of the American people to see the practical leanings" of a public question, and to do it "truly and rapidly when the critical moment comes." Surely the critical moment has come when the boycott rears its head and shows its fangs. It is time for all lovers of our inherited liberty to bestir themselves; to defy the insolent commands of a power not known in either law or morals; to call for a revival of American patriotism which shall display itself in resisting these upstart tyrants, and which shall insist upon riding, and working, and buying, and selling without let or hindrance from District Leader This or Local President That. The excess of arrogance in these ridiculous magnates of the lodge must be met fully and firmly; it must be laughed at as scorned; put down with a hard hand in its lawless manifestation; so that American society shall not appear the weak and craven thing the labor leaders imagine it, but capable of crushing these internal enemies.

## *ASPECTS OF LOCAL OPTION.*

The joint temperance committee of the Vermont House and Senate have recommended a high-license bill, giving it the preference over a bill embodying the chief features of the Gothenburg plan of State dispensaries. The highly significant feature of the debate in committee was that every member took it for granted that prohibition is a failure in Vermont, and assumed that the problem before the present Legislature was the proper regulation of the sale of liquor. This action, if followed up by the passing of a local-option law, will deal a shrewd blow to the surviving advocates of statutory prohibition. The reasons for the sudden change of opinion in Vermont are not far to seek. There were found in the last election two candidates courageous enough to strike at the traditional system. When once a voice was found to declare that the State was ever sinking into deeper hypocrisy, the response of the people was unequivocal. Everybody knew that practically all the drug stores in the country towns were unrestricted dispensaries of villainous liquor, that the morphia and other drug habits were alarmingly on the increase, that barrooms which paid no tax except an occasional fine were everywhere to be found; finally, that, in the absence of less destructive drinks, many farmers were making themselves sodden with hard cider, and quarrymen poisoning themselves with mixtures of crude alcohol and sirops. It was notorious, in fine, that, as a temperance measure, the prohibition law was a failure and a distinctly demoralizing force in the body politic.

Having tried and found wanting the theory that a State can by law prevent its citizens from drinking alcoholic liquors, Vermont will probably fall back upon the rival doctrine that each community may regulate the sale of liquor according to its own desires and needs. The peculiar form of local-option law that will be submitted to popular vote is not yet settled, but it seems likely that the law will provide for a "yes or no" vote on the question of license at stated and rather long intervals. Theoretically, such a system makes for stability and the permanent division of communities as license or no license. Practically, the experience of the yearly referendum in Massachusetts and Connecticut has shown the advantage of keeping the liquor question always open. The subject of God, said an irreverent editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, has no timeliness in Paris. The effect of the sale of liquor upon the general morals and prosperity is never without interest in a Massachusetts village.

The Massachusetts law is of the utmost simplicity. It sets a high minimum, $1,000, and no maximum for all licenses. It limits the number of licenses to 1 to 1,000 of population (in Boston 1 to 500). It requires the question of license to be voted upon annually, but gives the local authorities (aldermen or selectmen) discretionary power to grant or withhold licenses from all

applicants. Furthermore, it regulates strictly the hours and conditions of sale, prohibits sale to minors, habitual drunkards, and paupers, and generally holds the saloonkeeper to the strictest accountability. The advantages of this system, as set forth by Mr. Frank Foxcroft in the October *Atlantic*, are patent. The annual referendum forces every community to have a mind of its own upon this important matter. "The recurring anti-license campaigns, unselfish, democratic, and educational, are of great value to the communities concerned, even aside from the main question at issue." The feature of the law which makes a "yes" vote merely permissive is also valuable, since it permits the local authorities to distinguish between a "snap" vote or a transient revulsion of feeling and a popular mandate. Two years ago licenses were refused in five towns which had voted "wet," and in other cases the fee has been set impossibly high.

Of course, the essence of the law is that, while leaving no community free to cast off the restrictions which universal experience has proved to be reasonable, it gives every community liberty to deal with its own needs according to its own preference. Twenty years' experience of the law has shown that the towns and cities tend to fall into permanent classes along license lines, and that the annual referendum is not a source of instability. Last year, for example, out of 353 towns and cities, only 37 changed their position, and these divided so evenly into license and no-license communities that the relative figures for the State were changed only by one.

Local option hardly needs elaborate defence to-day (though our own State still refuses the privilege to cities), but the immediate effect of the change to no-license in Massachusetts towns is extremely interesting. Arrests for drunkenness diminished by three-quarters in a number of towns which voted "dry," and the charges per capita for poor relief by one-half to two-thirds. In general, the strength of the Massachusetts plan is that, unlike prohibitive laws, it does not confuse the wholly different issues of saloon regulation and personal abstinence, and does not impose upon communities laws which public opinion will not suffer to be enforced; while, unlike restricted local option, it trusts every community to handle its own saloon problem. "The total result is," says Mr. Foxcroft, with whom all who know the facts will agree, "an average of effective and impartial law enforcement far above anything that could be looked for under statutory or Constitutional prohibition."

Zealots for compulsory abstinence will perhaps join the merely cynical in saying that the no-license towns maintain their virtuous stand only by reason of the proximity of isles of refuge for the thirsty and determined. In other words, local prohibition in Massachusetts depends upon the prevalence of the "Cambridge idea," which consists in "no-license for Cambridge and rapid transit to Boston." But the "Cambridge idea" is probably the best solution of the liquor problem that we can hope for under the present conditions of society. And a plan which constantly appeals to the intelligence and moral sense of the voter, and which makes impossible such a perversion of legislation as the Raines law, is worthy of consideration both by States which are framing a local-option law *de novo*, and those which are mending their present excise statutes.

## *THE FINANCIAL SITUATION.*

Comptroller Ridgely's speech to the Bankers' Convention at New Orleans last week follows much on the lines of Mr. Vanderlip's speech at Wilmington. Its dominant note is cautious warning. The Comptroller finds his arguments, as did Mr. Vanderlip, in the returns of the national banks themselves, and on this point he naturally speaks with authority. Mr. Ridgely wisely reverts, first, to the great industrial prosperity of the country, and to the fact that the recent strain on the money market has resulted largely from an unparalleled legitimate trade expansion. He notices, also, the great strength shown by the national banks in the recent money-market vicissitudes. But his conclusion is thus expressed:

> "In spite of all this, we cannot disguise the fact that, with reserves running down not only in the reserve cities, but in all the banks of the country, the situation is serious and requires close attention and careful handling. Now is the time for caution and care in bank management."

There will be no real disagreement with the Comptroller's views, as matters are now developing in the market. Our own regret is that Mr. Ridgely and his associates in the Treasury should not have uttered their warning months ago. We have had occasion to point out in these columns many times, during the early half of 1902, this movement of bank reserves and liabilities. The fall in reserve percentage was, in fact, quite as evident in the national-bank returns of July 16 and April 30 as in the recent September showing, which so startled Secretary Shaw. The only difference lay in the fact that September's reports showed that numerous national banks had allowed their reserve percentage to decline below the legally prescribed limitation, whereas the July and April statements proved that such conditions, though not yet attained, were inevitably approaching. Thus we attribute no great value to-day to warnings to the banks to be careful in their dealings. The warning of the markets has already been spoken in a considerably louder tone; and, indeed, the concerted action of the New York banks, a month ago, in the line of restricting loans to Stock Exchange borrowers, was sufficient evidence that the warning had been heard.

With the markets in their present confusion and disorder, and with a feeling of apprehension very generally abroad, we think that the financial community is most anxious now to learn how to get out of the scrape in which its recent excesses have involved it. Mr. Ridgely suggests improvements in the line of an asset currency and of a proper system for handling the public surplus. These proposals are well enough, but they scarcely meet the existing situation. They do not, in our judgment, even explain the situation. We cannot agree with the more or less general view that defective currency laws are to blame for the present troubles. If, indeed, it were true that demand for normal and legitimate business interests had expanded out of proportion to the available bank resources, there would be some force in the argument. But it is not normal requirements of trade which have increased loans of the national banks at the rate of nearly 20 per cent. within two years; nor is it normal trade demand which has filled Europe with American bankers' obligations, constantly subject to a call for immediate payment, and has thereby blocked the usual international movement of exchange. It has not, this year, been even absorption of money by the Treasury which has contracted the money market; the Government has less cash in its vaults than it held a year ago.

The simple truth of the matter, recognized by every observer with his eyes open and his wits at work, is that our eager promoters and speculators pushed their undertakings beyond the limit where available capital was sufficient to bear the burden. When such a situation is faced by any community, the inevitable outcome is liquidation. Some one else must be found to bear the burden, and his terms must be accepted. This is the process now at work upon the markets, and it is the only corrective of the situation. The course of events, regarded from the unbiassed view of the economic critic, has been as logical as any in the history of finance. First, our promoters sold their shares *ad libitum* to the public as partners in the enterprises, Next, when this was a trifle overdone, they offered bonds of the companies to the public. Overdoing this in turn, they resorted directly to syndicates, and thus indirectly to the American banks, to provide the capital and hold the securities until the public's mood should change. The last stage witnessed was the expansion of the promoters' demands beyond even the available resources of the domestic banks, and the resort to European lenders, on an unprecedented scale, to discount our promoting bankers' notes.

When the foreign capital began, as it did two months ago, to be recalled, the result was not in doubt.

We think that the drastic process of price readjustment and liquidation which has for some weeks been in progress on the New York Stock Exchange, is the application of the proper remedy. It has been perfectly clear that, at the level of "fancy prices" fixed and stubbornly maintained by Wall Street, the real investor would not buy. This being so, and conditions in the markets being what they were, it was incumbent on them to find a level at which such relief could be invited. There was no other way than by the violent decline in prices such as the markets have been witnessing. That the position of affairs, in this regard, is vastly improved over that of two months ago, no intelligent man will doubt.

Whether the readjustment process is or is not reasonably near completion, is a question not easy to answer. The end of stock-market liquidation is apt to come suddenly, showing that the work had been finished before the country as a whole was aware that it was under way. Commercial markets move more slowly; yet they are prone to move in a similar way when the problem is command of foreign capital. The nation, like the individual that has borrowed more than he can pay off conveniently at the moment, will, if it is wise, offer its actual merchandise on terms that the creditor will deem attractive. We do not pretend in this regard to make predictions. But in so far as the present abnormal movement of international exchange against this country is a consequence of our eighty or ninety millions annual increase in importations, it may be corrected by lower prices on domestic markets. In so far as it results from restriction of our exports, a similar remedy is at all events at hand.

## *LATTER-DAY SUPERSTITIONS.*

We are accustomed to say that we live in an age of science and of exact thinking. The future historian of the transition between the nineteenth and twentieth centuries will probably take no such flattering view. He will remember Omdurman, white with the robes of the thousands of dervishes who fell about the Khalifa; the Boxer hordes that hurled themselves upon European squares, secure in the belief that each adept was invincible against the foreigner. If our Mr. Lecky of the future pursues his studies more minutely, he will learn that in November, 1902, some hundreds of Russian fanatics, men, women, and children, turned their cattle loose, and marched, half-starving and half-clothed, through the bleak plains of Manitoba "seeking Jesus," until the local police put an end to their fantastic pilgrimage. In the United States, he will discover that people stricken with dangerous diseases were allowed to die for want of medical attendance. The occurrence, he will discover, was not infrequent; but none the less the sect which by an equal perversion of common sense and the English language held disease and death to be "a claim," boasted hundreds of thousands of adherents, who believed that the founder—a woman almost illiterate and of small intellectual parts—was immortal. Should the future historian remain unconvinced that this was an age of superstition, such facts as the grotesque settlement at Point Loma, Cal. (which is typical of many of the sort), with its pseudo-Buddhistic jargon, its "Aryan temple" approached by an "Egyptian gate" and overlooked by a "hill of the sun," will carry him back to the Middle Ages and the wildest reports of Knight Templarism.

It is a question if our superstitions have as respectable a ground as had those of our ancestors. They believed absolutely in the existence of an unseen world which touched them at every point. No peasant's hovel was too small for the fiend, or the Blessed Virgin, to enter. A keyhole sufficed for a witch or an incubus. Mystery surrounded them and oppressed them. They had to learn to live with it. When we find that they lived serenely and rationally, we commend them for their religion; when the horror or the desire of the unseen things drove them to irrational or bloody deeds, we say they were sunk in superstition. And in an age when practically nothing was explained and the simplest physical phenomena were attributed to supernatural causes, it was inevitable that the merely unusual should seem the portentous, and that there should be in every life hundreds of occasions to release the springs of a fear or an ecstasy.

One would naturally suppose that the progress of science had largely removed the very grounds of superstition. Today every sight, sound, or odor that may frighten us in the dark can in the morning be elaborately explained and analyzed. Mystery has ceased to surround us, and exists only in our own fancy. And the very phantoms of our own minds are fully recorded and classified, if not completely explained. Even in problems of the human emotions, psychology leaves only a narrow margin of the mysterious. What is it, then, that urges us to create mystery where we know it is not, and, having rejected the beautiful, traditional forms of belief in the supernatural, to have recourse to the puerilities of Christian Science or the claptrap of Theosophy? In this matter we are dealing with the superstitions of the educated—a somewhat different thing from the superstitions of the throng. It may fairly be said of the Mad Mullah's followers, of the Mormons and Doukhobors, that they represent an unbroken line of superstition. For science has, after all, entered very little into the thinking of the average man. We are informed by a competent observer that the immigrants in our New York slums actually create a kind of new folk-lore, based upon their changed conditions, and tolerant of the automobile and the trolley-car. But the Point Loma mystics represent a class of people who, having once divested themselves of superstition, have become again, in Herbert Spencer's expressive word, "rebarbarized." Their case requires a special explanation.

Very commonly no further cause than simple flightiness need be sought. Many people exchange agnosticism for Christian Science or Theosophy, for the same reason that they drop pewter and go in for blue china. But there is frequently a finer motive behind rather absurd superstitions. The human mind revolts at what might be called the arithmetical methods of science, is quickly wearied by tables of chemical valency and measurements of heat and sound waves. Granted that this is an infirmity, it is a constant and ineradicable one. As rule and measure go farther in the physical world, the mental world has its revenge in seeking after all manner of mysticism and romanticism. How otherwise explain the numerous cases where psychologists have dropped their study of the normal human mind, and risked health and even reason in the study of occult phenomena? It can only be that the exacter method and the perfectly defined material have seemed less interesting than the tentative method and the dubious material. This temper of mind even finds its apologists, and we are taught to have a kind of horror of the intellect that wishes to be sufficient to itself and refuses to affirm that which it has not proved. "Life is garnished by possibilities and made beautiful by half-beliefs," says a recent writer in the *Spectator*, who urges us to keep our hearts open to ghostly visitants.

One may doubt if such doctrine is greatly needed at this time. We should prefer to see such an appeal to humor and to common sense as should make it impossible to mistake a Mrs. Eddy, a Mrs. Tingley, or an "Elijah" Dowie for a founder of religion. The scientists, too, have something of tolerance to learn. They must contrive to make their austerely impersonal mistress acceptable to average human nature. Rationalism, which ever advances but holds no conquered territory fully in subjection, must find prophets who will plead with the fervor and compelling force of a Ruskin or a Carlyle. Superstition has never failed of persuasive prophets. Rationalism has not yet learned the art of competing with the zealot and the charlatan. To the mass of charlatans or self-deluded leaders of the credulous, it has had but one Huxley to oppose. Small won-

der that the balance swings temporarily to the side of superstition.

## THE MUSEUM OF ST. GERMAIN.

PARIS, November 7, 1902.

St. Germain is famous, as every one knows, for the Pavillon Henri IV. and for the Castle behind it, built by François I.; it is also famous for the Museum in the Castle. No doubt the building strikes you first. Its remarkable state of preservation is due to the fact that, since Napoleon III. to this time of writing, it has been reërected, as money allowed; and the few crumbling stones here and there date from his time. Why he conceived this ruinous passion for St. Germain becomes evident on the ground floor, where his staff of wise men got together everything they needed to write his work on Cæsar's Commentaries on Gaul. Going from there to the top of the palace, you leave Napoleon and plunge into prehistoric Gaul—by which is frequently meant Gaul long after Cæsar, but lost to his refined and historic influence. Walk through these rooms to the last of them and you find what I went to see: a new collection, just presented and soon to be opened, of bits of bone and ivory, carved by beings whom it would be unscientific to speak of as having done anything but exist.

It should be said the collection isn't new. Prehistorians had long known of a gentleman, living in the south of France, who had excavated on his own responsibility, and, as luck would have it, dug close to the roots of the human species. The man himself, M. Piette, was there, in the company of the Curator, when an official friend and I arrived. He was old, somewhat round-shouldered, but full and ruddy in the face, with eager blue eyes. He has published a few pages, rather against his wish, for private circulation; he has written a large book, finished long ago, to which the illustrations were ready years since. But mistrust and love of truth have kept the pages at home, and it is doubtless with regret that he is about to publish, for private circulation, an edition so small as to seem already rare. Let me add, he is one of a class. The French provinces are full of men, without great means and with little education, who suddenly surprise the museums by having long followed, and sometimes, as in this case, with method and keen intelligence, some scientific whim. Here, then, were M. Piette's fruits, and by them will he be judged: flakes and sticks of ivory and bone, scrawled over with designs or carved into various shapes.

They were found in geological strata different from ours. On learning this first, I closed my eyes a moment, being dazed. These are not mastodons and behemoths, which a skilful set of wires and iron poles puts on their legs once more; nor an ichthyosaurus which presumably swam in deep seas where we now live comfortably with an address. This is human work of a high order. Down one stick of ivory were carved several horses' forelegs in fairly high relief, the fetlock and hair being rendered to perfection. There were many bone needles, and plaques about as large as a dollar piece, with quaint designs cut in. A few nude figures, male and female, were more primitive, but not more so than some old French and Italian pieces I have seen. All this dates back—reckon yourself. It was altogether bewildering.

The collector took up one piece, which in his slow but enthusiastic speech he described as an arm, with a cape over the shoulder. My friend, who is an authority and somewhat slower in discerning such things, had rashly described it as a leg, but was converted. One of the nudes wore some sort of suspensory. I confess the dress of this prehistoric generation seemed to me as insufficient as it was hypothetical, and I shall not believe the next writer on these subjects when he describes it as consisting of the things I doubtfully have mentioned.

As I was leaving, some one remarked this was no longer a palace, but the people's palace. A note of Socialism in such surroundings rang out strangely. It is characteristic, however. Old manors, old castles, old buildings of every sort all over France are being turned more and more into museums. The vaulting is repaired to hang curiosities from; and the walls that not so long ago were covered with brocade or painted wainscoting, disappear behind the works of some obscure school of painting. Does the old palace thereby become the people's palace? Is science really humane and social, and is the scholar so much more modest and affable than the courtier or the aristocrat? I should not like to give my opinion on a subject so modern and so obscure.

Meanwhile, my friend and I had emerged on to the roof of the palace. This, and others of course, are each and all the finest views of the country about Paris. The forest on one side, russet and green; the valley of the Seine toward Montmorency, and Paris on the other; the dip and then the hill crowned with the arches of Louis XIV.'s aqueduct over Marly; and round over the slopes and hills west again—this, all in blue hazes and rich autumn lights, made one swear that the French landscape was the only one. Looking down into the courtyard, you saw the wonderful Renaissance building, crowned with the royal coping; a salamander with an F, on which in one case, without great effort, had been hewn an R—I forget if the salamander was there also. A last contrast awaited me on the ground floor. We entered the chapel built by Louis XIII., of which, by the destiny presiding over restorations, only the stone vaulted roof remains. I was lost in making out some old medallions and body-color on it when Science pulled me by the sleeve. The chapel is devoted to a collection of casts of "prehistoric" Gallic tombs, piously disposed, and looking much older than the glass and tracery and stonework—all being of to-day.

Which is the best of all these periods? The most bewildering certainly is M. Piette's. Even if one's interests and studies do not lead one back, or rather down, so far, the Museum of St. Germain is a great school for historic modesty. Nowhere else do you see so clearly what an orderly pandemonium it has been down here ever since the sun first rose, and how preposterous it would be to expect much of the art of ivory-carving when the very tusks *they* worked on *then* came from God knows where.

TRUMBULL STICKNEY.

## FERSEN AND MARIE ANTOINETTE.

PARIS, November 1, 1902.

I have had occasion at various times to speak of the historical studies of M. G. Lenôtre on the time of the French Revolution; they are all marked by a very impartial spirit, by almost passionate research for the truth, and by a total independence of any partisanship. In every sense, M. Lenôtre has all the qualifications of a true historian. None of his studies has impressed me more than what he has recently written on a personage whose name will be for ever connected with that of the unfortunate Queen Marie Antoinette. The very name of Marie Antoinette ought to be a remorse to France. Whatever may have been her faults—and in reality they were very trifling—the treatment she received from a country where she arrived almost as a child, and where she became for years a Queen; the terrible martyrdom she had to suffer in punishment of faults which she had not committed, and which were those of generations; and in the end her cruel execution, must fill every Frenchman having any feelings of humanity with pain and shame. I pass almost every day the so-called Expiatory Chapel which was built by order of Louis XVIII. in order to receive the remains of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette, and I never do so without thinking of these victims of the Revolution.

Marie Antoinette had a real friend, who did all it was possible to do to save her.—I mean Count Axel von Fersen. Fersen belonged to an old Swedish family. In his youth he travelled for three years all over Europe, with a governor. He stayed some time in Brunswick, at a military school; at Turin, where he took lessons in philosophy; at Strasbourg, where he attended lectures on many subjects. After this preparation, in the winter of 1773 he made his début in French society, and was presented at court by his ambassador. He was tall and handsome, with fine manners—"the immense advantage," says M. Lenôtre, "of being a Scandinavian, which gave him an irresistible prestige." Marie Antoinette was only Dauphiness at the time. It was the fashion for the greatest ladies to go to the masked balls at the Opéra. The Dauphiness *intrigued* Fersen (to use the customary expression) at one of those balls; and, after a long conversation, condescended to lift her mask and to make herself known to him. The crowd which surrounded them obliged the Queen to retire to a box. Fersen received on that occasion what the French call the "coup de foudre." This incident decided the whole tenor of his life.

He often saw the Queen again at Versailles; she invariably was very civil to him. He was discreet, respectful, almost timid. Nothing authorizes the comments which were sometimes made on the favor shown to Fersen. The Swedish Ambassador, Count von Creutz, wrote to his King, Gustavus III., at the time when the Dauphiness became Queen (Louis XV. died on May 10, 1774), that "it is not possible to have a wiser and more decent behavior" (speaking of Marie Antoinette). Fersen, however, judged it necessary to leave Paris after Marie Antoinette's accession to the throne. His absence lasted four years; when he returned to Versailles, in August,

1778, he was received by the Queen as an old acquaintance. In the letters which Fersen wrote to his father, we read: "The Queen, who is the prettiest and most amiable princess I know, has had the kindness to ask after me frequently. She asked Creutz why I did not come to her *jeu* on Sundays." In another letter he writes: "The Queen always treats me with kindness, and I often go and pay court to her at her *jeu*, and she addresses some kind word to me every time. As people had spoken to her of my Swedish uniform, and she expressed a desire to see me in this costume, I shall go in it next Tuesday, not to the Court, but to the Queen. She is the most amiable princess I know."

Jealousy and spite are necessary ingredients of court life—one might say, of worldly life. Creutz writes to Gustave III. this letter, which is kept in the archives of Upsala:

"I must confide to your Majesty that young Count Fersen has been so favorably regarded by the Queen that some persons have felt annoyed by it. I confess I cannot help thinking she has a leaning towards him; I have seen some marks of it which admit of no doubt. The young Count on this occasion showed admirable conduct by his modesty, his reserve, and especially by the resolution he took to go to America. By going away, he removed all possible dangers; but it required a firmness beyond his years to surmount this seduction. The Queen could not take her eyes from him during the last days; when looking at him, her eyes were full of tears. I beg your Majesty to keep this secret to yourself and to Senator Fersen. When the departure of the Count was known, all the courtiers were delighted. The Duchess of Fitzjames said to him: 'What, Sir, you abandon your conquest?' 'If I had made one,' said he, 'I would not abandon it; I go away free, and unhappily without leaving any regrets behind me.' Your Majesty will acknowledge that this answer was marked by a wisdom and a prudence beyond his years."

Fersen came back from America in June, 1783. He accompanied his King in a journey through Germany, Italy, and France. Louis XVI. gave him the colonelcy of the Royal-Swedish regiment; as he was also Colonel in Sweden, he divided his time between Paris and Stockholm. In 1790 he established himself completely in Paris; he had gained the entire confidence of Marie Antoinette, who was in reality friendless.

"We can affirm," justly says M. Lenôtre, "from her letters and those of Mercy [the Austrian Ambassador] that she tried all she could to love her husband, without succeeding completely. Her society at Versailles was composed only of vain men, accustomed to easy successes. Her light-headed brother-in-law, of whom she fears the *polissoneries;* the *mauvais sujet* Tilly, who is her page; the bold Besenval, who attributes the excesses of his language to the license of a soldier; Vaudreuil, skeptical, languishing, full of mannerism; Lauzun, whom she is obliged to dismiss from her presence—all paid their court to her, and it is a wonder that we can affirm, notwithstanding their half-confidences and their mysterious reticence, that none of these puppets tarnished 'the white soul of the Queen.'"

In 1791, when she was abandoned, when the Court had become a prison, Fersen reappears. She knows that he has always loved her; she knows that he is worthy of confidence. We have fortunately some documents which throw a little light on the relations that began at that time. After the flight to Varennes, many papers were seized at the Tuileries and at the houses of the persons who were suspected of having favored this flight; but all of them were not used. After some time, many were kept in the upper part of the Palais de Justice and forgotten for half a century. M. Bimbenet, a lawyer of Orléans, classified them about sixty years ago. M. Lenôtre does not tell us who had the chance of finding among these documents seven letters addressed to Fersen by a lady whose name remains unknown, and which were opened during the inquest that followed the flight to Versailles. The letters had been addressed to him after he had himself left Paris. They were written by a lady who had emigrated to England. Had she been a mistress of Fersen? M. Lenôtre thinks so; at any rate, she loved Fersen passionately, but she had discovered that he had himself a passion for the Queen. "He loved her respectfully, with an irresistible and profound love, all the more since she was isolated and unhappy and he had sworn to save her." The unknown lady had sacrificed her own passion. "I desire," she says, "to see you soon in Stockholm as a brother whom I cherish; I have no other sentiment left for you; I have made this difficult effort to obey you." And in another letter: "You ought to be satisfied with me; I am now at the point which you have desired. I shall feel only friendship for you; I ought never to have had another sentiment, or at least I ought to have concealed it in the bottom of my heart. It is the greatest sacrifice I can make for you." The unknown lady who had received Fersen's dangerous confidence never names the Queen; she calls her "a certain person," or "the person to whom you are attached."

The *émigrés* in London must have known something of Fersen's passion; some of them blamed Fersen for endangering the reputation of the Queen. The unknown lady writes to him: "I have had a quarrel on this subject with my husband; I don't see things as he does, and I think that at this moment you could not do enough to prove your attachment, by not leaving her, and by giving all the proofs of it which depend on you. What others blame, I find sublime, and I cannot but esteem you the more."

Fersen wrote a number of letters, sometimes in cipher, to the Queen; his style, even in cipher, is very guarded; the short answers of the Queen are very affectionate. Some of them, in their brevity, are very touching: "Don't be uneasy. . . . Don't torment yourself too much on my account. . . . When shall we meet again quietly? . . . Adieu, I am wholly yours. . . . . Adieu, my dear Rignon [it is one of the names she gives him in her letters]. I embrace you very tenderly." Fersen had not the courage to destroy all these notes, but he defaced with ink the most intimate parts of them. "We can follow the phases," M. Lenôtre says, "of this reciprocal affection, which was like the last ray of sunshine in the life of the Queen." We must remember that she was a prisoner, that Fersen had but one thought—to take her out of her prison. He was the chief agent of the flight of the royal family. He arranged all the details with Bouillé and Choiseul. He marked the places where the King would find protection. He studied the road, and the relays of the post; he procured false passports, with the help of two foreigners, Quentin Crawford, an Englishman, and the Baroness de Korf, a Russian lady. He procured a travelling chaise, provided money, corresponded with the courts of Austria, Sweden, and Spain. He carried under his arm, day after day, the linen which the Queen needed on the journey; he found maids, he saw to every detail. The postchaise was kept in his stables; he placed in it all the necessaries for the journey. When the night of the flight came, he himself received in an old hackney-coach, in the court of the Tuileries, the King and Queen; he was dressed as a coachman. He took them to the barrier where the postchaise was in waiting, and conducted them himself as far as Bondy. There he parted with them, and a rendezvous was arranged at the Château de Thonnalle, near Montmédy. Two days afterwards, he learned the news of the arrest of Louis XVI.

As soon as she was back in the Tuileries, the Queen writes a word to him: "I exist. . . . How uneasy I have been about you! . . . Don't write to me. . . . Be easy. The Assembly will treat us mildly. . . . Adieu. I shan't be able to write to you any more." Several letters, however, were still exchanged, with many precautions. On the day of her execution, Marie-Antoinette wrote these lines on a page which still preserves the marks of her tears: "I had friends; the idea of being separated from them forever, and their pain, are one of the greatest regrets I have in dying. Let them know at least that to the last moment I thought of them."

# Correspondence.

## HISTORY IN WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As several persons seem to be striving in the public prints to acquire for certain colleges the honor of being the first to encourage the study of history, I desire to present the claims of William and Mary. I think that there is no doubt that she was the pioneer college in this interesting field, just as she was the pioneer in the fields of modern languages and of Constitutional and municipal law. Now as early as 1723 the Rev. Hugh Jones, professor of mathematics at William and Mary, suggested the establishment of a chair of history. While the chair was not established until many years after that time, he illustrated the subject in a very intelligent and original manner by writing the 'Present State of Virginia,' the first historical production in America to proceed from the hands and brain of a professor in a college. Thirty years later, William Stith, a graduate of Oxford University, and an historian whose work on Virginia entitles him probably to the first place among American historical writers of the eighteenth century, was President of the College, a circumstance also which may have had its influence in shaping the work of the College in after years. At length, in 1779, Mr. Jefferson, who was himself a great student of history, in connection with Dr. James Madison, President of the College, reformed the College curriculum by introducing the study of the modern languages,

and of Constitutional and municipal law. In the latter department, although the subject-matter of the chair was civics and law, the questions of Colonial and English history as illustrating the Constitutions of Virginia and of the United States received largely the attention of George Wythe, the celebrated preceptor of the two Virginians, Jefferson and Marshall. Judge Wythe was succeeded by Judge St. George Tucker, whose published lectures on Constitutional law involved the history of the slave question and many other questions coming within the scope of a chair of history.

The first distinct chair of history by that name, however, was that of Louis Hue Girardin, who, under Mr. Jefferson's guidance, wrote the fourth volume of what is known as Burk's 'History of Virginia.' This gentleman was a professor in the College from 1800 to 1805, but, unfortunately, the Faculty book for the period in which he taught is lost. As editor, however, in 1805, of a magazine entitled *Amœnitates Graphicæ*, he styled himself "Late Professor of History and Geography in the University of William and Mary." The instruction imparted by him was assuredly something different from "civil history," which, as a branch of ethics treating of the duties of the citizen and the State, had been taught in the College by the professor of moral philosophy from its earliest inception.

After 1805 the fortunes of the College were very much depressed, but in 1820 a vigorous effort was made by the Board of Visitors to restore the institution to its former usefulness. Rev. Richard Keith was elected professor of "history and humanity," and in regard to him we have fortunately the faithful light of the Faculty book to guide us. He qualified before the Faculty on December 5, 1821. He gave three lectures a week in history and three in the classics. His text-books in the former were Hume's 'History of England' and Ramsay's 'History of the United States.' Mr. Keith served for about a year, when he resigned on account of ill health. In a few years (1826) he was succeeded by Thomas R. Dew, and there can be no question to any one who examines his 'Digest of the History of Ancient and Modern Nations' that he stands in the forefront of all teachers of history in the Union during the period in which he lived. Under his vigorous administration as President, lasting until 1846, the College attained a degree of prosperity never before achieved. His successors in the chair of history were George Frederick Holmes, afterwards for many years professor of history at the University of Virginia, Henry A. Washington, who was employed by Congress to edit the works of Thomas Jefferson, and Robert J. Morrison, whose name is identified with that of President Ewell in the publication of the Historical Catalogue of the College.

This carries us to the war between the States in 1861, when the College was destroyed by the Federal troops. After its restoration on the same walls, the study of history was resumed. In 1898 the subject of American history, linked with that of politics, was separated from the general study of history, and assigned to the duties of the President. This closes a hasty account of the study of History at William and Mary, but I hope the account may prove of some interest to your readers.

LYON G. TYLER,
*President and Professor of American History and Politics.*
WILLIAM AND MARY COLLEGE,
WILLIAMSBURG, VA., November 11, 1902.

## ONE HUNDRED TWENTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am interested in discovering the originator, or the first user in print, of the expression "one hundred twenty," in place of "one hundred and twenty." Mathematicians say that the elliptical form originated in a desire to avoid ambiguity in reading numbers containing decimals, but I have seen no proof of this. The earliest occurrence of the shorter form that I have found anywhere is in Daboll's 'Teacher's Assistant,' second edition, 1802. (The first edition has not been available.) In this work the form occurs but once (p. 23), and no attention is called to it. After this time I have found no example of the ellipsis, outside of later editions of Daboll's work, until 1848, when it appears as the only form in a "new edition" of Greenleaf's 'National Arithmetic.' From this time on, it occurs with increasing frequency, although it is not the established form until late in the '70's, both expressions being used indiscriminately in the introduction to the 'National Arithmetic,' editions of 1856, 1859, 1862, and 1865. The earliest explicit instruction for the use of the shorter form that I have found is in J. B. Thomson's 'Complete Graded Arithmetic,' published in 1882: "In reading numbers expressed by three or more figures, omit the word *and* after hundreds" (p. 9). The total number of arithmetics that I have examined is 62, and of this number 25 use the longer form. My researches were limited to the collection in the University Library.

In the light of these facts I shall, until I receive further information, hold to the hypothesis that the first appearance of the shorter form was not an invention. It was a sporadic case, a spontaneous variation, which was preserved because it was found useful. The idea that it was invented because of its usefulness in avoiding ambiguity in reading decimals, I shall hold to be a sort of *Volksetymologie*, got up after the fact. But I am open to conviction.

The question interests me, I ought perhaps to say, from the rhetorical standpoint, not from the arithmetical. To the form "one hundred twenty" I have a pronounced antipathy, which is not in the least diminished by my awareness of the economies of the phrase from the mathematical point of view. In part the antipathy is traceable to the circumstances under which I first heard the expression, in part to the sound of the words. The elliptical phrase was first pronounced in my hearing by a pedantic, affected person, whose dress, speech, and manner were alike distasteful to me. A vivid image of this offensive individual arises in my mind as often as I hear the phrase. But the antipathy is strengthened by the seeming collision or huddling of the words due to the dropping of the conjunction. I suspect that many others are similarly disposed toward the expression.

FRED NEWTON SCOTT.
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, November 12, 1902.

## SIMILARITY OF TITLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In choosing 'Retrospect and Prospect' as a name for Capt. A. T. Mahan's book recently published by Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., and noticed in the *Nation* of November 13 (p. 381), it is an interesting fact that both the author and the publishers seem to have overlooked 'Retrospects and Prospects,' a volume of essays by Sidney Lanier, published by Messrs. Scribner in 1899.

GEORGE S. WILLS.
WESTMINSTER, MD., November 14, 1902.

# Notes.

The *Journal of Comparative Literature*, to be edited by Profs. George E. Woodberry and J. B. Fletcher and Mr. J. E. Spingarn, and published quarterly by McClure, Phillips & Co., will make its first appearance on January 1, 1903. Its contents will relate to international literature, past and present, and its articles will be printed, as a rule, in the language in which they were written. Leading articles will be followed by signed reviews, and these by abstracts of periodicals. France, Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Switzerland, Germany, Italy, Austria promise collaboration (the new French Ambassador at Washington is on the list of names already published). British and American universities are also counted on for support. Columbia University is the *Journal's* editorial headquarters.

The Complete Works of John Lyly, now for the first time collected, are about to issue from the Oxford University Press under the editorship of R. Warwick Bond, M.A., who furnishes a Life of the author and an estimate of his importance to English literature.

James Pott & Co. announce 'The Builders of the Republic,' by Margherita A. Hamm; 'The Life and Works of R. B. Sheridan,' in two volumes; 'The Inner and Middle Temple,' historical associations, by H. H. Leigh Ballot; 'Five Great Painters of the Victorian Era,' by Sir Wyke Bayliss; and 'The Mediterranean: Its Storied Cities and Venerable Ruins,' by J. T. Bonney.

The indefatigable veteran, Professor Mommsen, will add to the Corpus of Latin Inscriptions published by the Berlin Academy a new volume of considerable size, devoted entirely to the Latin inscriptions found in the Orient. It was in 1873 that he published the first volume of these inscriptions, but meanwhile there has been such an accumulation of new material that a further volume has become a necessity. His colaborers are his pupils, Hirschfeld and Domaszewski.

From Herbert B. Turner & Co. of Boston comes a new series of standard classics represented at the outset by Swift's 'Tale of a Tub' and Stevenson's 'Virginibus Puerisque.' The volumes are of a size for the pocket, though a little heavy for that conveyance, are clearly printed in large type, and, if one may judge by the clever reproduction of an eighteenth-century ruled page which the 'Tale' presents, are to be individualized typographically. The Stevenson booklet, with its top-heavy headlines, shows the dangers that attend such experiments.

The "Century Classics" of the Century Company, with their all-round excellence of manufacture, proceed with Lamb's 'Essays of Elia' and Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey,' the latter eked out with Thackeray's damnatory character of Sterne, from the 'English Humorists,' by way of preface. Whether this is likely to prove an antidote or an appetizer for the Young Person, the student of human nature will decide. But this handsome series is not for youth especially.

Whatever one may think of Kenneth Grahame's 'Dream Days' as a book for children, there can be no question of the delightful quality of Mr. Maxfield Parrish's illustrations to the new edition elegantly brought out by John Lane. Imagination, grace, and humor are appropriately mixed in them, and the draughtsman's hand is always firm. Whatever he borrows he makes his own. The unindexed tailpieces, as well as the full-page designs, will not escape notice and commendation. The cover is hardly up to the general level.

Two papers, ascribed with certainty to Thackeray, in *Fraser's Magazine* (1837-39), viz., "A Word on the Annuals" and "Our Annual Execution," have been tastefully reprinted in Philadelphia by H. W. Fisher & Co., under the title of the second paper, which contains the original form of Thackeray's ballads "The Knightly Guerdon" and "The Almacks' Adieu." It also includes, as a favorable selection from the Annual under review, Monckton Milnes's "I wandered by the brookside." The reprint is verbatim from *Fraser;* and the edition is limited.

Mr. J. P. Mowbray's 'A Journey to Nature,' having given pleasure to the readers of the *Evening Post*, passed naturally, with some revision and addition, into book form, and now reappears with illustrations by Henry Troth (Doubleday, Page & Co.). These are of two sorts, pen-drawn vignettes and full-page photographic views, each to be praised in their way. In his chapter on Indian Summer, Mr. Mowbray recognizes only the "laggard days in November . . . left behind in the autumnal procession." Either we have already had our "spell," beginning in October and overlapping the third week in November, or the sufferers from the coal famine have yet a respite in store for them.

Canon Rawnsley has well earned his reputation as the most diligent and devout exponent of the cult of the English Lakes and the Lake School. 'A Rambler's Notebook at the English Lakes' (Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons), is the fifth volume of his impressions of Lake scenery and the life of the dalesmen from the point of view of one for whom every path that Wordsworth may have trodden is hallowed, every stone on which Southey may have sat an object of admiring awe. For a somewhat limited circle of readers, the remotest connections, the most trivial reminiscences of the "Lakers" possess an interest which to outsiders appears almost miraculously inexhaustible; and to the mere Philistine, positively morbid. There are those, fit though few, who will read, in the proper spirit, of the habits and last years of Wordsworth's "cousin once removed," and of the Canon's pilgrimage, each year piously renewed, to the "jocund company" of the Duddon daffodils. We confess to a preference for the essay on otter-hunting or the description of the November glories of Derwentwater. Canon Rawnsley has a pretty gift for describing the various phases of outdoor life in the north country; it is the more to be regretted that his enthusiasm too often borders on the mawkish; too often illustrates the fact that, to a certain form of Wordsworthian "pietas," it is impossible to walk safely within the narrow limits of the sublime. The Essay on the "Diamond Jubilee Bonfires" is a collection of patriotic statistics that is hardly worthy of republication in a permanent form. The volume is adorned with reproductions from photographs of the Lake district, and has the usual accompaniment of the author's original verse.

Mr. W. S. Crockett's 'Scott Country' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) is a rambling book, full of borderside lore thrown into simple form. Those to whom it is a delight in itself to linger over the names of Eildon, Yarrow, Traquair, Teviot, for whom not only Scott but Hogg and Leyden have charms as binding as those in the book of Sir Michael and as straight from faerie as the rhymes of True Thomas—they will turn these pages and pass back for a while among the border hills, under the gray sky, by the dark streams. To all such the book can be commended. To others it will be a thing of naught. Mr. Crockett's literary powers are trifling; his naïveté is astonishing. Yet his love of the border goes far to save him. The best in his book is its mist of memory, its wealth of illustrations, often very good, and the numberless ballad notes, of which it is full.

The only link in 'The Holy Land, Painted by John Fullylove, Described by John Kelman' (Macmillan), between the illustrations and the text is that both are impressionistic, full of color, and lacking in detail. Otherwise, they appear to have no relation of origin or plan. Mr. Fullylove's water colors have been most skilfully reproduced. They undoubtedly render the land with accuracy, but are lacking in artistic charm. There is little feeling for distance, but some bits of water are very prettily caught, and the more architectural scenes have often a gorgeous reality. Mr. Kelman, on his side, is a close follower of Prof. George Adam Smith. He has not Dr. Smith's luminous power of interpreting geography, but he has picturesqueness and vocabulary, and can turn ideas into sharp-cut concrete facts, or what may pass for such. Fortunately for his method, his first rapture of observation was not deadened by too greatly widened experience; we have impressions here, and not studies. These are always vigorous, and may sometimes be correct; but the six months' tourist who ventures a hundred pages on "The Spirit of Syria" has more even than the courage of his kind, and must be read with caution. Yet—or perhaps therefore—the book is most readable, and fairly fits its illustrations.

Prof. William MacDonald, now of Brown University, but recently of Bowdoin College, treats of 'The Government of Maine' in Macmillan's series of Handbooks of American Government. This series is intended for the use of students in high schools and academies, but we doubt if they can profitably spend their time in acquiring information which is, except to specialists, of the driest character. The work before us certainly gives a clear and accurate account of the governmental machinery of the State, and to a considerable extent summarizes its laws; but the severe compression which is unavoidable with such an abundance of material is not favorable to literary effect. As a political organization, Maine is of interest to the rest of the world chiefly because of its liquor law; but, for obvious reasons, no frank discussion of this subject is here prudent, and it is dismissed with a few lines. Our strictures, however, must be taken as applying to the plan of the series, and not to the manner in which the author has performed his task, which is altogether praiseworthy.

Dr. George Willis Botsford, formerly of Harvard, but now connected with Columbia University, has issued an 'Ancient History for Beginners' (Macmillan), intended to comply with recent action of the American Historical Association, encouraging the schools to give a year to ancient history, "with special reference to Greek and Roman history, but including also a short introductory study of the more ancient nations." This volume follows Dr. Botsford's other books in its bright, readable presentation, and in its copious use of maps and illustrations. Brightness of statement occasionally shows signs of degeneration, and the illustrations sometimes sustain no relation to the contiguous text. The introductory portion, devoted to the Orient, is too brief (forty pages) to be of much value, but it could hardly be otherwise in a book predetermined to treat Greece and Rome in detail, down to the time of Charlemagne, and occupy but one year with classes of beginners. The 400 pages given to Greece and Rome suffer in many ways from the same hard-and-fast conditions. The various lines of development over so long a period cannot be kept fairly in hand and compressed into so few pages without a rigid exclusion of detail, unless it be of the very highest importance. But in the details which would thus be excluded are naturally to be found just the things best adapted to hold the attention of boys and girls in beginners' classes. Dr. Botsford has not solved the insoluble problem thus presented. Pericles, Demosthenes, Alexander, Scipio, Sulla, Cicero, Tiberius, Trajan, and the rest crowd one another across the stage so rapidly that the mind neither gets an adequate impression of their character as men, nor a coherent view of their respective significance in the development of human history.

The sixteenth volume of Mr. Slater's 'Book-Prices Current' (London: Elliot Stock) makes its pick from auction sales in 1901-'02 of 51,000 lots, aggregating £163,207 in amount realized (much the largest in ten years, though the average falls below last year's). The steady increase in the proportion of miscellaneous works is noted by the editor, along with the demand for books having colored plates. As usual, apart from the Bible, the Shakspere competition leads all others. More of Shelley's works are recorded than of Byron's or Tennyson's; Browning, in spite of Browning Societies, hardly cuts a figure. 'Romola' alone represents George Eliot, and brought £19, partly, if not wholly, because of the author's inscription. Dickens slightly outstripped Thackeray, and both ranged substantially with Scott. Boccaccio was more to the fore than Dante; of Petrarch only six copies, all told, were put up. Vol-

taire overshadowed Rousseau. William Morris's admirers for his own sake showed up well. His Kelmscott Press publications under the hammer numbered nine; those of the Vale Press, four.

The excellent little 'American Jewish Year-Book' is now so regular a publication that it calls only for mere mention. Its interest lies in its chronicle of the year, of the Rumanian question and anti-Semitism generally; of Jewish societies, charitable and otherwise, including the Baron de Hirsch fund; and of the Zionist movement. In all, there is much sociological material. As usual, the book is weighted with the report of the Jewish Publication Society, and its seventy-odd pages of members' names.

The last volume of Dr. Rodkinson's translation of the Babylonian Talmud, giving the tract 'Sanhedrin,' is even liker than its predecessors, in respect to its fine mixed feeding, to the proverbial sheepshead. From lawyers to sociologists and folklorists, even to the pursuers of the jests of the market-place, all will find their quarry here. There have been, for example, accusations against the builders of detective stories that their labors went to give suggestions to criminals. But here we read how Rabbi Jose lectured once on Job xxiv. 16, and treated the subject so luminously that next night there were three hundred burglaries in the town, all according to his method. Naturally, "the town-men troubled him." He replied; "How could I know that all of you were thieves?"—which is a fairly valid criticism on many theories of the prevention and propagation of crime. In a short preface, Dr. Rodkinson, if we understand him rightly, indicates his adhesion to a most extraordinary theory of the origin of the Sanhedrin, pushing it back to Moses, and even to Noah. This cannot but suggest a doubt as to the scholarship of his translation, which is evidently a free one. It would be well, too, if he could secure some revision of his English style. There are *anacoloutha* and some curious verbal usages. A translation like this is worth sub-editing.

The compiler of the Century Company's 'Bible for Children,' Mrs. Joseph Gilder, is to be heartily congratulated on the taste, courage, and discretion which she has showed. The Authorized Version has been used, and there has been no finical cutting except of absolutely impossible passages, and no additions or changes. The result is wonderfully readable and infinitely better than the "Bible Stories" of our childhood. Children with these cadences in their ears will surely—not to speak of graver matters—hold fast their heritage of pure English. But it is a blunder with ethical elements in it that on the title-page there is no mention of the compiler. Instead are given the names of Dr. Francis Brown of Union Seminary and Bishop Potter, the one of whom is responsible for four pages of preface and the other for two of introduction. These, unfortunately, are addressed to the parent and not to the child, and, if they come to be read by a child of even ordinary intelligence, may do much mischief. He cannot be helped by learning that we think it well for his advantage to cut some things from the Bible. Nor will the clumsy apology appease him that "care for childhood prompts this, and not blame for the Bible." Still worse is it for him to learn that "many are indifferent to the Bible." All this explaining, apologizing, and protesting may be excellent in its place, but that place was not here, in a book to go into a child's hands. Its place, at the most, would have been on a few leaves, separate and removable, or on one of those slips, suggestive to the indolent reviewer, which prudent publishers now send out in their books. Added are twenty-four illustrations, all from great paintings, but not all from "the old masters," as stands on the same unhappy title-page. There is a schoolgirl in anecdote who assures a friend that she has an uncle in Rome, "one of the old masters." It is only less startling to find Rubens, Murillo, Rembrandt, Van Dyck, and Sir Joshua Reynolds figuring under that rubric. But the part of the book which is good is very good; the compiler has done her task well.

Johns Hopkins University preserves the record of its anniversary celebration (the twenty-fifth) in a neat volume printed at the University Press, Baltimore, Md. This book contains the addresses in full, a list of delegates from other institutions, a register of alumni attending the celebration, and an account of the presentation of a jubilee volume to Prof. Gildersleeve by his former students; in all, a record which all Hopkinsians and others who attended the ceremonies of last February will wish to possess.

The proceedings at the celebration of the two-hundredth anniversary of the founding of Yale College, a year ago, are recorded in a sumptuous volume now published by the University. The number of functions crowded into four memorable days has made it difficult to do them all justice within reasonable compass, and there is little attempt to describe the spectacular effects that constituted so marked a feature of the occasion. Much space is necessarily given to programmes and lists which are of course unreadable, and of some of the longer addresses only abstracts are given. Professor Fisher's admirable account of the relation of Yale College to theology and missions, however, well deserved to be republished without abbreviation, and it occupies fifty of the 600 pages of the record. The book seems to be in all respects a fit memorial of a celebration which may well be called glorious.

The Bibliographical Contributions of the Library of Harvard University have just been resumed, after a pause of four years. No. 54 fitly consists of a bibliography of Justin Winsor, by William F. Yust. Mr. W. C. Lane, Mr. Winsor's successor, calls attention to the remarkable chronological exhibit thus made of Mr. Winsor's insatiable and varied activity. On pp. 29, 30, Mr. Winsor's contributions to the *Nation* 1880-1896, are listed by themselves. A blank book labelled "Poems of Art and Nature," original and translated, was found among his effects, arranged as if for publication.

German topics, including regulations for insurance companies, the Slaby-Arco system of wireless telegraphy, and economic conditions occupy the principal place in the Consular Reports for November. Other subjects treated are the American plough and the Russian farmer, and the Lyons congress for protection against hail. The testimony as to the efficiency of the "grelifuge cannon" was conflicting, but it was unanimously voted "to continue the war against hail, on condition that it should be done systematically." The Department of the Rhone "claims to have established the first cloud-firing post. It now has 834 cannon, covering 45,000 acres of vineyards." Our Consul-General at Yokohama reports an increase of the foreign trade of Japan, but a decrease in value of more than 31 per cent. of goods purchased from this country. The falling off has been chiefly in materials for bridges and buildings, telephones and wire.

The Quarterly Statement for October of the Palestine Exploration Fund is largely given up to Mr. Macalister's report of the excavations at Gezer. The principal results have been "the discovery of sections of a great city wall, of a most important burial-cave, the examination of which has thrown much light on the physical characteristics, funerary customs, and pottery of some of the earliest races of Palestine; of a small *temenos* or high place, containing a stone circle; and of a considerable variety of objects belonging to the later stone age and the bronze age of culture." Some of these antiquities are similar to those found in corresponding strata at Tell el-Hesy, but not in other tells. This suggests the possibility of a close racial connection between the two places, a supposition which is strengthened by the fact that, when Joshua besieged Lachish, "Horam, king of Gezer, came up to help Lachish" (Josh. x. 33). The report is very fully illustrated. Gen. Sir C. W. Wilson discusses the question as to the authenticity of the traditional sites of Golgotha and the Holy Sepulchre.

The German Orientgesellschaft, with headquarters in Berlin, is enlarging its field of operations, and has begun researches in Egypt. Hitherto the diggings have been confined to Babylon, where Dr. Koldewey has made splendid progress; although the number of inscriptions found has been few, other archæological matter has been unearthed in satisfactory amounts. The Gesellschaft, as is openly stated, has far-reaching schemes, the purpose being to establish in Berlin collections of materials for the study of Orientalia that will, if not rival that of the British Museum, yet to a certain degree make it unnecessary for German and other savants from the Continent to go to London for their materials. Complaints have been repeatedly made that the authorities of the British Museum do not welcome scholars from abroad, as was the case in former years. The German society, under the direction of Professor Delitzsch, who has been in the Orient for some five months, has begun its Egyptian work near Cairo, with rich results. Dr. Ludwig Bornhardt is in charge of these researches, and has already published a preliminary account of the undertaking.

The famous Barberini library, containing more than 60,000 volumes, has been purchased by the Vatican authorities. The Italian Government learned of the sale too late to make an offer, and could only satisfy itself that the law for the protection of works of art had not been violated in the transaction, as the sale included only books and manuscripts, but not the picture gallery or statues, or even the family archives. Leo XIII. has expressed his purpose to erect a special building for the reception of these new treasures, and proposes to give scholars free access to the collection.

From Lemcke & Buechner we receive the first calendars for 1903, viz., the seventh

"Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender" and the "Münchener Kalender," the latter with its customary series of colored arms of German princes and counts, begun in 1895. Meyer, with its illustrations, leaf by leaf, covers the whole globe impartially. Its anniversary department has been enlarged, and a planetary table is now given for the first of each month.

—A new edition of William Ellery Channing's 'Thoreau, the Poet-Naturalist' (Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed) will be welcome to all lovers of Thoreau except those who delight in having what others cannot buy. The first edition was exhausted some time since, though it sold at first very slowly. Thoreau's growing reputation came to the assistance of the book's inherent quality, which did not tend to popular appreciation. It is no enemy, but Mr. Sanborn, who describes it as obscure and enigmatical, and, though rich in recondite learning, without much method, or with a method of its own baffling to most people. Mr. Sanborn, in his introduction to the new edition, tells us with what perversity the first was made. As early as 1853, Channing planned a series of imaginary conversations, in which Thoreau, Emerson, and Alcott, with himself, were to be the interlocutors. Much work was done upon this line, but none of it utilized until 1863, when a part of Channing's 'Thoreau' was sent to Mr. Sanborn, then editing the Boston *Commonwealth*, for publication in that paper. A break in the publication excited Channing's ire, and he recalled the unprinted portion of his manuscript. When 'Thoreau, the Poet-Naturalist' appeared in 1873 it was very different from the papers of ten years before. Its main peculiarity was the introduction of sixty-seven pages, taken from the projected 'Walks' of 1853, in response to the publisher's desire for matter to enlarge the book. One remembers that, similarly, Goethe added to 'Wilhelm Meister' "The Confessions of a Fair Saint," and, here as there, the addition is extremely good. But it is made up of conversations the participants in which were at first left to the reader's guesswork. In the new edition Mr. Sanborn has prefixed, or affixed, their names in most cases, eking out Channing's manuscript hints with his own judgment. As it now stands, no part of the book is more interesting and important than this. But every part of it is treasure-trove for those who care much for Thoreau and his Concord friends. Mr. Channing's self-revelation is not the least valuable part of it. His thought and style are often wilfully eccentric and obscure, but there is more than enough of excellent matter, original and quoted, to condone every fault. Nothing else written about Thoreau comes so close to his life and mind as this delightful and exasperating incoherency. Mr. Goodspeed maintains his reputation for beautiful bookmaking, both in this simple and inexpensive and in the larger and more costly style in which the book is published.

—The 'History of the English Church,' which is being edited by Dr. Stephens, the Dean of Winchester, will eventually comprise seven volumes. Of these, four have already appeared, if we include the instalment just published by Mr. James Gairdner (Macmillan). Indeed, we have before us, as yet unnoticed, the last two volumes of this learned and important series. The Rev. W. W. Capes, in the third volume, covers the whole of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, while Mr. Gairdner, in the fourth, continues the narrative through the Reformation period as far as the reign of Mary. In glancing over Canon Capes's table of contents we observe that Wyclif is the only religious leader who receives a chapter to himself. Archbishop Peckham, and Archbishop Winchelsey are also mentioned in separate titles, but we must count them among ecclesiastics rather than among guides of the nation in matters of personal religion. Courtenay does not give his name to a chapter, nor does Wykeham. We may resume by stating that Canon Capes finds much more to say about general subjects like "The Mediæval Bishop and his Officials," "The Cathedral Chapters and their Staffs," "The Clergy and Parish Life," "The Monastic Life," "Friars and Pilgrims," "Schools and Universities," than he does about distinguished individuals—if we except Wyclif. In one respect which we may name, this volume is particularly successful. Canon Capes's predecessors have tended to give Lollardy such prominence as to dwarf everything else in the church history of England during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. That this is the most prominent and important subject, if one only be selected, we should be the last to deny. Still, there is a large literature already upon Wyclif and his movement, while the state of the church for fifty years before and seventy-five years after has been unduly neglected by students trained in modern methods of research. Canon Capes's little books on 'The Early Empire' and 'The Age of the Antonines' are so good that his attempt in another and far different field is sure to awaken interest. Certainly no one will feel a sense of disappointment in reading the present sketch. It is strong and graphic, learned and thoughtful. The narrative part is good, not to say unexceptionable in a book of this scope, but the performance reaches an unusually high quality when chronicle is left behind and the discussion of broad ecclesiastical topics begins. As filling a gap in accessible literature, we should think that no volume of the series is likely to prove so useful.

—To Mr. James Gairdner has fallen the difficult and delicate task of writing that part of this consecutive history which deals with the revolt from Rome. Not only is it a great labor to master the available sources of information, but time has not yet adjusted the point of view. A good example of the obstacles which have to be surmounted is furnished by Mr. Gairdner's preliminary remarks on the word "heresy." Now that the Christian world is divided into so many bodies, "heresy" and "schism" have almost lost their meaning. In the age of the Reformation, on the contrary, "the unity of the Church was not only the generally received doctrine, but was also a doctrine which the state felt bound to uphold. The rulers of the state might seek to put the Church under new conditions; they might even seek to discredit some old doctrines. Both these things they did attempt; and, whatever we may think of their conduct, they succeeded largely in their aims. But this did not affect the old belief, held even by reformers, in one true Catholic and Apostolic Church." The test case is that afforded by the period which Mr. Gairdner terms "the Edwardine anarchy"; but even at this time of radical innovation the leaders of revolt were seeking to find "the essential principles of the one true Church." "Heresy," and herein lies an initial difficulty, must throughout be used in a sense which is unlike its ordinary sense. Mr. Gairdner, when he speaks of heresy, does not refer in any way to the truth or falsehood of particular doctrines. He alludes simply to "an arrogant and pertinacious denial of doctrines laid down by authority; and where no competent authority had as yet declared old beliefs superstitious, it was really heresy to dispute them." Thus we encounter a difficulty on the threshold—a difficulty of phrase which is grave enough to demand a whole preface for its explanation. The disputed points involved in any history of the English Reformation are so numerous that they could barely be touched on in a long article. Here we shall only commend Mr. Gairdner's book as a model of learning and fairness, unless, perhaps, we quote one contention which is made on the concluding page. "In the Thirty-nine Articles and in the English Prayer-book itself, the final results of the Reformation were embodied, so far as doctrine and devotion were concerned; and it would be difficult to overestimate their value. No formularies were ever drawn that give so much liberty to the human mind. Truth had been well tested by martyrdoms on either side before they were finally adopted; and while they repudiated the exclusiveness of Rome, they raised no barrier to the freest thinking consistent with belief in revelation. They constitute a more real catholicism than that of the Council of Trent." Such a statement must, naturally, have an ex-parte sound; but Mr. Gairdner cannot for a moment be accused of writing his history to support this view.

—Dr. Alexander Schmidt's 'Shakespeare Lexicon' (Berlin: G. Reimer; New York: G. E. Stechert; Lemcke & Buechner) needs no introduction either to scholars or to the public at large. It has often been characterized as the most useful work ever composed in elucidation of Shakspere, and this description can hardly be rated as unduly enthusiastic. The plan of the book and its execution are alike admirable, and no one is likely to echo the ungenerous words that a distinguished Shaksperean had the misfortune to utter when it first appeared, some thirty years ago. The question is not whether "Schmidt is an *authority*": Schmidt is *indispensable*, and never ought to get out of print. Nor should the text of the lexicon be altered. What is wanted is an occasional reimpression, and additions or corrections should be confined to an appendix. Fortunately, the publisher is wise, and, the book being stereotyped, his interests coincide with his judgment. The third edition, now before us, is practically unchanged, so far as the body of the book is concerned. The sensible remark of the author, in the preface to the second edition, appeals to every purchaser's heart: "Nobody is so rich as not to repine at being obliged to buy the same book three or four times." The present edition, however, has a valuable supplement of about thirty pages, prepared by Professor Sarrazin, well known for his studies in the literary history of "Hamlet." This consists of "new renderings and interpretations," selected, for the most part,

from English commentators, who, Dr. Sarrazin thinks, are the "most legitimate" interpreters. We note, with amusement, that he makes a sharp distinction between Englishmen and Americans, associating the latter, presumably as aliens, with "Dutch and German scholars." But no harm is done and our feelings are not hurt. By the doctor's leave, we shall still do our best to speak and read our mother tongue, which Alexander Schmidt understood so well—rather better, we see, than his editor, who speaks of "commentators *of* the great poet" where the idiom requires *on*.

## VILLARI'S ITALIAN LIFE.

*Italian Life in Town and Country.* By Luigi Villari. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

When we consider how entirely distinct in most characteristics the provinces forming United Italy are, we must agree with our author that it is no easy task to give a just idea of Italian social life in a short volume. The broad demarcations of north and south, with the strongly marked individuality of their different populations, cannot escape the notice of the most casual observer; but not only the provinces differ essentially in character, thought, manners and customs, cookery, etc.; each important city seems to have retained its own particularities which in the past gave a stamp to the architecture, painting, and sculpture of each place.

In the north the people are industrious, active, full of business enterprise and capacity; they take the lead in politics and in social questions, and consider themselves vastly superior to their southern compatriots, for whom they do not trouble to hide their contempt. The population of the *Alta Italia* provinces consider themselves wronged in having to pay high taxes in order to support the Meridionali in idleness, while the latter are equally dissatisfied, complaining that the Government has always been more favorable to the north, promoting its industries with protectionist tariffs, making more railways and instituting more schools than for them. Moreover, in spite of the depressing conditions of its agriculture, the south, taxed just as heavily, has never received any aid from Government, besides having to endure the most incompetent officials, who seem to be reserved for important Government posts in the south. Before the Union, the debt of the Meridionali was very light, while now they share the public debt equally, notwithstanding the great sacrifices they made and the important part they played in the work of unity. Yet even in the south there is visible improvement. Bari and Naples are becoming important centres of commerce. The great reproach the Meridionali have to bear is on account of their terrible criminal record, and the institutions of the Mafia, the Camorra, and brigandage; the last still surviving in Sicily, as in Calabria and Le Puglie, where occasional cases transpire, though it is no longer an organized power in the province of Naples as of old.

Besides these differences of character, our author cites instances of local rivalries of cities, having their sources in historical feuds; for example, Siena, where to this day Florentines are treated with scant hospitality on account of the battle of Montaperti, in 1260, when the Sienese defeated the Florentines, and became for a while the ruling power in Tuscany. The Sienese attribute all their present difficulties to the jealousy and enmity of the Florentines. They even consider the inefficient train service between the two cities as a result of Florentine bad feeling; on the other hand, they decline to organize any more convenient trains, as it might bring more Florentines to their city to damage their own commercial prospects by rivalry. This provincial exclusiveness is called the "spirito di campanile," and prevails in such towns as Pisa, Arezzo, Volterra, Montepulciano and San Gemignano, while at Rome the pride of Roman citizenship extends from its princes, who hold themselves superior to reigning families, to the beggar, who is superbly contemptuous in his acceptance of small favors.

Our author, writing on the aristocracy, considers that "good society" translates what is meant by *aristocrazia*, for bankers, merchants, manufacturers come under this denomination. Plutocracy has great influence here as everywhere. Titles are very common, there being no law of primogeniture in Italy, besides which they are frequently adopted by those who have no right to them. On the other hand, there are many of the most ancient and noble families in Venice and Lombardy descended from burghers of the free cities, "optimates," who are called *nobili* or *patrizii* without bearing any title. In the early days of Italian unity the Piedmontese nobles had much influence in the government of the new state; they were the King's immediate advisers, and are said to have promoted the common good as far as it was in their power. Their special importance ceased when Turin was no longer the seat of government, though some of them still take part in politics. They are as a class intelligent, cultured, and interested in commerce and general progress. The Lombard nobles, both for their immense wealth and for their active participation in commerce and industry, take the most prominent position among the upper classes. They travel much, and entertain with munificence at their splendid villas about the lakes, in the Brianza or on the plains. It is to their initiative that the Lombard towns owe their prosperity. The Tuscan nobility have the quality of being good landlords; they live on their estate part of the year, on friendly terms with their peasants, although their headquarters are at their ancestral palace in the town to which they belong, and where, as the one relic of their commercial origin, one often sees a little shop door in some out-of-the-way corner with Canova di Vino over it, in which wine and oil are sold at retail. Tuscan nobles are considered intelligent and shrewd, but extremely conservative and narrow-minded, and rather mean. Their innate courtesy and fear of interfering with the prejudices of their neighbors make them very inefficient in politics, and their economical instincts prevent them from being hospitable, even when they are quite wealthy. The métayer system of land culture brings about a feeling of part proprietorship with the peasant, and fosters that healthy republican feeling so noticeable in Tuscany. The aristocrats of the south are mostly absentees from their estates, exercising feudal rights in defiance of the law, and exacting money returns from their lands, which are managed by extortionate bailiffs. They care only to make a show in Naples or Palermo or Rome, with fine carriages, smart clothes, and other luxuries. When in their old fortified castles in Calabria or Sicily, they live like feudal barons, and ride about with armed retainers, who are devoted to them, although the peasants on their estates, suffering as they do from their callous indifference to their welfare, regard them often with sullen hatred.

Titles are often acquired, either by giving large sums to charities, or by purchasing a landed estate to which one is attached; sometimes they are given as a reward for public services either in the army or in politics. Another very striking manner described by our author is by adoption, as follows:

"There are a great many titled people, especially in the south, who have gone down in the world and who exercise the humblest professions to earn their bread. The aspirant to nobility—a wealthy contractor, or a fortunate speculator in stocks—discovers one of these *nobili decaduti* and persuades him for a consideration to adopt him as his son. At the death of the chimney-sweeping prince or the cabman earl, the parvenu adopted son inherits the title, and plain Signor Donatini blossoms forth into the Principe di Torre San Gennaro, with coat of arms, coronet, family portraits, and liveries all complete. His position, however, is not altogether an enviable one, as he is much laughed at by all who know the story, and everybody does get to know it."

The dislike for work is the bane of the upper classes. The prejudice that a gentleman should occupy himself with landed property only is gradually giving place to more enlightened ideas, but young aristocrats brought up in priestly colleges are not fit for anything but the usual life of the butterflies of fashion, so similar in every country. There are in Italy many young, healthy men who prefer to spend their time in cafés, the theatres, and sauntering about the streets on a meagre income to turning their attention to any useful work. Mr. Villari considers that even among the laboring classes work is looked upon as a painful necessity, and that, were it possible, most people would lead an idle life.

The factors of the great differences of character among Italians of different provinces are shown to be the climate and the government to which each province has been subjected for centuries. For instance, Austrian rule in Lombardy, so oppressive in political matters, seems to have been beneficent in developing a business capacity and public spirit, and fostering an appreciation of honest civil administration. The language also varies immensely in its dialects, so that even Italians sometimes seem to be talking an unknown language when they use their special dialect before a compatriot of a far-off province. In the south there are remains of Albanian and Greek colonies, and in Sicily and Sardinia the race partly derives from the Arab, but the population of the mainland has been composed for centuries of different groups of the same race. Notwithstanding all these diversities and discordant elements, a unanimous feeling pervades all Italy of the great importance of the union of the kingdom. As a signal proof that there never has been any political party based on regional particularism of any significance, Mr. Villari recalls the proposal of some Milanese Radicals and Socialists to create a separate state with Milan for capital. This plan was so unpopular that they withdrew it of their own accord. On the formation of a Cabinet by a new minister the first consideration

seems not the fitness of each member for his post, but that ministerial honors should be equally distributed among Lombards, Tuscans, Romans, Piedmontese, and Sicilians. The same sense of fairness to all regulates the creation of new Senators and the conferring of honors. Conscription has done much to encourage a sense of brotherhood from the necessity of speaking Italian instead of the special dialects. The military authorities make it a rule also to have men of all the different provinces serve together, and they learn thus by hearsay of the condition of the whole country.

We believe Mr. Villari to be mistaken when he says there is no feeling in Italy against the Jews; we should say that there is a strong prejudice against them. Even the wealthiest are often at great disadvantage in society, but they are tolerated on account of large donations of money, or public services of some kind. Foreigners are not generally admitted to Italian society unless they are especially introduced to some leading members. So many of the noble families have married American and English women that the exclusiveness of former times is gradually disappearing.

The love of outward show is a striking feature in Italian life. Great sacrifices of personal comfort are made for the sake of appearances, especially in the south. Our author says:

"In Naples and Palermo, life is not considered worth living without a carriage. The following anecdote illustrates this feeling: An American gentleman who was spending the winter in Naples, had taken a flat in a palazzo, the first floor of which was occupied by a noble family in somewhat reduced circumstances. He noticed to his surprise that every day he met a servant going up or down the stairs carrying a pair of carriage doors. At last the mystery was explained. The said noble family shared a carriage with some other people, but each had its own doors with the family coat of arms to make their friends believe they both had carriages!"

This love of display is especially noticeable in dress. The women of all classes wear very smart clothes out of doors, love brilliant colors, and spend much money and thought on fine apparel, but we do not agree with our author that Italian ladies wear their jewels in the daytime more than the English—on the contrary, it is only at important evening receptions or state functions that foreigners have an opportunity of seeing Italian ladies wearing their splendid jewels, the heirlooms of their families. In England, at the present moment, the display of ornaments and rare gems begins at breakfast.

Great frankness is a striking characteristic of this instructive little book. The author writes of what he knows from his own experience; he has observed much, and recognized many of the deficient sides of the Italian character—the general slackness, the want of moral conscience, the absence of any high ideal, shown in a general desire to shirk difficulties, from the schoolboy at his examination who resorts to cribs, to the politician who makes use of the Mafia for his election. The subject of public education, so important to a young nation, has much occupied the Italian Government, which expends vast sums on the national schools and universities. In his chapter on this subject, Mr. Villari has had his father's (Prof. Pasquale Villari) valuable writings and researches to consult, so that what he says bears the stamp of unquestionable authority. He points out that the great mistake has been to apply the same order of schools throughout a country where the degree of civilization is so unequal, and where, for practical purposes, different schemes of education are necessary. There are five standards of elementary education, of which three are compulsory, unless parents undertake to have their children taught at home. The number of illiterates still existing throughout the country proves that the law is not sufficiently enforced; conscripts, when they begin their military service, are often unable to read and write, and have to learn during their term. Religious instruction is optional, but is generally demanded; there is no feeling against it in Italy as there is in France. The poverty of elementary schools is very great; they are held often in unsanitary buildings, and possess few maps or specimens for object-lessons, and yet they cost the communes $15,000,000, of which the Government grants $325,000. The teachers, who are trained for their work in special colleges, are badly paid. The average salary for a man is from $140 to $265 per annum; a woman receives from $110 to $210 at most.

The secondary schools are divided into classical or technical; the fees are from $20 to $30 a term, from which the very poorest people are exempted. The classical schools are divided into *ginnasii* and *licei*. The age for the former is from ten to fifteen; the *liceo* demands three further years of study. The teaching is all on set lines, leaving no liberty of initiative either to master or to pupil. Latin is more thoroughly taught than Greek, of which it is rare that anything remains after school time. Modern languages are neglected. Italian literature, history, geography, mathematics, the elements of natural science, and philosophy, are the subjects taken up. The course at the technical schools is also of seven years; the subjects are modern languages, arithmetic, bookkeeping, algebra and geometry, drawing, history, and geography. There are, besides, special schools of decorative design and modelling. We are told that the agricultural, mining, and forest schools have failed completely, as also the sulphur-mining school at Palermo.

There are no games or sports in common at any of the public schools; the boys are very insufficiently trained in gymnastics, of which there are classes twice weekly, but from which they are easily excused on very futile pleas. We have known parents to get a medical certificate so that their boys should not run the risk of catching cold after getting heated by the prescribed exercise. Friendships are not made at school; the boys of good family keep strictly aloof from those of inferior social rank. There is no community of interest among them, so that school life loses much of the purpose it has in England and America, where recreation is part of the scholastic plan. Strolling through the streets after school hours and frequenting the cafés, or a formal walk, are often the sole resources of an Italian boy by way of recreation.

There are as many as twenty-one universities in Italy besides the College of Superior Studies in Florence and the Milan Academy. This is in excess of the requirements of the country, but, as most of them existed when there were separate independent states, the fear of offending local susceptibilities prevents any being suppressed. The university course, the same in all, costs in fees paid in separate instalments from $90 to $170. The result of this cheap higher education is not happy: it fills the liberal professions with men who cannot earn their living in them, and who consider themselves too superior to undertake more useful work. They drift into Government employment, where they have little to do, and, unless specially gifted, have to content themselves with a salary of about $240 or $300 a year. During the university course the young men generally live at home. There is no supervision of study, no enforced discipline; they are not even obliged to attend the lectures provided for them. If any professor is unpopular or severe in exacting their attendance at his lectures, the students have it all in their own hands to organize riots, and scarcely a year passes without some demonstration of this nature; and the students of other universities follow suit to show their solidarity. The only punishment for disorderly conduct is the closing of the University for a fortnight or so; this gives the students a holiday, and they have besides fewer lectures to read up for their examinations. The Minister of Public Instruction has the right to supervene and to suspend the ringleaders for a year, but any authoritative measures cause great discomfort to the Minister, who is tormented by petitions from the relatives of the offenders, or the local Deputy threatens to join the Opposition if he does not revoke the punishment; and if the Minister remains unmoved, at the next Cabinet crisis he is generally ousted. It is this interference of the Ministry of Public Instruction which is so disastrous to the efficiency of the professors, often distinguished men of European reputation, but who are utterly powerless to bring about any material improvement in the system of education. The studies are regulated at the Ministry, the scholastic programme is there decided upon, the teachers are under its control, and the examination papers are made up there. In the course of thirty-two years there have been no less than thirty-four different Ministers of Public Instruction, so that not one has ever had time to bring about any important reform, while changes in details of little value are constantly decreed and soon suppressed by the next man in power. It has often been declared that the post of Minister of Public Instruction should be permanent, not depending on party politics, in order to be in any way efficient. According to our author, this Ministry is overwhelmed with the care of trivial details. Even during his holiday in the country, the Minister is besieged with people requiring favors of him, while if passing through any provincial town, he is under the obligation of receiving the visits daily of the prefect, the Mayor, the head of the carabinieri, and the most important citizens, while if in a village, the local band plays every evening under his windows, unless as a change from this infliction he is serenaded by the children of the elementary schools.

Mr. Villari's chapters on Music, Literature, and Art are not in any way adequate. The illustrations, from instantaneous photographs, are very poor, and the style throughout is careless, continually falling

into slang expressions, which come rather as a shock to the reader when the subject treated of is serious. Notwithstanding these defects, the book will be useful to those who desire to know the life of the Italian people as seen through an Italian medium.

## FYFE'S SUBMARINE WARFARE.

*Submarine Warfare.* By Herbert C. Fyfe. With Introduction by Admiral Sir E. R. Fremantle, R. N., and Sir Edward J. Reed, M. P. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The problems of aerial and subaqueous navigation have keenly interested men ever since the days of Dædalus and Jonah, who still "hold the record." Although enthusiasts there be who look for achievements greater, both as to time and distance, than those of that spiritless and unhappy prophet, the son of Amittai, Mr. Fyfe, in his interesting book, seems to expect, at least for the present, only such gradual improvements in the mechanism of so-called submarine boats as will render their movements swifter, better controlled, and freer from the chance of internal disaster. That he subconsciously believes they will seriously affect, if not entirely revolutionize naval warfare, is evident on every page. Those who care to learn what has been done in the past to move below the surface of the sea against an enemy and there to blow him into eternity, or who wish to keep in touch with the experiments towards this same beneficent end which are going on the world over, will find in Mr. Fyfe's work pretty much all that is publicly available, and they may be led by the logic of the facts he adduces to share the tempered optimism of his views.

In his Part II., Mr. Fyfe gives an excellent résumé of the history of his subject, beginning with the divers of Tyre in Alexander's siege, who "swam off from the city under water to a great distance, and with long hooks tore to pieces the mole with which the besiegers were endeavoring to block up the harbor." It is a far cry from this episode to the days of Cornelius Drebbel, born in Holland in 1572, for whom the definite claim is first made of successful under-water travelling. The Dictionary of National Biography states that he invented a submarine boat "which was navigable, without the use of artificial light, from Westminster to Greenwich." This story was believed by the famous physicist Boyle, who refers to Drebbel in his 'Spring of the Air' (1662). We hear no more about the subject until the American Revolution, when, proper conditions being realized in offensive coast operations conducted against a determined people of exceptional mechanical ingenuity, submarine warfare according to our modern notions was invented and partially developed by David Bushnell, a native of Saybrook, Connecticut (not Maine, as Mr. Fyfe states), who built in 1775 "the first practical submarine boat, and the first of which any detailed account is extant." In it one Sergeant Ezra Lee, in 1776, made an attempt, which almost succeeded, to blow up the sixty-four-gun ship *Eagle*, while at anchor off Governor's Island. His mode of operation was to dive beneath the water and fix a torpedo to the ship's bottom by means of a screw. The torpedo contained one hundred and fifty pounds of gunpowder, to be exploded, after a certain lapse of time, by clockwork. Bushnell was shortly followed by another American, the celebrated Fulton, who, in 1801, in the harbor of Brest, descended in a plunging boat of his own devising to the depth of twenty-five feet, and there remained for an hour. "Satisfied with the performance of his boat," says Barnes in his 'Submarine Warfare' (New York, 1869), "he next made numerous experiments with his submarine bombs, to which he now gave the name of 'torpedoes,' and baptized the boat *Nautilus.*" As the French Government would neither adopt nor further his schemes, he went to London, and in May, 1804, laid them before the English Ministry. Pitt alone approved; the others scouted the idea, and thought, with Lord St. Vincent, that "Pitt was the greatest fool that ever existed, to encourage a mode of war which they who commanded the seas did not want, and which, if successful, would deprive them of it."

The subject slumbered during the long years of peace that followed the Napoleonic wars, and it awoke only during our own Rebellion, when, for the first time in history, a man-of-war was actually destroyed by a plunging boat; the United States steamer *Housatonic* being blown up in 1864 by a *"David,"* off Charleston Bar. The general unrest which characterized the closing decades of the last century proved exceptionally fertile in warlike inventions, and the submarine boat gained a development which has made it, as Mr. Fyfe says, "no longer an ingenious toy."

A successful plunging boat must possess ability to navigate on the surface for the approach; ability to descend for the attack to any given depth, at will; ability to maintain that depth within very close limits; ability to steer a straight course when either afloat or submerged; habitability for a reasonable length of time in either condition; ability to discharge a Whitehead torpedo without endangering stability or flotation; absolute certainty of returning to the surface when desired; sufficient speed, the more the better; ample range of action; freedom from breakdowns to machinery; freedom from internal accidents; ability to discover and to aim at the target.

We cannot do better than to refer to Mr. Fyfe's book the reader who desires to know how these requirements have been met in the various types of submarine boats which have come so prominently before the public in recent years. There seems to be little doubt that the *Holland* class, named after its American inventor, commands the most confidence, although even this is still open to great improvement, especially in the two last respects just enumerated. Without entering into detail, it may be briefly stated that the present *Holland* is shaped like a cigar, is about fifty-four feet long, and about ten feet in greatest diameter; is driven by a single screw operated by a gasoline engine at the surface, or by an electric motor and storage battery when submerged. The horizontal rudders which move her up or down are so satisfactory in their operation that the desired plane of submersion is maintained within a few inches. Should the engines stop, a small reserve of buoyancy, which may be increased if necessary, brings the boat to the top of the water. Compressed air carried in flasks keeps the atmosphere respirable.

The only serious accidents yet experienced in the *Holland* class are explosions attributed to the hydrogen gas given off by the storage battery. This source of danger can doubtless be eliminated or controlled, leaving the difficulty of seeing as the common and insuperable obstacle to the assured employment of the submarine of all types. Any swimmer knows how hard it is, when in the water, to see beyond a very short distance. Let him put himself inside a four-inch bronze turret, just awash, with narrow slits for peepholes, and then find his enemy on a dark night if he can. Practically, he will stay on the surface and scout for his quarry till discovered; but even then his horizon is greatly narrowed, for a man standing on a raft cannot see very far, especially in gloom or in thick weather. It is difficult to imagine a means by which this fundamental and physical inconvenience can be satisfactorily overcome. Again, the submarine has at present a speed of only seven or eight knots as against her enemy's possible sixteen to twenty. These two limitations indicate the tactical reply to the submarine (masking lights at night, keeping in motion at fair speed, and throwing out lines of picket boats), while they suggest, at the same time, that the best rôle of the submarine will probably be the defence of harbors, and, particularly, keeping a blockading fleet well off shore, and under the continual strain of ceaseless vigilance. "For the purposes of coast defence, the submarine may be said to have fairly established its value," says our author; "the knowledge that such craft were 'in being' would have a deterrent influence upon an admiral attacking a fort or contemplating a blockade, and in all probability the days of close blockade are over."

Further than this it would not be prudent to go with our author in his forecast. To use the submarine in offensive warfare she must be vastly improved in the way of habitability, for she cannot be carried about by larger vessels, as some overzealous partisans suggest. Time was when battleships so carried small torpedo boats for the mêlée of close action. This practice has disappeared with other plans for supplanting the gun, still the unchallenged arbiter of naval battles. That the submarine has its use no one can deny; doubtless its greatest value will be found in allaying public alarm, and permitting good citizens and timorous non-combatants to sleep in peace, secure in the knowledge that a submarine "defends" the port. We are not likely, in our day, to see the battle-ship relegated to a museum, and naval fights reduced to diving contests. Nor need the man behind the gun fear the loss of his prestige until shorn of it in the crucial experiment of actual war.

The conviction that the submarine, however successful, will, at most, have but a restricted field and a minor part in the great operations of future maritime conflicts, receives support from the Annual of the Office of Naval Intelligence, which records impartially the facts and not the theories of the world's naval progress. The current number devotes some three pages in all to submarine boats, out of sixty-five taken up with notes on ships and torpedo-boats in the 500 which comprise the work. Ordnance and armor, on the other hand, absorb no less than 112. The proportion or disproportion may not be significant, but,

at least, it excites comment. As to the French submarine craft, by far the most numerous contingent, the Annual calmly remarks: "While the published accounts always, or nearly always, give unstinted praise and pronounce the experiment a success, the fact remains that details are rarely given, and the success obtained is probably not so great as usually described in the press." It is, by the way, impossible to avoid the suspicion that the vogue of the submarine is to some extent due to its promise to set the poorer and weaker Powers on an equality with their richer and stronger rivals.

Mr. Fyfe's style is simple and pleasing, but the frequent repetitions of fact and opinion which mark his pages suggest that the work itself was made by the hasty collating of several distinct essays. The proof-reading is execrable, especially in the matter of dates; there is no index. The typography is excellent, but the paper is of that highly calendered variety dear to the cheap magazine and wearying to the eye. None the less, we must share Sir E. J. Reed's opinion that this "is a most timely and highly instructive work, and one which gives to the non-technical world an extremely good review of all that has been done in the way of submarine war-vessels, while the technical man into whose hands it may come will be compelled, by its great interest and by its clever record of facts, to read every page of it."

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*Asiatic Russia.* By George Frederick Wright. In two volumes. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

*The Real Siberia.* By John Foster Fraser. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

Works on Asiatic Russia are multiplying apace; in fact, the world, including the Russians themselves, is just awakening to the full importance of the subject. Then, too, the Trans-Siberian Railway, which is now open to any one, is so new that foreign passengers still feel a little like explorers whose duty it is to relate their discoveries to their fellowmen. The immense resources and possibilities of the huge regions hitherto so little known are attracting wider and wider attention. There is a demand for good books about them, for we have none too many, especially in English. Mr. Wright has put into his two bulky, though really rather short volumes, a mass of valuable facts, most of them not easily accessible to the average reader. He has given us an excellent succinct account of the geography, history, and general conditions of Asiatic Russia at the present time. Although as a geologist he devotes some little space to scientific topics that will not greatly interest most of his readers, history and politics are not neglected. His description of the exploration and conquest of Siberia is particularly good, and his tone throughout is moderate and sensible.

It is only when we come to the political reflections that we feel inclined to criticise. For some reason or other, very few writers about Russia seem to be able to steer a middle course between apology and denunciation. Mr. Wright is an apologist, which is better than the reverse, but this is the weakest side of his book. In his admiration of courage and success he frequently glosses over unscrupulousness; some of his statements are misleading, usually by their omissions, and occasionally he provokes a smile. For instance, in describing the "Occupation of Turkestan," he declares that, after the seizure of Merv, "without further bloodshed Russia at length, in 1883, reached her natural boundary," but he omits to mention that two years later the Russians, after killing or wounding in battle some 500 Afghans, extended the said boundary. Instead, he goes on to assure us that "the alarm of the English at the advance of Russia towards India in this direction has long since subsided, in view of the evident good faith with which the Russians are applying themselves to the development of the country and to the maintenance of peace upon the border."

This conclusion is rather steep. Still more so is the remark that the despotic power of the *mir*, or peasant community, to banish to Siberia its objectionable or burdensome members "is scarcely distinguishable in principle from the increasing exercise of 'local option' which is characteristic of so many American communities." It is also strange to find an American maintaining that "it augurs well for the Siberian part of Russia that it is not open to indiscriminate immigration, but that it has been reserved for the natural increase of the indigenous population and for Russian emigrants. In this way a unity can be preserved." And he supports this proposition by pointing out the decline in the birthrate in the United States since (or, as he seems to believe, because of) the large immigration of the last half-century. When speaking of the pastoral Khirghiz, whose situation is unquestionably becoming worse as time goes on, Mr. Wright, while admitting that, in the Government of Turgai between 1882 and 1896, "there has been a diminution of 355,000 horses, 60,000 cattle, 60,000 camels, and about 700,000 sheep," cheerfully adds: "But as the horses and camels, above a certain number, are nonproductive, their diminution is a sign of prosperity rather than the contrary." How about the cattle and the sheep? Finally, the statement that "in many respects Russia is the most tolerant of all governments," though it is often made by Russians themselves, shows an extraordinary delusion on their part, and is absurd in the mouth of an Anglo-Saxon.

There are a number of other dicta of this sort that we might criticise, but they do not seriously lessen the value of a work which can, after all, be recommended to the public as in the main really sound and full of useful information.

Mr. Fraser's 'The Real Siberia' is less ambitious. Starting out loaded with the usual English prejudice, as he freely admits, and innocent of any knowledge of the country he was to visit, the author journeyed to the Pacific and back. He has now written a book to enlighten those of his countrymen who remain in his previous state of ignorance. His volume has no pretensions to be anything more than a mere sketch of travel and observation, but it reads pleasantly, and its general tone is characterized by cheery common-sense. What Mr. Fraser gets at second hand is less trustworthy. His worst slip is the statement that "in Western Siberia a grant of some thirty-two English square miles is made to every man, and in some cases there is an additional grant of six miles of forests." If the writer had said acres in both cases instead of miles, he would have been not far from the truth.

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*One Thousand American Fungi:* How to Select and Cook the Edible; How to Distinguish and Avoid the Poisonous. By Charles McIlvaine, assisted by Robert K. Macadam. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company. 1902.

This substantial quarto of 704 pages is frankly written by an amateur for amateurs, and must be judged accordingly. It is not in any way intended to rival such monographs as those by Prof. W. G. Farlow of Harvard or by Prof. Charles H. Peck, the New York State Botanist. Of course, Mr. McIlvaine has borrowed freely from Professor Peck's reports on the Boletus, and other similar treatises, but he has attempted to present the matter in highly popular form.

As a book for amateurs Mr. McIlvaine's at once comes into competition with four others: 'Edible Toadstools and Mushrooms,' by the late W. Hamilton Gibson (Harper & Bros.); 'Among the Mushrooms,' by Ellen M. Dallas and Caroline A. Burgin (Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle); 'The Mushroom Book,' by Nina L. Marshall (Doubleday, Page & Co.); and 'Studies of American Fungi,' by Prof. George Francis Atkinson of Cornell (Ithaca: Andrus & Church). Of these Mr. Gibson's is unquestionably the most beautiful, but it is so scrappy and incomplete that it is of little value to the mushroom hunter. The exquisite illustrations have started more than one person afield, fired with mycologic zeal, but in a few days the enthusiast learns that Mr. Gibson did little more than get up a pretty picture-book. Then, too, the price places it beyond the reach of many. 'Among the Mushrooms' contains some good reproductions of photographs and some fair color prints, but otherwise it is nearly useless. The mushrooms are classified according to color rather than according to structure; an arrangement that can appeal only to the most superficial observer. 'The Mushroom Book,' like all the nature books published by Doubleday, Page & Co., is finely illustrated. The photographs give the most minute detail, and the color prints are extraordinarily vivid and accurate. Miss Marshall usually describes at least one variety under each genus, and of the commoner genera more than one. A considerable number of her descriptions, however, are too vague to serve as guides, and her book as a whole is exasperatingly incomplete. A man may in an afternoon in the woods find three or four of the Lactarius quite as interesting and important as the two which she mentions. Indeed, the Lactarius Deliciosus, the most valuable of the family for the table, she omits entirely; and so on throughout the work. Professor Atkinson's 'Studies,' which costs the same price as 'The Mushroom Book,' is indubitably superior in every respect but one, the number of colored plates. The 'Studies' contains but six, 'The Mushroom Book' twenty-four. The difference is almost made up by Professor Atkinson's many half-tone reproductions of perfect photographs. He describes many more varieties than Miss

Marshall, and his descriptions are in the main more detailed. Any one who has both books will find himself relying chiefly on Professor Atkinson's and supplementing it by an occasional reference to a colored plate in Miss Marshall's. For example, Professor Atkinson describes thirteen species of the Lactarius as against Miss Marshall's two. Nevertheless, his book is far from complete, as the mushroom collector will discover the first day he uses it. If the author would fill in the gaps, add twenty or thirty colored plates, and issue a second edition at the same price, he would win the gratitude of every amateur and professional mycologist in the country.

The chief merit of Mr. McIlvaine's book, to return to the one before us, is its completeness. He identifies about a thousand species—roughly speaking, three times as many as Atkinson. A comparison of the number of species distinguished under several common genera by the three writers may be of interest.

| | Marshall. | Atkinson. | McIlvaine. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Agaricus | 9 | 13 | 23 |
| Amanita | 5 | 16 | 29 |
| Boletus | 20 | 17 | 125 |
| Cortinarius | 2 | 4 | 23 |
| Hydnum | 8 | 9 | 20 |
| Lactarius | 2 | 13 | 34 |
| Lepiota | 3 | 9 | 25 |
| Mycena | 1 | 10 | 7 |
| Pleurotus | 3 | 9 | 16 |
| Polyporus | 9 | 11 | 22 |
| Russula | 3 | 8 | 45 |

The figures in the table hardly do justice to Professor Atkinson, for what descriptions he gives generally excel in clearness and accuracy. One trouble with Mr. McIlvaine is that he identifies almost too many species. He is often inclined to class as separate species what Professor Atkinson would regard as minor variations in the form of one species. The result is that the reader is puzzled to distinguish small differences and is sometimes hindered rather than helped. On the whole, however, in spite of possible confusions and inaccuracies, Mr. McIlvaine's book must enable the student to identify many species that are not even mentioned in the other four books.

The work contains thirty-two colored plates, but, as they are reproductions of water-color sketches, they are less accurate and detailed than the colored plates offered by Miss Marshall and Professor Atkinson. The half-tones from photographs are entirely satisfactory. The size and weight of the book, and the price, must give the average purchaser pause. What the mushroom hunter needs is a book with Miss Marshall's colored plates, Professor Atkinson's half-tones, the completeness that Mr. McIlvaine attempts, and Professor Atkinson's lucidity and exactness. There are rumors of a *magnum opus* by Professor Farlow to fill all these wants, but in the meantime the waiting world ought to buy many copies of something less pretentious.

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*Outlines of Criminal Law.—A Selection of Cases Illustrative of English Criminal Law.* By Courtney Stanhope Kenny. Two volumes. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1902.

The author of these volumes justifies their appearance by the fact that he has lectured on criminal law at Cambridge for a quarter of a century—"a period long enough to afford even the least competent lecturer some opportunity of ascertaining what principles, and what illustrations, are so successful in arresting the attention and impressing the memory of students as to be worth putting before them in the earliest manual which they peruse." A brief examination will convince the reader that no excuse was necessary for these publications. It is difficult to imagine a more perfect expository style than that of the lectures, and the fine distinctions which the nature of the subject requires are made with admirable clearness. When a lecturer brings such qualifications to his task it is not surprising that he should find, as Mr. Kenny has done, that law students regard criminal law as one of the most attractive portions of their work. Presumptively, these lectures are meant for those who take up the law as a profession; but they will be useful to many older men when called on to discharge the duties of a justice of the peace. While our law has diverged from that of England, the principles of the two systems remain substantially the same, and the procedure is in most respects similar. For this, and for other reasons, these lectures will be found invaluable by American readers.

With nearly fifty bodies constantly engaged in law-making, we cannot expect to approach the comparatively symmetrical development of criminal law attained in England. It is true that Parliament has not yet been induced to codify this law, but many useful statutes have been passed, and the judges have exerted a steady pressure in the direction of improvement. In some of our States, procedure compares favorably with that of England, but in most of them it is decidedly inferior. This is partly due to our practice of electing judges, which fills the bench with politicians, and partly to the incessant changes caused by the *cacoethes legiferendi*. We are inclined however, to attribute much importance to the fact that the right of the citizen to prosecute criminally, at least in the case of graver offences, has been practically abolished in this country. This right is vested in the functionary generally known as the District Attorney, and he exercises it, in the larger cities, at his pleasure. The prosecution of criminals having ceased to be a part of the occupation of the general practitioner, their defence has also passed out of his hands. In such a city as New York few lawyers know anything of criminal law, and those who are familiar with it have a *clientèle* largely, if not exclusively, composed of criminals. The results have been prejudicial, not only to procedure, but also to the law itself; and the plight of an innocent person accused of crime and obliged to employ a "Tombs-lawyer" for his defence is certainly deplorable.

This is not the place to enumerate the particulars in which the Criminal Law has been improved, or to consider those in which it is susceptible of improvement, tempting as such a review is made by Mr. Kenny's exposition. We can mention only the prevalent theory concerning exemption from responsibility caused by insanity. "Within a century," Mr. Kenny tells us, "so eminent a statesman as Windham could urge in Parliament the view that even the most insane criminal ought to be hanged for his crime 'for example's sake.'" But this was never the law, nor, on the other hand, has the mere existence of insanity sufficed for exemption. Not very long ago medical experts inclined to take this view; but observation appears to have established the fact that many insane persons are influenced by the fear of punishment. Hence English law now distinguishes two classes of insane persons—those who are not affected by the terrors of the law, and those who, as Lord Bramwell said, "would not have yielded to their insanity if a policeman had been at their elbow." In this country, "irresistible impulse" is recognized as a defence; but the English courts hesitate to admit it. Nor does their law seem to regard insanity as a circumstance that may mitigate punishment, although in practice it is often so treated. Much the same may be said of drunkenness.

The 'Select Cases' constitute an admirable repertory of criminal law. Few of them are taken from our reports, and many of them are of high antiquity. We must complain that they are sometimes enigmatical, in not stating whether the trial resulted in conviction or acquittal. They may be described, as the Scotchman did the definitions in the dictionary, as "Bra' stories, but unco' short"; nevertheless, it is a relief to escape from the frightful verbosity which is the besetting sin of our judges. Taken together, these volumes constitute a *corpus juris* of which the English people may well be proud. Our lawyers, and especially our judges, should welcome them; and they deserve the attention of all who care to understand our institutions.

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*Madame de Pompadour.* By H. Noel Williams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

This volume proves the continuance of interest that pertains to a century in which the direct action of women on the principal affairs or relations of life has become a commonplace for historical remark. Few commentators, however, add the obvious note that during that very time (especially in France) the rights and legal status of the sex obtained a minimum of recognition. It is one of the principal objects of Mr. Williams's voluminous study to show how, by dint of natural ability, sheer feminine persistence, and unscrupulous use of any effective means, a king's favorite—herself a *bourgeoise*—succeeded in imposing her will on the most uncompromisingly aristocratic society of her time, and, through want of genuine administrative capacity, hastened the break-up of the very conditions that she sought to control single-handed.

The story has become familiar from often telling; it is excellently summed up in Mr. Perkins's 'France under Louis XV.,' in the following decisive words: "A history of her rule would be properly entitled France under Mme. de Pompadour. . . . She had the ambition of a Catharine II. without her intellect." To the severity of this historical judgment, from which there is now no admissible appeal, Mr. Williams would attach a set of considerations, not by way of posthumous exculpation, but in the interest of serene impartiality. His own discussion of the political rôle of Jeanne Poisson is as uncompromising an arraignment as an enemy could wish; though, it must be said, there is yet ample room in his treatise for adequate attention to the fever of megalomania which misled an unscrupulous woman into the belief that her judgment of situations and suitable men was sound. Both her dismissals and her appointments, as Mr. Williams admits, were

urged by private considerations or enmities, and all in view of advancing her favorites. Her proscription or exclusion lists contain the names of the only men able to cope with the problems of government, foreign policy, or war. Her pet general was routed at Rossbach. Her ignorance of colonial affairs cost France, on our side of the Atlantic, the influence which neither language, nor race feeling, nor religious earnestness has yet succeeded in reinstating. This collective (but now somewhat banal) charge might find some palliation if Mr. Williams, or any one else, could show under this mass of bungling the motive of affection for either her royal lover or the common country of both. Through a discreet footnote (p. 366) we discover that even in these natural impulses her present biographer believes her to have been wanting. We find, as an offset to this, several chapters devoted to the generally neglected credit side of La Pompadour's account with posterity. It amounts, in brief, to assistance given to a few men of letters and artists, to encouragement of the porcelain-workers at Sèvres, to the foundation of the École Militaire, and to unfailing generosity towards those she liked because they worked her will.

In the above summary, we have not pointed out the range of Mr. Williams's studies, which, with the help of a page of bibliography, he might have spared his readers the labor of verifying in his numerous footnotes. It may be observed, however, that the weight of his attention seems to have been directed chiefly to the writers of detail in history, such as the Goncourts, whose well-known interest in the minutiæ of documentation so often obscures the breadth of view essential to great historical writing. As a countervailing result, many pages in this work present for the first time to English readers, in extremely attractive form, several episodes of picturesque, if secondary, character. The accounts of Madame de Pompadour's theatrical undertakings and of Latude's escapades and impostures are given in spirited fashion. The French quotations show careful revision; not so the words and phrases casually introduced. When Madame de Pompadour tacitly consented to, or even assisted, the infamies of the Parc aux Cerfs, she did not play the part of an "entremetteur" (p. 208); and the *haute monde* (p. 286) of Paris never existed outside of an English book. The volume, however, is eminently readable, and will doubtless further recommend itself to libraries, public or private, by the beauty of its form and its excellently selected illustrations.

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*European and Japanese Gardens.* Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1902. Pp. 162, ill., $1.50.

We have here a series of papers recently read before the American Institute of Architects. Of late years the literature of garden design has grown apace, but its growth has included no book of moderate cost which offers so many views of important examples as does the one whose title we record above. The pictures are well chosen and include plans of many celebrated gardens. The text is by sundry writers. Prof. A. D. F. Hamlin of Columbia College gives an account of the origin and development of the Italian garden. The spirit that animated the men of the Renaissance in the making of their gardens, the genius of their style, the response of their designs to their manners, customs, traditions, climate, and to the spirit of their times—is brought out with the utmost clearness. So complete a picture of the garden in Italy is presented that we come away from it fully prepared to follow its influence beyond the Alps. In his paper on French gardening, Mr. John Galen Howard tells how the art of Italy, in its new home, became a thing far different from its prototype. So commanding a genius was its acknowledged master, André Le Nôtre, that in any study of French gardening his work must fill a large space, and to this rule Mr. Howard's essay offers no exception. For him Le Nôtre is the Shakspere of gardening, whose work deserves and receives his most sympathetic study and enthusiastic praise. English Gardens, as seen by Mr. R. Clipston Sturgis, present an entire contrast to such vast conceptions as Versailles and Fontainbleau. For him the chief interest of gardening in England centres about the simpler work, the smaller and less pretentious gardens seeming in every way the more perfect. He attempts no account of English gardening as a whole, either historical or descriptive, but dwells upon some of its distinguishing characteristics, such as the desire for privacy and separation, the division of the grounds according to their use, the high standard so general in maintenance. His love of the simple and homely in English gardens and of the reasonableness of their arrangement comes from a knowledge of the subject to be gained only from the gardens themselves. The brief notes that accompany the excellent views of Japanese gardens are by K. Honda, who describes the Hill and Flat gardens in the finished, rough and intermediate styles, and gives an account of the accessories proper to the several sorts of Japanese garden.

The papers, in spite of their diverse origin, hang together well. The book is worth having, not only on account of its beautiful illustrations, but because it treats its subjects sanely and intelligently.

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## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. The Girl Proposition. R. H. Russell.
Alcott, Louisa M. Little Women. New ed., illustrated by Alice Barber Stephens. Boston: Little Brown & Co. $2.00.
Andrews, Mary R. S. Vive l'Empereur. Scribners. $1.00.
Banks, Nancy H. Oldfield: A. Kentucky Tale of the Last Century. Macmillan. $1.50.
Barrie, J. M. The Little White Bird; or, Adventures in Kensington Gardens. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Baskett, J. N. Sweetbriar and Thistledown. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co.
Baum, L. Frank. The Life and Adventures of Santa Claus. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Co.
Beale, Prof. J. H., jr. Selection of Cases on the Conflict of Laws. Vol. I. Jurisdiction: Remedies. II. The Creation of Rights. III. The Recognition and Enforcement of Rights. Boston Book Co.
Beall, St. Clair. The Winning of Sarenne. Federal Book Co.
Bengough, E. A. The Talk of the Town. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Berners, Lord. The Chronicle of Froissart. Vol. V. (Tudor Translations, edited by W. E. Henley.) London: David Nutt.
Black, Clementine. Frederick Walker. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: Dutton. 75c.
Blake, William. Illustrations of the Book of Job, in 21 Plates. (Facsimile reissue.) London: Dent; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.00.
Black, A. Richard Gordon. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.50.
Blanchan, Neltje. How to Attract the Birds. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.35.
Blanchard, Amy E. A Loyal Lass. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Book-Prices Current. Vol. XVI. London: Elliot Stock.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. The Ascent of the Soul. The Outlook Co. $1.25.
Brooks, F. E. Pickett's Charge, and Other Poems. Boston: Forbes & Co. $1.25.
Brown, Abbie Farwell. A Pocketful of Posies. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Brown, H. The Venetian Republic. (Temple Primers.) London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 40c.
Brown, Prof. W. A. The Essence of Christianity. Scribners.
Browne, Prof. E. G. A Literary History of Persia, from the Earliest Times until Firdawsi. Scribners. $4.00.
Browning, Elizabeth B. Aurora Leigh, and Other Poems. (Oxford Miniature Poets.) Henry Frowde. 3s. 6d.
Bruno, G. Le Tour de la France. American Book Co. 60 cents.
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Carleton, Will. Songs of Two Centuries. Harper & Bros.
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Carryl, G. W. Grimm Tales Made Gay. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Channing, William E. Thoreau, the Poet Naturalist. New ed. enlarged. Edited by F. B. Sanborn. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.
Channing, Blanche M. The Balaster-Boys. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co.
Churchill, Lida A. A Grain of Madness: A Romance. The Abbey Press. $1.25.
Churchill, Llewella P. Samoa Uma: Where Life is Different. New York: Forest and Stream Publishing Co. $1.50.
Clark, William. Pascal. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Cleveland, F. A. Funds and their Uses. D. Appleton & Co.
Colquhoun, Ethel. Two on their Travels. A. S. Barnes & Co. $2.50.
Connor, Ralph. Glengarry School Days. Fleming H. Revell Co.
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DeVinne, Theodore L. A Treatise on Title-Pages. (The Practice of Typography.) The Century Co. $2.00.
Dialogus de Scaccario. By Richard, Son of Nigel. Edited by Arthur Hughes, C. G. Crump and C. Johnson. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Ditchfield, P. H. The Cathedrals of Great Britain, their History and Architecture. London: Dent; Philadelphia: Lippincott. $2.
Dobson, Austin. Samuel Richardson. (English Men of Letters.) Macmillan.
Doty, D. Z. Pictures of Paint-Box Town. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.00.
Drummond, J. Life and Letters of James Martineau. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $8.00.
Dye, Eva Emery. The Conquest. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
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Frémeaux, Paul. With Napoleon at St. Helena. Translation by Edith S. Stokoe. John Lane.
Gautier, T. Works. Edited by Prof. F. C. de Sumichrast. Vols. XIX., XX.: Captain Fracasse. Paris Besieged. New York: George D. Sproul.
Georgian Period: Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work. Part XI. Boston: American Architect & Building News Co.
Giles, Herbert Allen. China and the Chinese. Columbia University Press.
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The Temple Bible. An Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures, by the Lord Bishop of Ripon.—The Later Pauline Epistles, edited by the Lord Bishop of Durham.—Joshua, Judges, edited by N. R. S. Kennedy, D.D. London: Dent; Philadelphia: Lippincott. 60 cents each.
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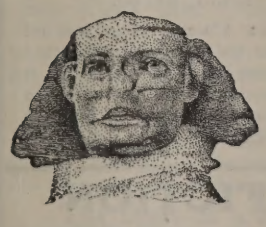

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 27, 1902.

## The Week.

"Cruelties were committed here and there," said President Roosevelt on November 19, at Memphis, in his glorification of the Philippine war. Almost while he was speaking, the shame-faced War Department was admitting one flagrant case of torture by men wearing the American uniform, which it had hitherto indignantly denied. The killing of a Catholic priest, under exquisite torture, by Capt. Brownell is now "frankly" conceded by that gentleman and soldier. He omitted to report the occurrence, since it was really so trivial. This is triumphantly adduced as a complete justification of Secretary Root. If his subordinates do not report their misdeeds, how on earth can he find them out? His warrant for asserting that the cruelties charged were never committed is thus seen to be official ignorance—and how extensive a basis that may be, the full proof of the murder of Father Augustine now makes clear. How does he know that there have not been dozens of similar cases? Mr. Roosevelt affirms that "the wrongdoing has been completely stopped." How does he know that other Captain Brownells are not killing natives by torture, and forgetting to report the trifling incident? This crushing exposure, for which the thanks of the country are due to Messrs. Schurz, Charles Francis Adams, and other Anti-Imperialists, shows that there is at least something rotten in the system of army intelligence. With this frightful case of ignorance of what has been going on in the army brought home to him, Secretary Root ought to be more chary about certifying officially to the "unexampled humanity" of our troops in the Philippines.

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The latest dispatches from the Philippines tell us that the continued fall of silver has paralyzed business and caused an unexampled crisis in the financial administration of the islands. Ten days ago, $2.50 of silver would buy one dollar of gold. Now $2.60 is required, and the prospect is that there will be further decline in the value of the white metal before the end of the present week. The situation could hardly be worse, but it can be no better until Congress adopts positive legislation and gives the islands a better currency. The principal cause of the decline of silver during the past six months has been the exportation of that metal from China to India to buy sterling exchange for the payment of the periodical war indemnity of the former country. On account of the disarrangement of trade due to the "Boxer" rebellion, it became impossible for the Government to obtain bills on London from mercantile sources in sufficient amounts to meet the payments. Thus it became necessary to call on the mandarins of the provinces for fixed sums of money in silver dollars, which were converted into bullion and shipped to Calcutta. The latter is still the principal consuming market in the world, for, although silver is no longer coined in India for private individuals, it is still in large demand for purposes of ornament and the arts, and is still bought by the Government for coinage into rupees as a currency subsidiary to gold. These purchases from China have lessened the demand for silver in London by no less than £1,300,000, as compared with the corresponding period in 1901. The latest drop in the price of silver seems to have been due to a movement for the adoption of the gold standard in the Straits Settlements.

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It seems impossible for Congress to avoid legislation on the subject of the currency in the Philippines. The present difficulty is greater than that which confronted us during the last session, because the decline of silver is greater, but it is not insurmountable. The plan proposed by the Conant Commission is still practicable. That plan contemplated that there should be a Philippine silver coin corresponding in size to the five-franc piece, which should be coined on Government account only, and be legal tender for fifty cents in the gold money of the United States; that this coin should be divided into one hundred parts, called centavos, so that the smallest coin should be equal to one-half cent of our money; that the silver and other subsidiary coins should be kept at par with gold by limiting their quantity and also by redeeming them in gold on demand—the redemption fund to be constituted out of the seigniorage derived from the coinage of silver bullion. Contracts previously existing would be settled on the previous basis, and the Mexican silver dollar now in use would continue to be legal tender until a specified date. Although valuable time has been lost, it is not too late to carry this reform into effect. The price of silver declined 34d. per ounce during the twenty years in which the discussion was going on for the reform of the currency of India. The decline since that time has been only 13d. per ounce. The same degree of intelligence which served India when the reform was forced upon her Government, will be available and alike successful in the Philippines if Congress takes up the subject in the proper spirit.

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The letter of President Ramsey of the Wabash Railroad, published in connection with an increase of 10 per cent. in the wages of his employees, directs renewed attention to the very remarkable movement of the past fortnight in this direction. On November 13 the Pennsylvania published the announcement of an all-around 10 per cent. increase in wages on its Eastern lines. This was followed within two or three days by similar announcements for the Pennsylvania's Western lines, for the New York Central, the Lake Shore, the Erie, the Reading, the Wabash, and other companies. Most of the railways in the further West have already made similar wage advances; so that it may be said that within a very brief period the scale of payment for railway labor has been advanced throughout the country. This recent sudden movement, which follows other general advances—mostly made, we believe, during 1900—has two sufficiently obvious explanations. It is a recognition of the present higher cost of living and of larger industrial profits, but it is also recognition of the fact that, in its present mood, labor's demands must be granted in whole or in part. There has been trouble very lately with the laborers on several of the great Southwestern systems; traffic was delayed, and for a week or two railway managers were greatly disturbed over the prospect. The coal-strike episode, and the aggressive attitude of unionism in the city trades, did not reassure them. With business offered now in excess of facilities for transportation, and with still heavier traffic in view when the full crop movement is under way, it is not surprising that railway-wage advances should have been granted in all directions, even before the pressure of demand had become really urgent. But there are other valid reasons for better wages for the railway hands. The railways have been prosperous, during the past year, to an unexampled degree. In spite of the failure of last year's corn crop, earnings from traffic have continued to increase; the net receipts of 100 American railroads, during the first eight months of 1902, footing up $8,500,000 more than in the same period last year, and $55,000,000 more than in 1899—a gain of no less than 45 per cent. A great number of the companies have increased their dividends; others have made indirect payments to shareholders through issue of new stock at prices far below the market.

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The housesmiths, the plumbers, the roofers, and a number of other members of the building trades refuse to work in Mr. George W. Vanderbilt's house because his contractor is likely to employ one painters' union rather than another. Not one member of the boycotted

Brotherhood of Painters has yet entered the building, and the general strike is ordered in behalf of the Amalgamated Painters' Society, which also has had no part in the work. But the contractor, as the song has it, is "an intimate friend of an intimate friend" of the wrong union; that makes his work "unfair," and the strike will follow him wherever he builds. It is interesting to recall the reason why the Building Trades Council is using the general strike to exalt one union and destroy another. The Amalgamated Painters' Society, about a year ago, struck for increased wages. The Brotherhood of Painters were willing to work at the old scale and filled the places of the strikers. It was not a case of "scab" labor against a union, but of two unions differing on a point of general policy. Apparently, the rule of unionism is one for all and all for the one that makes the highest demands, for the Brotherhood of Painters, which plain people will think acted within its rights, has been constantly attacked. Some two months ago, for example, the redecorating of the White House was delayed because of this quarrel, and now a large number of workmen in other trades than painting are suffering present loss of wages on account of what might be called a "future-perfect" contest between two kinds of organized painters. This is not quite a literal fulfilment of Mr. Gompers's gloomy prediction that the unions must mend their ways or they would be fighting each other in the streets, but it does show that there are as many degrees of "unfairness" as there were of Touchstone's lie.

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Vice-Chancellor Stevenson's preliminary injunction, granted in New Jersey against the so-called Prudential-Fidelity merger, brings to at least a temporary halt one of the most remarkable plans in the whole recent movement of corporate combination. This style of merger, would, in fact, go considerably further, in the way of perpetuating present controlling managaments, even than the Northern Securities or Steel Corporation experiments. Mr. Morgan outlined, last spring, the theory of these two last-named combinations; it was, to create for the amalgamated company a capital so large that no outside interest could afford to buy up control. The Prudential-Fidelity combination would make change in control impossible, even were capital available sufficient to pay two or three times over for the capitalized value of the companies. Briefly stated, the situation is that two joint-stock companies exist, controlled at present by the same interest—the Prudential Insurance and the Fidelity Trust. Under the proposed plan, the capital of the Fidelity Trust is doubled, the new shares being bought chiefly by the Prudential Insurance Company. With the money obtained by this sale of stock the Fidelity undertakes to buy a one-half interest in the entire stock of the Prudential. The circular of the Prudential's president, announcing the plan, observed:

> "While by this arrangement the Prudential Company will control the Fidelity, and, on the other hand, the Fidelity will own a majority of the capital stock of the Prudential, . . . the Prudential will forever be the dominant factor, as, of course, it should be. . . . The consummation of this arrangement insures the continuance of the present management of the Prudential."

This it unquestionably does; for the Fidelity Trust's majority stock would always be voted by the present Prudential management, and, in turn, the majority stock of the Prudential would always be voted by the Fidelity.

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We are fully aware of the feeling among managers of corporations which has encouraged many of these self-perpetuating contrivances. With enormous amounts of loose capital in the hands of rival bankers, no board of management has felt secure in its seat. The ousting of the Louisville and Nashville's conservative controlling interest by a ring of stockjobbers, using borrowed money, has frightened existing managements throughout the country. But every protective scheme contrived to exclude the dangerous outsider from control will apply with equal facility, in a conceivable case, to prevent removal of an objectionable "insider." On this point, Insurance Commissioner Cutting of Massachusetts, replying to the Prudential directors, says very pertinently:

> "The minority stockholders would have absolutely no chance of winning individual stockholders to their side to make a majority, no matter how convincing their arguments, no matter how bad the mismanagement or corruption, or how unworthy the managers so long as they steered clear of indictable offences."

There is in all this no reflection upon existing managements; but existing managements are made up of human beings who are mortal, who, under the scheme proposed, would name their own successors, and who might make grave mistakes in such selection. We freely admit the dangers created by the free-booting capitalists of the Stock Exchange; but we regard the remedy proposed as infinitely more dangerous than the disease.

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Raising State revenues by means of indirect taxation is evidently to become popular in many States. Wisconsin is sure, under the lead of Gov. La Follette, to revise its tax laws this year, with a view to shifting a larger share of the burden of taxation to the shoulders of corporations. And now the matter is being considered in Illinois, where a movement, centring in Chicago, is on foot which seems likely to result in the holding of a Constitutional convention for the express purpose of empowering the Legislature to abolish the direct tax altogether, and establish a system of corporation taxation sufficient to provide all the necessary revenues for the support of the State government. An interesting feature of the movement in Illinois is that it carries with it an avowed advocacy of the principle of local option in taxation. In fact, this is the principal argument which is being used in Chicago in favor of holding the convention. It is urged that, with the abolition of the direct State tax, the State as a whole would lose its interest in the form of taxation in a given community, the State Board of Equalization would no longer be necessary, and matters of valuation and scope of taxation could be regulated locally in the best interest of the city or town involved.

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Among the plans which, it is supposed, Gov. Odell has under consideration for increasing the State's indirect sources of revenue, are a renewal of the small recording tax on mortgages, a readjustment of the inheritance tax with a view to increasing its revenue-raising power, and a readjustment of the liquor-license law so that a larger part of the tax shall be retained by the State. The hope is again expressed that the mortgage-recording tax may prove acceptable, if not wholly satisfactory, both to those who believe in mortgage exemption and to those who do not. Doubtless such a tax would be welcomed by the former class, for they showed themselves ready to accept it last year. But not so the latter. The mortgage-tax bill last year was smothered through the influence of "up-State" legislators who believe in vigorous taxation of mortgages. They were not deceived by the recording tax, which they regarded as practical exemption. Perhaps, however, they may prove more pliant this year. New problems are raised by the suggested readjustment of the inheritance-tax law and the liquor-license law. The popularity of the latter has been largely due to the amount of revenue which it brings yearly to the various localities of the State. The success of a change on the lines proposed would be at best doubtful. Yet the need of more revenue, to the extent of at least $5,000,000, is imperative if the abolition of the direct State tax is to be permanent.

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The Legislature of Vermont has acted with amazing promptness on the high license bill which is to reverse the historic policy of the State on the liquor question. Except for minor modifications, which will be settled in conference of the two houses, the new law is complete. It will be referred to the people early in the new year. Probably few Legislatures would have learned their own mind so quickly on a matter of

such importance. This high-license and local-option measure has several interesting features. It adopts the excellent Massachusetts-Connecticut plan of an annual referendum on the licensing of saloons; it sets a minimum fee of $500 for a general license, which seems low as compared with $1,000 in Massachusetts; and a maximum fee of $1,200; finally, it grants a fermented-liquors license at $250. The working of this last provision will be watched with interest, because it has proved almost impossible in practice to establish the theoretically desirable distinction between places where light drinks are sold, and those where ardent spirits are dispensed. A fanciful feature of the bill is an anti-treating clause. The complete conversion to the local-option idea of a State which has long been given over to the hypocrisies of statutory prohibition should do much to strengthen the case of genuine excise reform.

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The Birmingham (Ala.) *Age-Herald* of November 11, hits the nail on the head in its comment on an attempted lynching affair in the neighboring town of Anniston. Fortunately, in this case, the troops were called out by the Governor, and were available in time to prevent the mob from putting to death a negro who had not been identified, who had not committed any crime in Anniston and was not "wanted" there—except to meet the popular demand for a lynching. The words are those of the Birmingham paper. "Lynching bees," it says, "have become the pastime of the rougher element of a community. They seize upon each and every occasion for that purpose. Excitement is what they want—pastime, recreation. For such a state of things a moral revolution is necessary. The better citizens of Anniston appealed to the mob in vain, and such scenes will occur until a public sentiment is created that will put them down." A moral revolution is wanted, but where is it to begin? Who is to put it in motion? Preaching does no good. Editors can accomplish nothing by mere writing and printing. Nothing except the administration of law and the punishment of lynchers by death or long terms of imprisonment will ever put an end to the practice of lynching.

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The announcement that the cruiser *Philadelphia* has been condemned by the navy's Chief Constructor is of great interest as showing the perishability of the modern war-ship. The *Philadelphia* was built in 1888 by the Cramps, and has therefore been in service only fourteen years, minus many months spent at navy-yards for repairs, of which she has required not a few. Now she must be stricken from the navy list, according to law, because it would require more than half of her value to repair her once more. She has long been known as a "lame duck," and is now chiefly valuable as an object-lesson, having cost in her short existence about $2,000,000. Had she been a wooden ship, she would, with anything like proper care, have lasted very much longer, as is shown by the presence on the navy list of such veterans of the seas as the *Lancaster*, built in 1859, and the *Enterprise* and *Essex*, which date from the seventies. Another interesting vessel of the "new navy' which is about to disappear is the dynamite cruiser *Vesuvius*. Who does not remember the terrifying stories of the volcanic effect of her dread projectiles which came to us from before Santiago in June, 1898? The Spaniards were overthrown nightly amid convulsions of the earth unequalled before Pelée. Like many another tale of the Caribbean, these yarns proved merely that romance had not passed from the globe, and now the *Vesuvius* is to be sold for a song, being not even available as a plebeian torpedo boat, while admittedly a failure for her specific purpose.

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It is eloquent testimony to the prosperity of the Canadian Northwest that the Grand Trunk Railway is planning to extend its line to the Pacific. The new road will pass far to the north of the Canadian Pacific, and will open up a region the wealth of which in agricultural and forest products is only beginning to be realized. Whether the project will be favorably received in Parliament remains to be seen. There has been considerable prejudice against the Grand Trunk because it uses Portland, Me., as its chief Atlantic terminal, rather than a Canadian port, and the members from the Maritime Provinces have made this a long-standing grievance. There may also be some feeling against an eventual competition with the heavily subsidized Canadian Pacific. But it is hard to see how such considerations can weigh against the obvious advantages of the new transcontinental line. All the Canadian railways, including the Intercolonial, which is owned by the State, are prosperous, and if the Dominion should oppose the attempt to reach the new territories from the east, she must expect to see them reached from the south. This would mean the diversion of Canadian freights to American lines on a tremendous scale. So the Grand Trunk extension seems to be equally desirable from the point of view of railway and of national strategy. Obviously, the United States will be an incidental gainer from a sea-water terminal only a little to the south of the Alaska boundary.

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That the English Education Bill could be passed only by a vigorous application of the closure was foreseen from the first. It has at last completed the committee stage under closure "by compartments," and now it is hoped to bring the bill to a vote in a fortnight. Of course, the Liberals make the most of the closuring of the remaining clauses, but it is difficult to believe that a bill which has been in committee rather more than forty days has been inadequately debated. Mr. Balfour told the Commons recently that the Crimes act of 1897 was closured after fifteen days in committee, and the Home Rule bill of 1893 after twenty-eight days. The real grievance of the present Opposition, Mr. Balfour failed to admit, namely, the clumsy drafting of the bill. Frequently, the Ministry has seemed to be in doubt as to the meaning of its own measure, and the bill certainly invited that mass of amendments which have so unduly protracted the debates. The bill will become law soon. In fact, the Opposition, since its failure to secure the Irish members, has had much of the random quality of a debating society in committee of the whole. Important concessions to Nonconformists, and a provision by which the County Councils may delegate their educational duties to sub-committees, should do something to reduce initial hostility to a measure the workableness of which remains wholly problematical. There will be opposition in the Lords, but it will probably prove ineffectual.

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The German Chancellor has hit upon a new way of influencing public opinion at home—by having his views explained in foreign newspapers of standing. One such statement appeared, the other day, in Paris. The latest journal to be favored is the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*, which recently contained an apology for his attitude in regard to the revision of the tariff, now the foremost question in Germany. His position was stated to be that of a "Constitutional Statesman" ever bowing to the will of the majority—a figure of speech which Bismarck frequently found of use, and frequently abandoned in favor of the "prerogatives of Emperor and Government," when he was in open opposition to a parliamentary majority. Von Bülow, according to this statement, is certain that, if the tariff boat is wrecked, the boatman will yet survive, and there seems to be some ground for his belief, in view of the fact that his recent disastrous defeat has left him still at the helm. Upon the question whether the boat will sink or not, the *Freie Presse's* correspondent was not able to throw much light. The Chancellor is doubtless still hoping, but in the eyes of many observers he is hoping against hope, for his craft is waterlogged already. It is attended in its course by the dislike, distrust, and enmity of the common people, who rightly see in the tariff bill heavier burdens for themselves, that the land owners may profit.

### *THE PRESIDENT'S RETREAT.*

An "authorized statement from the White House," like a speech from the throne, must be read between the lines. When it has to confess a blunder, it does so under the guise of correcting a "misapprehension"; and when it announces a change of policy, it covers it up with the assumption that the *volte-face* was really the original line of march. All these well-known characteristics appear in President Roosevelt's explanation of his plunge into Addicks's political gas tank. In substance, it is a retreat. Mr. Roosevelt has taken fright. Such a volume of protest has gone up against his dalliance with the most unblushing corruptionist in American politics, that he has seen it to be impossible for even a spoiled child of party like himself to persist in that course. So he puts the best face he can on the matter, and says he never intended the Byrne appointment to be a sop to "the faction with which he was allied."

We think that Col. Roosevelt might have fled down this political San Juan hill in a more manly fashion. It is evident, too, that, in the hurry of his retreat, he forgot a good many things which still require explanation. If Byrne's appointment had nothing to do with Addicks, why was it announced directly after that ill-smelling boss had called upon the President in company with the dirty-work member of his Cabinet, Postmaster-General Payne? Why did Mr. Payne at once follow it up by explaining in public that the President had determined to recognize Addicks? Why did Mr. Roosevelt himself say to so many callers that the Addicks Republicans in Delaware were evidently in the majority, and must have at least their share of the patronage? These are among the "misapprehensions" which the White House statement does nothing whatever to allay. As we say, it would have been much better if the Rough Rider had a little less uncertainly sounded the retreat on his "authorized" bugle.

Still, we think there can be no doubt that the President has climbed down. His statement will so be taken in Delaware, we believe. Those Republicans and Democrats who have been fighting, at such fearful odds, with the execrable corrupter of that State, will at last be relieved of the fear that Roosevelt's sword was to be used against them. They will, it is to be hoped, strain every nerve now to compass the final defeat of the most despised and hated boss in America. If the President, after the warning he has had, shall hereafter lift a finger to aid Addicks, receive him, or one of his henchmen, at the White House again, or throw the weight of a single Presidential post-office (or allow the Postmaster-General to place even the fourth-class offices) against the men who are struggling for the honor of Delaware, he will be held up anew to deserved scorn as a partaker in Addicks's political crimes. The eyes of the country will be on him, and we have every confidence that his sense of the sleepless vigilance of the press will be such as to keep him from another lapse like the Byrne appointment.

His defence of that, considered merely as an isolated case, is but a limping performance. He puts it partly on personal grounds. Byrne, he says, was "a stanch supporter of the President when he ran for Governor and afterward." This brings the appointment into the category of those "good fellows" whom Mr. Roosevelt is bound to take care of and comfort with offices. "Joe" Murray was one such personal servant of the President's foisted upon the Federal service. He would make out Byrne to be another. But saying nothing for the moment of the fine grace with which such appointments come from a professed civil-service reformer, there were two reasons, in the Byrne case, with both of which the President should have been acquainted, and either of which should have been sufficient to prevent him from naming the Addicks man as District Attorney. In the first place, he was not competent. His mishandling of the office had lost him the confidence of the community, and had brought down upon him a rebuke in open court from the Federal judge of the district. This was notorious. On the other hand, there stood the temporary incumbent of the office, with overwhelming endorsements of the highest character. But the civil-service reformer in the White House passed over the fit candidate and took the unfit "stanch supporter." Quite apart from that, Byrne was, let the President say what he will, nothing but a swollen braggart of the Addicks following. Since his appointment he has been bursting into interviews, declaring that he and Addicks and Roosevelt were going to wipe out the anti-Addicks element of the party in Delaware.

In that taint was ample cause for refusing his appointment, and there is ample cause, too, for demanding that the President now withdraw it, and for contesting and defeating Byrne's confirmation by the Senate, if he will not. That is the next point of attack for independent and unbought newspapers. They have won a great victory. They have stirred up public opinion of such formidable kind that it compelled even a headstrong President to take the back track. After taking the measure of what he euphemistically calls the "misapprehension" caused by his tentative alliance with Addicks, he fled incontinently. The President has, we say, had his lesson. He has learned that even his popularity and prestige will not enable him to defy decent opinion. He has found out that the most indignant protestations of virtuous motives will not be accepted as an excuse for recklessly bad acts. This is a great gain—both for him and for the country. It is full justification for the attitude of those newspapers which scorned the policy of suppression and silence, set forth the facts, spoke out their mind, and roused such a sentiment that the President did not dare disregard it.

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### *IMPERIALISM UNDER THE MICROSCOPE.*

"I do not think," wrote a well-informed American resident of Samoa in 1899, just after our glorious little war in the islands, "that Admiral Kautz, who had orders to investigate matters here, saw a single person outside those who were directly interested in aiding and abetting the Chambers minority. At every turn I found him set in his ideas, and intent on making up a cause of quarrel. He is a testy, dictatorial sort of old chap, and has been goaded and flattered into getting the United States into one of the most cowardly and scandalous of wars. I fairly believe that had Capt. White of the *Philadelphia* been here there would have been no war at all; not a dollar's worth of property would have been sacrificed, and no valuable lives lost." We quote this statement from the *Evening Post's* issue of May 17, 1899, because the King of Sweden, after a careful and unbiassed examination, has declared that the action of the American and British war-ships in Samoa in April, 1899, was unwarranted and indefensible, wanton and cruelly wrong, both to the Americans who lost their lives, and to the Samoans who were butchered by rapid-fire guns and magazine rifles—in the name of Christianity and civilization, of course!

The pretence which led to the fighting—that it was necessary to protect foreign citizens and property—King Oscar demolishes absolutely, by proving the absence of the slightest danger. The "invading forces" against which the operations were undertaken by the Americans and British, could not have crossed the bay because of the tidal conditions, and therefore menaced no one. Their opponents, the adherents of Malietoa, had been brought to Apia by the American and British war-ships on the authority of a decision of the Chief Justice, "a third-rate American lawyer," whose judgment was wrong on its face and in direct contradiction to the opinion of the consuls in the islands, who recognized Mataafa as the lawful head. To make our case still worse, there was nothing, as King Oscar points out, in the terms of the Berlin Act, or any subsequent agreement, "which authorizes one of the signatory powers, or a majority of them, to take action to enforce the provisions of the act, or the decisions of the Chief Justice. . . ." Our

conduct was therefore based on misconception, if not on fraud, in the interests of a handful of unprincipled conspirators. Our course was without the slightest authority in law and morals, and had the result that two great nations were nearly brought into open conflict. It is evident now that the responsibility for this, as well as for the destruction of life, rests with Rear-Admiral Kautz and Chief Justice Chambers.

Proper characterization, in the interests of truth and right and international morality, of their conduct and the work of our sailors in 1899, exposed all critics to the usual retorts, such as "lack of patriotism," "cowardly failure to support our brave defenders when under fire," and "readiness to discredit our own flag," with which criticism of our Philippine policy has made us all so familiar. The action of the Samoans in killing hostile Americans and British in self-defence was "savage butchery" and "slaughter," in the eyes of the Administration organs (we quote from the *Tribune*), and was calculated to "arouse a feeling of indignation and a desire for retribution." "Right-thinking men," said this same newspaper, editorially, "will regard the event as another argument in favor of making stronger the authority of civilization [in the islands]. . . . The civilization of the world requires that the islands of the sea should be made safe stopping-places for peaceful commerce, and civilization has rights that even barbarism is bound to respect." And it gravely affirmed that we must govern Samoa for the Samoans, despite the views of those who would "scuttle out" of the Philippines, in order that our merchant vessels might "break the long run across the Pacific without danger of the decapitation of the passengers and crew"!

But our Solons in Washington were not far behind the *Tribune* in their desire for retribution and their promptness in placing the blame. Such distinguished and trustworthy leaders of public opinion as Senator Stewart of Nevada and Representative Hull of Iowa knew whom to hold responsible. It was Germany, of course, that was at fault. "Does she want to fight?" asked the Senator. "If so, she may be accommodated." "If Germany persists in her course," said the cool-headed and statesmanlike chairman of the House Committee on Military Affairs, "there may be war." President McKinley was more cautious, but even this great lover of peace felt that Mataafa must be punished and a larger naval force sent at once. To think otherwise was to dishonor the memory of our two brave dead officers, Lieut. Lansdale and Ensign Monaghan. The European suggestions that Rear-Admiral Kautz's actions be disavowed, were met with the scorn and contempt which are always the due of the meddling foreigner. We were solemnly reminded how Admiral Diedrichs had treated Dewey in Manila. The warning given by James H. Mulligan, for many years our consul in Samoa, that "the disorderly conduct, the cheating by means of false weights, the drunkenness, swearing, and fighting are all supplied by the whites," was unheeded. How that entire house of cards has collapsed now!

We have gone at length into this discreditable episode in our national history, not to proclaim our country's shame, but to call public attention to this incident in our over-sea Imperialism as it appears when studied under the microscope of a non-partisan investigator. It would hardly be possible to show in a more convincing or compact way what evils interference in the concerns of distant peoples inevitably brings in its train. In Samoa our boasted Anglo-Saxon superiority carried with it war, rapine, and destruction, as the result of fraud and wrongdoing, just as it has done in the Philippines, with the added evils of pestilence and famine. It is characteristic of Imperialism that, following this career of wickedness, the Samoans should have been partitioned off among the Powers, "to keep them from being troublesome." We know, too, of no other instance which brings out so clearly the way in which judgment and reason are banished, the instant there is friction or collision with another nation. A Stevenson himself may then plead for his adopted people unheard and unrespected.

There is but one bright side to the picture. Thanks to arbitration, the rights and wrongs of the question at issue have become known, and are settled for all time. If it cannot restore the dead or right the wrong, international arbitration has none the less achieved one of its most substantial victories. Had war with Germany come instead, who would ever have known where the truth and right were to be found?

## *MR. BALFOUR ON NATIONAL JEALOUSIES.*

Mr. Balfour made his first speech as Prime Minister at a Guildhall banquet a fortnight ago, and closed it with a noteworthy plea for comity and peace between nations. This was not reported in the cable dispatches. These have a fashion of dilating on everything in the nature of international friction; a firebrand speech of a Minister who has looked too long upon the red wine, they parade at length; but a mere official utterance in favor of civilization and peaceful progress is quite too unexciting. Yet it is really an event of the highest importance when one of the most powerful rulers of Christendom can, with all the sincerity befitting a gentleman and scholar such as Mr. Balfour is, use the language which he did. He said:

"There is no desire which, I think, ought to be more constantly present to the minds of European statesmen, there is no sentiment which they ought more sedulously to cultivate, than that spirit of international tolerance, international comprehension, and, if it may be, international friendship and international love, which, if duly encouraged, will have the most powerful effect in the future whenever dangers menace European peace. That this should happily result from the common union, from the cultivation of affection between European peoples, and from the mutual understanding of European statesmen, ought to be the most earnest prayer of every man who has at heart the future of civilization and that peace upon which civilization is based."

Of course, such a deliverance from the Prime Minister of Great Britain at once provoked, in the Continental press, an outburst of that very cynicism and distrust against which he had spoken so emphatically. Several German newspapers—never more "reptilian" than when they are trying to inflame international jealousies—professed to see in Mr. Balfour's words all kinds of sinister meanings. He was in trouble about his own armaments; therefore he was craftily trying to induce Germany not to go resolutely ahead with her plans for a powerful navy, deficit or no deficit. We all know that sort of international sneer. It was freely indulged in by a part of our press, and by some of our public men (speaking in private, of course), at the time of Prince Henry's visit. "We shall not build one battleship the less for his coming," one of our Joey Bagstocks of diplomacy was reported to have said. This habit of being "devilish sly" in the face of every graceful attention or generous word from foreigners is becoming too ingrained. It is rapidly destroying unaffected sincerity in international relations as surely as a similar temper would poison the intercourse between man and man. Suppose that every time a friend gave you a book or invited you to dinner, your first thought was, "What little game is he up to now?" How long could society endure on such terms? Yet it is precisely that suspicious, mean, unworthy frame of mind which our most voluble mentors would have us cultivate in international affairs. Any nation that comes forward with a friendly mien and greeting, we are told that we must instantly suspect of intending to stick a knife under our fifth rib. How long can the peace of the world be kept with that miserable spirit on the increase?

It is unfortunately true that nations, like individuals, are capable of acts of bad faith or outright villainy. England solemnly promised to evacuate Egypt, but is there yet. The United States pledged itself not to seek territorial aggrandizement as a result of the Spanish war. France annexed Madagascar in the teeth of an agreement not to do so. Germany has made secret treaties behind the backs of her allies. Instances of sharp practice and aggression are truly far too numerous in the history of nations. They are all tarred with the same stick. What we must

remember, however, is that this is the exceptional rule of national conduct. No country is an invariable blackguard. As a rule, all governments seek to live up to their plighted word, do not go out of their way to pick quarrels, act by preference in straightforward ways, not in tortuous, and are not forever scheming to betray and entrap a neighbor.

This fact it is which makes the talk we hear about the duty of arming ourselves against a possible "attack" such a solemn futility. We are asked, that is, to regulate our conduct and order our whole life by what is confessedly the exceptional, the unusual, the improbable. But men do not reason that way in their private affairs, and nations have no call to be more foolish than individuals. Every householder knows, for example, that his residence may be entered by a burglar; but he does not, for that reason, make of it a fort and arsenal combined. Every man who walks in the streets is aware that a footpad may possibly set upon him. But does he, therefore, insist upon going always armed to the teeth, or accompanied by a bodyguard? Sensible men take the usual course of things, the "customèd event," as the norm of their action, and do not make wild imaginings and disordered fears the guide of their lives. The same principle holds, or should hold, with States. Their normal condition is peace. Their ordinary action is honest. As a rule, their foreign policy is what it purports to be, and not a mask for ulterior and wicked designs. It is, then, a proof of national folly to act upon other presumptions, in the matter of armaments, alliances, or other plans for the distant future.

"I never," said Mérimée to Senior, "give credit to a nation for any sense. . . . Nations are fools." Surely they would deserve that taunt if, in a civilized age, they were to act as if barbarism had come again, and every country were only watching a good chance to fly at the throat of every other. We must travel upon the beaten highways. We must sail by the great circles. That means the cultivation of good faith with all nations, and a scornful turning of the back upon that cynical and devilish spirit of international distrust against which Mr. Balfour registered his weighty protest.

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### *WANTED: A SCHOOL FOR ART COLLECTORS.*

Dr. Bode, the learned and caustic director of the Berlin Museum, discusses the "American peril" for art in the newly founded *Kunst und Künstler*. Europe, he believes, is by no means in danger of impoverishment, for the knowledge of the wealthier American collectors is by no means equal to their zeal. That the modern captains of industry have all the power of a Marshal Soult he is willing to admit, but he insists that they lack the discrimination which led the great plunderer infallibly to the best that the churches and galleries of Spain and Italy contained. Times have greatly changed in America since amateurs of the late H. G. Marquand's type cautiously acquired picture after picture, weeded out their acquisitions with severe critical taste, and were content to give a lifetime to the furnishing of a single gallery. In those days pictures were the white stones in a collector's pathway; to-day complete collections. This tendency towards the wholesale purchase of masterpieces has produced a peculiar class of picture brokers who contrive to furnish masterpieces, singly or *en masse*, as fast as they are wanted. The result is, that Europe is being relieved of works of art which are hearty good riddance.

This contention of Dr. Bode's is supported by many concrete instances. Mr. J. P. Morgan's famous Raphael was offered to all the great European galleries at a fraction of the price he paid for it; and refused. Even more exemplary is the case of Mr. Henry Walters, who has recently bought the Massarenti collection at Rome. At the time of the sale the *Evening Post* incautiously protested that stories of an obscure gallery which fairly rivalled the national collections of Europe were far too good to be true. For this *caveat* it was roundly rebuked by the *Times*, which urged the purchase of the Massarenti pictures by some New York art-lover, and found the hostility of the *Evening Post* to the importation of these *chefs d'œuvre* wholly inexplicable. Dr. Bode does not tell the story of the assembling and unloading of the Massarenti pictures, but he does tell enough to show how natural was the *Evening Post's* distrust.

> "Whoever, like myself," says Dr. Bode, "has had the pleasure of seeing this collection, knows that it would be difficult to name a second that is so void of good things and contains so many mediocre pictures and forgeries of great names . . . as the collection of Don Marcello Massarenti, which filled the spacious rooms of a palace near the Vatican. . . . The Italian Government assessed a 20 per cent. export tax at 40,000 francs, so that its estimate of the value of the collection was 200,000 francs."

Mr. Walters is reported to have paid 5,000,000 francs to Don Marcello.

Again, Dr. Bode marvels at the publicity which the sale received in the press of Europe and America—"all this hocus-pocus about a collection which does not contain one noteworthy picture, one remarkable statue, or half a dozen works of a respectable mediocrity!" Mr. Walters's case is treated so much at length by Dr. Bode, whom we abridge, not because it is unique, but because no other American enthusiast has fallen in so deeply as the Baltimore collector.

It would be easy to cite examples by the dozen of the victimization of American amateurs. The auction rooms abound in falsification of all degrees. Reputable dealers import hundreds of nondescript canvases, which are undoubtedly "of great antiquity," christen them optimistically, and sell them under the names of the great masters. We have seen in a Fifth Avenue auction room a landscape bearing three signatures, one illegible, the second "Wm. Hart," the third no less a name than "G. Inness." This was eminently a case in which the buyer "paid his money and took his choice"; but it is rarely that the fraud is of such childlike simplicity. Obviously, the purchase of bad works of art abroad, at a long price, does not constitute an "American peril." Possibly the purchase of bogus great masters at home does.

A remedy for this state of ill-regulated enthusiasm for art is not immediately apparent. We cannot compel adventurers upon the troubled sea of collecting to take on trustworthy pilots. The millionaire collectors are within their rights when they prefer the counsel of willing but untrained friends who pass for connoisseurs, the advice of dealers and brokers with a profit to make, or the suave blandishments of "venerable prelates" with a taste for dubious pictures and an instinct for the main chance. But it does seem as if something analogous to university extension for the ignorant poor might be planned for the ill-informed rich. Our captains of industry have not the leisure to learn as their predecessors in art collecting did, by long residence abroad and loving association with the best works of art. Yet they might acquire adequate connoisseurship, at no great expenditure of time, in a school established for this purpose. The proceedings of such a "seminar" of multi-millionaires would unquestionably be in the nature of an experience meeting. Mr. Morgan, who has been on the whole fortunate in his acquisitions, but indiscriminate in the prices he has paid, would naturally compute the millions he has paid in excess of market values. His listening confrères meanwhile could make mental comparisons of the sum total with the estimated amount of water in the Steel and Shipping Trusts. Senator Clark might safely base his "experience" upon the case of a little Dutch picture, the pedigree of which Dr. Bode traces. It was sold, twenty-five years ago, with the refuse of the Berlin Gallery as a Vercolje—a third-rate painter—for about 500 francs. It came into the Preyer collection at Vienna, where it gained a full generation in antiquity through being transformed into a Metsu, and 49,500 francs in price—50,000 francs was its valuation at the time of the sale to Senator Clark. Mr. Walters's part in the proceeding would obviously be to contrast himself with that noble connoisseur, his father, to apply the right names to the pictures of the Massarenti collection

when possible, and, when those "ancient paintings" defied classification, to distinguish the work of the restorer or forger from the old canvas or panel upon which the fabrication was wrought. All these confessions would tend to the edification of inexpert collectors and the confounding of rascally art brokers.

As for the American peril, which Dr. Bode dismisses so cavalierly, it has been and has passed. In the sixties and seventies, connoisseurs of the stamp of William M. Hunt, Mr. Quincy Shaw, the elder Walters, and a score of equally ardent if less conspicuous lovers of the best in art were quietly picking up the finest pictures of the contemporary French school. None of these art lovers were men of great wealth, as that is measured to-day; nobody then wrote or talked about the "American peril." But the result of that patient yet passionate quest has been, that there are not enough Millets, Rousseaus, Daubignys, and Corots of any quality to supply the outlying countries of Europe, while French critics who would pretend to completeness must study French art on this side of the Atlantic. This seems to show that there are perils and perils, and that our millionaire collectors might profit, not only by the school we have suggested, but by the example of predecessors who made of collecting a lifelong avocation, and an art in itself.

## ARCHÆOLOGICAL EXPLORATION IN EGYPT.

OXFORD, November 9, 1902.

The annual meeting of subscribers to the Egypt Exploration Fund took place in London on Friday, November 7, in Burlington House, and had especial interest for the numerous American subscribers to the Fund, inasmuch as Sir John Evans, President of the Society, was able to announce the formation of a general committee in Boston. This year in America is also marked by some prospect of extending the interest in the Fund to Colorado.

The report of the Treasurer, Mr. Grueber, of the British Museum, was encouraging, and the proceedings were rendered especially interesting by the two addresses of the President and of Prof. Flinders Petrie. Sir John Evans began his address with a warm tribute to the late Mrs. F. Llewellyn Griffiths, well known in America as the close friend of Miss Amelia B. Edwards, and as a remarkable worker in the field of Egyptology, most especially, perhaps, as the author of the 'Atlas of Ancient Egypt'. Dr. J. H. Gladstone and Mr. Abraham Haworth were also spoken of as among the generous supporters of the Fund removed by death. This chronicle of losses was closed by a tribute to the services of Gen. Charles G. Loring of Boston, and of the Rev. E. A. A. Hoffman of the Episcopalian Theological College in New York.

In reviewing the year's work, Sir John first dealt with Professor Petrie's discoveries among the Royal Tombs and the Temenos of Osiris, at or near Abydos. The results, published for the most part, yielded one more name to the list of kings before the First Dynasty; and many worked flints of various shapes had gone to illustrate this prehistoric period in the museums of England and America. A special extra publication detailing work carried out by Messrs. McIver and Mace at El Amrah and Abydos was also announced, and the great activity at present displayed throughout the civilized world in matters Egyptological was pointedly dwelt upon. Next, Sir John spoke of the Archæological Survey, and of Mr. Davies's facsimile work, which has this year supplied important omissions in and given connection to the scenes of the tomb of Mery Ra, the largest and finest in the northern cliff near Tell el-Amarna. Mr. Davies also visited Thebes, and secured a complete record of the important tomb of a Theban magnate, Aba. This tomb, and the small ones of the southern group, are the subject of the first volume of Deir el-Gabrâwi, in the publications of the Survey. The second volume will give the remaining tombs, identifications by an expert (Mr. Boulenger) of the fishes there sculptured, and a chapter by Mr. Crum on the Coptic *graffiti*. This will clear the docket of the Survey. Its next year's memoir is "already far advanced," and of exceptional interest because of its display of "the art of the heretic period in all its strangeness." A strong appeal for more adequate support for this department of the work was then in order.

Sir John next turned to the labors and publications of the Græco-Roman Branch, adverting to the large volume of Tebtunis Papyri just placed in the hands of subscribers as representing their subscriptions for the years 1900-'01 and 1901-'02. "We are indebted," he said, "to the University of California, which provided the funds for the excavation, for the necessary number of volumes (at an agreed price) to supply our subscribers." These papyri were obtained from the wrappings of mummified crocodiles disinterred at Ûmm el-Baragât in the Fayûm, and Drs. Grenfell and Hunt enjoyed the help of Mr. J. G. Smyly in their decipherment. The documents ranged from 120 to 90 B. C.—a few coming down to B. C. 56. There were three fragments of anthologies or epigrams, and an extract from the second book of the Iliad (eighty lines); but the bulk of the volume consisted of political and economical documents of the later Ptolemaic period, ordinances of Euergetes II. and Soter II., official letters and local petitions. Of these last, one concerned a burglary by which a robe and tunic belonging to the petitioner's mother were feloniously appropriated. They were valued at one talent 4,000 drachmas, and at 4,000 drachmas. "Strange as it may seem, there were dining-clubs in those days, of the accounts of which portions are forthcoming. The members at each dinner were usually about twenty in number, and each paid 100 drachmæ, exclusive of wine, bread, and garlands. The names of the guests, usually about four, are given on a separate list." Finally, after a reference to Appendix II., with its conclusion that, for the second century B. C. the accepted view that the ratio of a silver to a copper drachma was 120 to 1 must yield to a ratio varying from 500 to 1 to 375 to 1, and, after intimating that this newly established ratio would make the petitioner's valuation of his mother's stolen attire a less exorbitant one, Sir John offered his congratulations to the learned decipherers of these papyri. It may not be amiss to advert here to the circumstance that the generous American subscriptions to the Fund have not been at all proportionately given to the Græco-Roman branch. The value of these papyri to classical learning is so great that it seems not unreasonable to expect those interested in the classics to come forward generously in the future.

The third volume of the Oxyrhynchus Papyri was announced for publication in July next; it will contain portions of two odes by Pindar, a large fragment of Menander's 'Kolax,' two mimes, one partly in verse, a fragment of the 'Cesti' of Julius Africanus concerning a MS. of Homer's Odyssey found by him in Palestine, a fragment of Plato's 'Gorgias' and of the 'Iliad,' and also a fragment of Baruch's 'Apocalypse' in the Greek original, now first brought to light as the source from which the current Syriac version is derived.

There followed a review of changes in extant Egyptological museums (to which might be appended the organization under Mr. Lythgoe of an Egyptological department in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts), and then the President went into the details of the formation of the new committee in Boston, where, he said, "the independent supporters of the Fund" have constituted

"a local Committee, under whose charge we may hope that the affairs of the Fund in Boston will prosper, and that the office in that city will, as heretofore, be regarded as the headquarters of the Fund in the United States. The new Committee is exceptionally strong, and consists of seven members, the emeritus Professor of Greek Literature at Harvard, Dr. Goodwin, being the Chairman. His renown as a scholar is world-wide, and he is well known as having been the organizer and first Director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. He is a D.C.L. of Oxford and an LL.D. of Cambridge and Edinburgh. His colleagues are Mr. Thornton R. Lothrop, Mr. Theodore M. Davis of Newport, R. I., Mr. Gardiner M. Lane, Mr. J. Ellerton Lodge, Mr. Albert M. Lythgoe, and Mr. Edward Robinson, all well-known men in Boston, some of whom are familiar with Egypt. Mr. Lodge has been appointed Honorary Secretary, and Mr. Foster has consented to act as Treasurer, though at present he has not joined the Committee."

Lack of space compels me to be very brief in summarizing Professor Flinders Petrie's address. On the subject of the building up of the history of the early dynasties, "few perhaps realize," said he, "that what is quoted now as a matter of course in the order of the kings was entirely brought to light only two years ago in 'Royal Tombs.'" Scarcely a single conclusion had been modified in the two succeeding years which had built up so much more. The main work of last winter was "the reading page by page the successive levels of the early town of Abydos." An exact continuity between the end of the prehistoric age and the beginning of the 7,000 years of written record had been determined entirely as the result of archæology. Our knowledge had gone through four stages: gold-hunting, art-hunting, inscription-hunting, and archæology-hunting. Each stage had been despised as foolishness by those which preceded it, each in its turn had shown a wider interest, a greater importance in the remains of past civilization.

For the coming year's work there was the great site of the oldest Abydos temple, cleared as yet only down to the Eighteenth Dynasty level. The two or three yards of accumulations now left must contain older remains of the temples rebuilt by earlier kings. A series of temples had left their marks, and, he said, the goal sought after was the Temple of the First Dynasty kings on a site which is under the water level until late in the spring. It would be necessary to do the costly work of removing all the upper layers in order to dry the soil below, and finally to work, perhaps, under water.

Two immense Twelfth Dynasty tombs found last year would have to be cleared out. Here the lavish care of the work was attested by red granite sarcophagi of vast size, and hundreds of square yards of polished quarzite, which Mr. Petrie had actually seen in one of them. We might hope for fine objects from these passages and chambers. Also, the excavation of the large fort of the Old Kingdom and of the great cemetery of Abydos was by no means yet completed. So large, indeed, was the amount of work that the committee had agreed to join more workers together, and, he said, "we go out this year a much larger party of united workers than we have ever had before." Mr. Hugh Stannus, a skilled architect, Mr. Currelly, Mr. Rawnsley, and Mr. Ayrton were each to take some part in charge. Miss Hansard had volunteered to give help in artistic drawing, and Miss Eckenstein would attend to camp work on the collections. His own business would be "organizing, arranging, and interpreting the work, drawing and preparing for publication." "Thus," he added, "we shall be a party of nine, and hope to get through in one season what on the old rate would have taken three years." Such a staff would render the Fund less dependent than before on the health of any one person whatever. Indeed, it was the duty of the Society to rescue what they could in Egypt before it was "entirely wrecked by the dealer, the ignorant amateur and speculator, and the commercial destroyer," none of whom left a shred of information. None but the present generation could perform this duty, said Professor Petrie, because, "at the present rate of wreckage, there would be but little left behind for future lives to explore; and he closed with the pregnant and pointed sentence: "Now is the time!" LOUIS DYER.

## CONNEMARA AND "THE GOVERNMENT."

CONNEMARA, November, 1902.

The beautiful broken fringe of western Ireland called Connemara stretches down the coast of Galway for some forty miles. Its rain-soaked valleys furnish some of the poorest and thinnest soil in Ireland. The mountain-sides, covered with heather, gorse, and bracken, picked out with masses of gray rock, are a triumph of color at all seasons of the year. But the soil will not support trees, and the lack of them adds to the wild and gloomy character of the scenery. Connemara means "Bays of the Sea." The coast is so deeply and curiously indented that on an inland drive one is continually encountering salt water where the sea has eaten its way almost to the foot of the confused mass of peaks known as the "Twelve Pins of Connemara." The Connemara peasant grazes his lean black cattle and sheep on wind-swept or boggy patches of rough grass; in the absence of fences, herding is the most common calling, and gives scope for innumerable suits for trespass; for two passions rule the native temperament—the love of pretty litigation, and an insatiate hunger for ownership of the land.

The showy organization of the United Irish League and the prompt action of the Government in putting down boycotting by the League in Sligo have seemed to the outside public an evidence of serious agitation. But it is twenty years since agitation led to serious consequences in this country, and the tactics of the League do not include illegal violence. In Connemara the League has slight hold, a fact due mainly to the increased prosperity of the district. In past years the Connaught peasant was continually haunted by the spectre of potato famine. In the remote village from which I write, the confused and neglected graves of the children who perished in scores in the last "failure" still mar the beauty of the mountain-side.

Two main causes have lightened the burden of Connemara. Emigration, the "passing away" of the people which so impressed Cardinal Gibbons, threatens to be disastrous for the future of Ireland as a whole, but it has proved a blessing to Galway, where the inhabitants were once far too numerous for the soil to support them. Connemara is still a "Congested District," and there are even now cases of terrible overcrowding. The island of Boffin, which has an area of two and a half miles by one, has to maintain a thousand peasants. Every inch of it is cultivated by the spade, for the people are too closely crowded to allow of much grazing. But elsewhere, as a rule, the population is in better proportion to the land. The Galway men, even more than the rest of Ireland, seem to turn their backs on Europe and their faces to the New World. But though a majority emigrate to America, chiefly to Pittsburgh, where there is a large Galway colony, many pass over to Scotland, where there are chances of work in the large towns.

The mere reduction of the population, however, would have done little for a Connemara dependent on potatoes. It is to the efforts of the Government that the people owe their comparative freedom from that slavery—a fact regularly ignored by the Nationalist politician who talks of "the deadly blight of British rule." Ten years ago this place was fifty miles from the railway. The Government, to develop tourist traffic, and for the sake of local trade, ran a line as far as Clifden, seven miles distant, and this railway to Galway has naturally altered the outlook of all the Connemara industries. As an offset to the potato, the development of the fishing industry on this much indented shore was one of the first aims of the Congested Districts Board established in 1891. The Fishery Blue Book, recently issued by the Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland, shows the great progress made in sea fisheries all along the Irish coasts. In 1901 some 26,000 men were employed in the Irish fisheries. Here, to the south of Achill, under the nursing of the Government, the industry has made great strides. The Board has spared no pains or expenditure in its efforts to make the sea support the population to whom the land has proved so grudging. The nearest fishing village now possesses seventeen large boats brought over by the Government from the Isle of Man, and lent on such liberal terms that most of the boats—worth £350 each—are already owned by the fishermen. On every boat, during the mackerel season, a paid expert is provided free of charge to instruct the crew of five men. Moreover, the Government guarantees in all seasons that all the fish landed at the little pier shall be bought by its agents at a fixed price; thus the fisherman need take no thought of the market. A floating marine station is kept up in one of the Connemara bays, with experts whose aim is to discover the conditions under which oysters may be cultivated with profit. Inland the Congested Districts Board is eager to nurse every industry, and to encourage every sign of independent work. It maintains weaving and agricultural experts who are always at the call of the peasants, while in a bad season it sprays their potatoes and furnishes fresh seed. The Government holdings, with their slate-roofed, two-storied cabins and well-fenced land, are meant as an example to the people, who are, as a rule, absolutely indifferent to the condition of their cabins. These holdings are to be acquired on easy terms of purchase by small instalments, and there was keen competition to become a tenant of the Government. The aim in assigning the holdings has been to induce men who live in an overcrowded township to move into new quarters at a distance.

Like Ithaca, Connemara is not a country for horses. Even the Connemara breed of ponies, once famous, is practically extinct. The efforts of the Board have been directed to improving the breed of the stunted horses which it is every peasant's ambition to own, and it has succeeded, at any rate, in more than doubling the value of the foals. But the majority of the peasants cannot afford winter keep or stabling, and the foals are usually sold before the winter season, which prevents permanent improvement in the stock. On the other hand, the importation of expensive pedigree bulls has done much to improve the breed of cattle. The land is not good enough for fattening cattle, so there is no beef to be had, but practically every peasant has at least one milch cow. The Government is endeavoring to oust spade cultivation, and to this end supplies light American machinery and tools at cost price. In the matter of threshing their scanty crops of oats—no wheat is grown—the Connemara native has not even reached the flail stage. The oats are beaten against big round stones, and cleaned of chaff in the wind on the hillside. No threshing machine has ever been seen in Connemara, and last year saw the first horse mowing-machine used with great success on the upland hay.

The visitor who should judge of peasant life in this region from outward appearances would usually be misled. During his recent motor-car tour in Connemara, the new Lord Lieutenant, struck by the squalor of a roadside cabin in this neighborhood, entered and gave a sovereign to the barefooted occupant. But there can be few laborers on Lord Dudley's English estates who need alms less than that family. The

husband is a carpenter in regular work at good wages; he owns a fishing boat and several head of cattle which his holding maintains, and he is supposed to have not less than £200 in the bank. Of how many English peasants can so much be said? Yet this is not an isolated case in Connemara, where the possibilities open to thrift and hard work are much more attractive than for the corresponding class in England; nor can one judge easily of the real circumstances of a people who consider that, by the presence of the pig, the chickens, and a cow or two by the fireside they have secured all the comforts of home. To make such prosperity the rule in barren Connemara, all that is needed is that its inhabitants shall throw off the invalidism of will and the pessimistic apathy bequeathed by their fathers who struggled hopelessly with the potato problem. The aim of the Government is to convince the peasants of the need of collateral industries of all kinds. But it is not easy to induce them to stand on their own feet. Just as the land about him, without constant attention, will revert in a few years to its primitive wildness of heather and bracken, so the peasant of Connemara, if one stops the process of "spoon-feeding," ceases to make an effort on his own account.

An instance of this is a neighboring basket industry. It was started some years ago by an Englishwoman, with the idea of encouraging the people to grow osiers and export their home-made baskets. An easy and profitable cottage industry was thus brought within reach of the younger members of the peasant families. It was, in fact, the sort of attempt that has been made with such success in the Lake country to revive cottage weaving and the like. Here the little basket factory, under its expert instructor, has indeed prospered; the youths are quick to learn, and the basket furniture made there is the best of its kind. The Government was prompt to supply free land for the growth of the osiers. But the industry is bounded by the factory walls and will never take root in the cabins. Those who acquire the art and earn good wages in the factory, no sooner return to their homes than the impulse dies. Work that requires application and skill is wholly uncongenial, and they revert to "the herding," the laziest of all employments.

So much for the efforts of the Government to make the Connemara peasant

> "Content to breathe his native air
> In his own ground."

If he will work for them, "a few paternal acres" can become his on easier terms than in any other country in Europe, but when he has them, though apathetic, he is far from content. It is an unhappy characteristic of the Celt that he never forgets a wrong, real or fancied; and this is seldom reckoned with by his Saxon neighbor, who is always assuming that the Irish will do as he would in the same case—shake hands on an acknowledged grievance and start afresh. When the Connemara peasant leaves his own land, where his priest, in accordance with one of the maxims of the Church, "recognizes the value of ignorance" to an extent that is apt to paralyze Protestant effort; when he gets clear of the gloomy superstitions which he is not allowed to unlearn, and the traditions of oppression and famine which the politicians urge him never to forget, then only can he be counted on for independent effort. In Connemara he is always an invalid; is always liable to a relapse.

W. C. F.

# Correspondence.

## ERNST CURTIUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A book of altogether unusual interest has just been published by Julius Springer in Berlin. It is nothing less than a vivid and adequate portraiture of Ernst Curtius, in a long series of personal letters written during a period of more than sixty years. The work of editing has been performed by Curtius's only son, Friedrich Curtius, Kreis-Director of Alsace, with a grace and skill worthy of the editor's name and of his father. Though the letters are printed without comment, the editor has given, in an able preface of ten pages, some analysis of the conspicuous traits of his father. The volume, of 700 pages, does not consist of letters by Curtius alone. A considerable number of letters by other persons supplement the narrative and enhance the interest of the book. These are chiefly letters of George Curtius, the younger brother of Ernst, and of Emperor Frederick. Another attractive feature of the book is the insertion, in their proper chronological position, of many of Curtius's occasional poems, which are characterized by great beauty. It is difficult to give, in brief space, an idea of the interest of this extraordinary book to all who value German culture. It would be hard to find another life which touched intimately so many influential persons, and was from beginning to end so inspiring. It well-nigh spanned the nineteenth century (1813 to 1896).

Curtius seemed to many a favorite of fortune. He himself used to say that his life appeared to him to unfold itself as if according to a predetermined plan. Yet that was only a modest way of saying that he was always ready for extraordinary opportunities and equipped for unusual tasks. At twelve he suffered a savage box on the ear from a severe gymnasial director for collecting, during school hours, contributions to aid the Greeks in their revolt against the Turks! At fifteen he writes to his father of a thought which much engaged him, namely, that of devoting his life to the careful study of Greek and Latin literature, with special reference to the life of the Greeks. At twenty-three, his university studies not yet completed, he was invited by Brandis, King Otho's privy councillor, one of the distinguished scholars of that day, to go to the newly-founded kingdom of Greece and be teacher of Brandis's sons. At Athens there was then gathered an extraordinary array of able men, from many nations, all interested in, and expecting impossible things of, the new Greek kingdom. With these, Curtius, not yet twenty-five, lived in relations of intimate companionship. At twenty-eight, he was back in Berlin, where all doors were open to him, and the names which constantly appear in his letters are those of the men most prominent in science, literature, and art at that brilliant period, not very long subsequent to the founding of the University of Berlin. Among those with whom the young Curtius was on terms of intimacy were Humboldt, Ritter, the brothers Grimm, Lachmann, Meineke, Twesten, Kugler, Haupt, Schelling, Hermann, Boeckh; and the young man speaks of them all, in his letters to his father at Lübeck, with a freedom which is just as conspicuous as his deep admiration for their talents.

At Berlin, Curtius began quietly to publish the results of his studies in Greece. A brilliant popular address on the Acropolis, in 1844, made him the sensation of the hour, and awakened in the mother of the Emperor Frederick an eager desire that this gifted young savant might guide her son. This public address was the outward occasion of Curtius's appointment as teacher of Crown Prince Frederick. Curtius writes to his father: "My address has set Berlin aflame over the Acropolis, and no fault has been found with me except that my closing bow, which I made to the royal box, was not profound enough. The stiff neck of a Republican could be seen!" It was another public address, on Olympia, in 1852, which drew from King Frederick William the declaration that he was ready to take a plate in hand and go about begging for funds to accomplish the excavation of this historic spot. It was reserved, however, for Emperor William, under the inspiration of his son, Curtius's pupil, to carry out this great work of peace of the German Empire.

The roots of what Curtius was were in his father's house in Lübeck. That noble historic city on the Baltic was a never-failing inspiration to him. His father combined practical capacity with a scholar's spirit; he was both man of affairs and student. What a tempting picture to linger over is that of the family life at Lübeck! How strong was the tie that bound together parents and the four brothers, of whom Ernst was the third! From the first absence from home at Bonn in 1832 until after 1854, the home letters make an unbroken series. We follow the hopes and ambitions of the young student; his estimate of his teachers, always kind, but always discriminating; his interesting and novel experiences of life in Greece; and the early years at Berlin, while Curtius was opening, by his industry and ability, the brilliant path which led him to such brilliant success. His six years at court brought him into familiar contact with persons of the highest importance, especially the King; the Crown Prince, afterward Emperor William; and Curtius's royal pupil, Frederick, who are characterized in the letters with the greatest freedom and the greatest delicacy. In one interesting passage, Curtius suggests that perhaps he had been able to do something to make the evenings at court a little less stiffly dull. Another beautiful touch is where he describes, with tender reverence, the fondness of Humboldt, in extreme old age, for reading aloud, at evening gatherings at the palace, longer than others cared to hear him.

These letters reveal a constant interest in men and things, a delight in the full, rich life of a great city like Berlin, and an inspiring joy in labor and effort. One seems, while reading the elevated and striking thoughts which Curtius pours out to his nearest friends, to see him as he was and almost to hear his voice. I have spoken at length of the series of letters to Curtius's father, because these are so full and

so frequent, and give such a picture of Curtius's early manhood. I have not spoken of the letters, of no less interest, written after 1850, when his influence was greatest and the number of his correspondents largest, nor have I allowed myself to speak of his domestic relations, of which also the letters give some hint. I know no more beautiful picture of life in cultivated German circles for the long period which this book covers, than this volume reveals. I do not believe that another so delicate and charming portrait of a great German scholar exists as these letters supply. They are an invaluable record of much that was most important in Germany in the nineteenth century. The book, at least in liberal extracts, must be translated into English.

ROBERT PORTER KEEP.

NORWICH, CONN., November 21, 1902.

### ONE HUNDRED TWENTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The expression "one hundred twenty" in place of "one hundred and twenty" was probably not invented by mathematicians. In Shakspere's "Henry V." we find the following examples:

"Four hundred twenty-six" (i. 2, 61).
"Eight hundred five" (i. 2, 64).
"One hundred twenty-six" (iv. 8, 77).

This fact no doubt accounts for the use of the phrase by the "pedantic, affected person whose dress, speech, and manner" were so distasteful to Professor Scott.

Yours very truly, LEWIS F. MOTT.

THE COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK,
November 21, 1902.

[We learn that "arithmetical" was dropped before "expression" in Professor Scott's communication. He intended "to confine the discussion to the usage of arithmetical writers."—ED. NATION.]

### THE COCKNEY H.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was much entertained by the protest of your correspondent, "H. W. H.," against American misrepresentations of the use of *h* by the English. For many years I have observed this linguistic phenomenon with some care, both in England and among Americanized Englishmen, and I have been led to formulate the rule applicable in such cases in about these words: Where the *h* belongs, omit it; where it does not belong, place it. I once asked a London policeman to direct me to High Holborn. "Where," said he, "is it you want to go?" I repeated my question, whereupon he corrected me by saying, "You mean 'igh 'oburn." While in the same city I lodged for some time with a man who told me his name was 'Enry 'Amshaw, but when he wrote it, I noticed that he put h before both words. I recently made the acquaintance of a man on a transatlantic steamer, who told me several times that he was going to "Montrehal." These are a few among the many instances I have noted, and I cannot discover that emphasis has anything to do in the matter.

In this country I have known a number of Englishmen who frankly admitted their peccadilloes in this respect, and corrected them when their attention was called to them until they overcame the habit; but they could give no reason for the peculiarity. It is curious that a good many English people deny *in toto* this misuse of the letter *h*. Not long ago, in a company where I happened to be, a German related an anecdote of a peculiar mishap to an Englishman at a hotel in Berlin. He ordered a waiter to bring him some "hice water," who, understanding that his guest wanted *heiszes Wasser*, brought this. As a result of the misunderstanding, the guest burned himself and berated the waiter for his stupidity. The story was told without the slightest tinge of malice; but a lady who happened to be present, and whose treatment of the letter in question betrayed her nationality, spoke up angrily, declaring that all such stories were pure lies; that no Englishman ever talked that way—and more of the same sort. From the scientific point of view we certainly have here before us one of the most curious phenomena in modern speech. I have come across nothing like it outside of English.

C. N. SUPER.

[Our correspondent adduces no example that contravenes the rule laid down by "H. W. H."—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

Persons who possess manuscripts bearing upon the career of William H. Crawford are requested to communicate with Ulrich B. Phillips, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. The letters of Crawford to G. W. Erving and to John Randolph of Roanoke are particularly desired.

The Johns Hopkins Press invites subscriptions to a reprint of four notable economic tracts of the nineteenth century, among those, of great importance in the development of economic thought, which have long been inaccessible to students. Publication will begin in January, 1903, under the direction of Prof. J. H. Hollander. Ricardo's three letters on the Price of Gold (1809), Malthus's inquiry into the Nature of Rent (1815), Sir E. West's essay on the Application of Capital to Land (1815), and Longe's refutation of Mill and Fawcett's Wage-Fund Theory (1866). Each tract will have an introduction and (if necessary) annotations by the editor. Subscription to the series has been fixed at one dollar, the edition being of 500 copies. With proper encouragement, similar series for the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries will be undertaken under the same auspices.

The edition of 'Academic Honors in Princeton University, 1748-1902,' to issue next week from the press and to present a list of salutatorians, valedictorians, honormen, etc., since the founding of the College, in both the academic and the scientific departments, will be limited to 500 copies. This is the first complete list of the kind undertaken by any university. The volume may be had of C. W. McAlpin, Secretary of the University.

The Bodleian Society, No. 92 Fifth Avenue, New York, are about to bring out a "Classic Library of Famous Literatures" in twenty crown octavo volumes, edited by Frederick B. De Berard, with a general introduction by Dr. Rossiter Johnson. By "Literature" in this title is meant Tales. Photogravure illustrations, and indexes, are promised.

'Deeper Teachings of Plant Life,' by the Rev. Hugh Macmillan, and 'A History of Christianity from St. Paul to Phillips Brooks,' by the Rev. W. E. Gardner, are nearly ready to be brought out by Thomas Whittaker.

The Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co. of Kansas City announce for issuance next month 'A Collection of the Writings of John James Ingalls,' edited by William E. Connelley, the biographer of John Brown and General J. H. Lane. The selections have been made by the late Senator's wife.

A Life of Andrew Carnegie, by Barnard Alderson, is in the press of Doubleday, Page & Co.

The ever-recurring English classics mark the advent of the gift season. Macmillan's edition of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' with Austin Dobson's brief preface and Hugh Thomson's agreeable illustrations, is revived in smaller and cheaper form, retaining all the substance of the original. The 'Essays of Richard Steele,' selected and edited by a namesake, L. E. Steele, M.A. of Trinity College, Dublin, swells acceptably the little Golden Treasury Series (Macmillan). The editor traces Steele's life with the aid of recent information to offset Macaulay's misrepresentations and "the picturesque inaccuracies of Thackeray." He remarks that there is not a trace in Steele's writings "of what it is nowadays the fashion to call the Celtic spirit; nor, indeed, in those of any of the Irishmen who have taken a high place in the beadroll of the great English writers. It would seem as if it were not to be in the land of its birth that Irish genius was to find inspiration." The reader is sure to be propitiated by the sympathetic and graceful introduction. A larger page is devoted to the selected 'Poems by Percy Bysshe Shelley' (London: Bell; New York: Macmillan), to which Walter Raleigh furnishes an introduction, thus referred to in a curious note regarding the decorative drawings by Robert Anning Bell: "If they be found superfluous or irrelevant, they must share that condemnation with the preface." The fore-matter is, in fact, rather perfunctory and none too illuminating. Mr. Bell's designs make a pleasant break in the letterpress, and occasionally afford satisfaction in themselves without respect to the text. As is apt to be the case with pen-and-ink work, the smaller pieces are the best. The book is prettily bound. It has no notes or other apparatus than that mentioned.

It is a real service to reprint the late Clarence King's 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada' as Messrs. Scribner have just done. Originally published in 1871, its extraordinary merit as narrative gave it a fourth edition in three years. It has since gone out of the trade. We reopen the book almost by chance at that well-remembered page of "Cut-off Copples's," in which the blond "Pike" moves a stalled team of twelve mules by judicious swearing without the use of the lash, and modestly disclaims all credit for distinction in this branch of the humanities. "You'd jest orter hear Pete Green. *He can exhort the impenitent mule.*" This is Mr. King's humorous vein. Noble descriptions of nature abound in the chapters on Shasta and Mr. Whitney, or in "Merced Ramblings"; and ever the trained scientific eye interprets the phenomena amid which the geologist

makes his difficult way. There are few better books to read aloud.

Books on musical topics are less abundant than usual at this time of the year. Useful as a gift book is a new edition, in two volumes, of Nathan Haskell Dole's 'Famous Composers' (New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.). It is not intended for students of music so much as for amateurs who are anxious to familiarize themselves with the principal events in the lives of twenty composers, described in a gossipy style. The third volume of the 'Oxford History of Music,' written by Hubert Parry and devoted to the music of the seventeenth century (Clarendon Press), will be noticed more fully hereafter. A translation, from the Italian, apparently, of Dr. Alfredo Untersteiner's 'History of Music' is supplied by Dodd, Mead & Co. The author quaintly declares in the preface that "those who know that I have lived in foreign lands, almost from earliest youth, will not expect from me elegance in style." He presents his facts, however, in clear language, and increases the usefulness of his book for students by means of bibliographic lists appended to each of the twenty-three chapters. In his judgments he is impartial. For music students, especially those who wish to compose, is intended 'Counterpoint Applied,' by Percy Goetschius (G. Schirmer). It treats of the invention-forms, choral-figuration, fugue, and canon. A good book on the life and works of Mozart in the English language has long been a desideratum, and it has been supplied at last by Eustace J. Breakspeare (E. P. Dutton & Co.). While sometimes undiscriminating in his criticisms, this author does not go to such lengths of adulation as Jahn, and he otherwise improves on that ponderous and voluminous German. Mozart's operas are analyzed in detail. The piano concertos are less satisfactorily treated than they are by Parry in his article on Concertos in Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians.' In speaking of Mozart's songs the author remarks that few of them were published in his lifetime. "With a Shakespearian indifference to their fate, they remained (for varying whiles) in the hands of those to whom originally sent. This, alone, reveals the state of the music-publishing world in 1791. Fancy a Sullivan, or a Tosti, doing the like nowadays!"

Mr. Winthrop L. Marvin treats with somewhat incoherent enthusiasm of the maritime interests of this country, under the title 'The American Merchant Marine' (Charles Scribner's Sons). He makes it clear that the shipping of the colonies increased wonderfully in spite of the restrictive laws of the mother country, and then proceeds to contend that, after the Revolution, bounties and protective duties were necessary for the preservation of our marine. He insists that a powerful navy is essential for the protection of our commerce, and proves that it throve immensely when we had almost no war-ships. He clinches the argument by showing that our privateers constituted by far the most efficient part of our naval force when we actually engaged in war. So he continues, insisting that our marine was ruined for lack of subsidies, and, of course, winding up with a demand for the payment of bounties. The fallacy of these views was thoroughly exposed by Mr. D. A. Wells, and it would be idle to repeat his facts. When Mr. Marvin forgets his protectionism, he writes entertainingly of ships and their voyages; but his material is taken largely from other works on these subjects which are not likely to be superseded by his own.

Several addresses by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge are reprinted in a volume entitled 'A Fighting Frigate,' published by Charles Scribner's Sons. The 'Fighting Frigate' is, of course, the *Constitution*, and it is needless to say that Mr. Lodge discourses of her career with martial ardor. The other addresses are on John Marshall, Oliver Ellsworth, Rochambeau, Daniel Webster, and three of the recent Governors of Massachusetts. The essay entitled "Some Impressions of Russia" is adapted to correct many of the vague notions prevalent concerning the economic condition of that empire.

We cannot say that Mr. John B. McMaster's 'Daniel Webster' (The Century Co.) adds much to our knowledge of the character of that statesman. Indeed, we fear that readers whose information was derived exclusively from this book would fail to understand a very critical period and a very instructive career. But the account of Webster's life in its most conspicuous incidents is readable, and the impartial, not to say unsympathetic, attitude of the author is favorable to the formation of an unbiassed judgment by the reader. No attempt is made to criticise Webster's speeches from a literary point of view, and his public activity is represented rather as that of a politician than of a statesman.

The little volume, 'In City Tents,' by Christine Terhune Herrick (G. P. Putnam's Sons), holds a deal of wisdom ready for the using by young couples about to go to housekeeping in New York. "The City Tent" is the small flat, and "in city tents," observes the writer, "every one lives in every other person's pocket, so to speak." Her pages are full of excellent practical counsel for the young home-makers, from the time they begin to look for their flat till they are ready to give little dinners and modest after-theatre suppers. In the matter of summer Sunday outings, the book comes near to being a suburban guide, and a good one. Touching food and clothes, it gives sound advice as to the principles of eating and dressing without too closely touching on the receipt-book or the fashion magazine. It is an unpretending manual for unpretending young persons whose lines are cast in narrow spaces. Its matter is sensible, its manner kindly, genial, twaddle-free; its views sane, hopeful, and conciliatory, treating the janitor and the husband as men and brethren.

The dictionary arrangement of 'Harper's Cook Book Encyclopædia' will commend itself to all who resort to it. Classification of breads, cakes, fish, gravies, puddings, sausages, etc., under this scheme goes hand in hand with abundant cross-references. The only fault we have to find with it is, that the rubrics of the main alphabet and the sub-rubrics are not distinguished typographically. "Frog's Legs, Grilled," for example, is in the same letter as "Fruits in Blanc-mange Border," the first following entry under "Fruits." The recipes are very numerous, and some not easy to find in cook books are here given. General remarks on the art of cooking precede the dictionary, and the inside covers contain "the cook's time-table," and weights and measures. Sixteen photographic illustrations display the set table or various articles of food as cooked and served.

In revising his 'First Manual of Composition' (Macmillan) Prof. Edwin H. Lewis has profited by experience and virtually recast the whole. One novelty, in the punctuation section, is the introduction of forty typical sentences to be learned by heart. The section on description is attended by thirty copies of prints after paintings, statuary, architecture, natural scenery, or portraits from life, with Frederick Douglass and Booker Washington closing the series of great men led by John Stuart Mill.

The little primer of supplementary reading in geography, 'Strange Lands near Home' (Ginn & Co.), consists of extracts from papers that have already appeared in the *Youth's Companion*, some by well-known and practised writers like Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, Arabella B. Buckley, Joaquin Miller, Frederick Schwatka, etc. They all relate to the Western hemisphere.

From the same firm we are glad to greet a reissue of the late Jane Andrews's 'Seven Little Sisters,' a series of girl pictures from all over the world that might be regarded as a development of the opening chapter of Judd's 'Margaret.'

'Colonial Children' is the theme of the first of the "Source Readers in American History," selected and annotated by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, with collaboration (Macmillan). There has been a free handling, modernizing, abstracting of contemporary narratives from Hauk Erlendsson's saga of a Wineland baby (1000 A. D.) to Francis Hopkinson's 'Mock Examination' (1784). Here is part of Madam Sarah Knight's lively account of her horseback ride from Boston to New York in 1704, and Franklin's "Too Much for the Whistle"; the strict rules of Harvard College in 1660, Increase Mather's story of his rescue from Indian captivity, and Gov. Bradford's of the first Plymouth landing. The illustrations, some ancient, have been well chosen, and the scheme is much to be commended for school or home.

The second volume in the above series, Mabel Hill replacing Blanche E. Hazard as Professor Hart's helper, deals with 'Camps and Firesides of the Revolution,' and gives us dutiful seven-year-old John Quincy Adams's letter to his father, in 1774; something from the journal of Mme. Riedesel; passages from Timothy Dwight, and from Peter Kalm (on negro servants and slaves, among other things); the story of Putnam and the wolf, of Daniel Boone; some verse, many good pictures again. The third volume, 'How Our Grandfathers Lived,' with Anne Bliss Chapman's assistance, does not fall behind the others in interest; In Town, In the Country, Travellers, Out West, The Indians, At Sea, The Army, At School furnishing the themes for selections. We regret to observe that none of these miscellanies has an index, while the table of contents is very meagre.

The October issue of the Essex Institute Historical Collections is noticeable for a bringing together of authorities regarding "The Affair at the North Bridge, Salem (Mass.), February 26, 1775"—an early discomfiture of the King's troops, about which much has been written by local antiquaries. The article is accompanied by a print of Bridgman's painting of the historic scene, and by portraits of participants or wit-

nesses to the incident, from Timothy Pickering to Capt. Richard Derby.

Among the historical manuscripts published in the November Bulletin of the Boston Public Library is a letter of Gen. Henry Knox, written in 1777, in which he declares that he is "surpriz'd and shock'd at the supiness shewn by the New England States on the untoward situation of our affairs at the northward." He is "much diverted," however, "at the ridiculous exhibition of the [Boston?] money makers on the suppos'd appearance of the enemy in the Bay." There is an interesting confession of a man who "raised" bills of credit in 1776, showing the prevalence of the crime in Massachusetts and the lack of appreciation of its dishonesty. Nathaniel Appleton, writing from Boston in 1778, says in reference to the coming of a British agent, "oh the pittyfull shifts they are put to send over an half begotten illbegotten Hemorphridite which is neither male or female Dependant or Independent not yet born, yet sent across the Atlantic to accomplish more than 60,000 men could do, Oh! strange."

In the Paris letter printed last week concerning the Museum of St. Germain, there was a slip in the last paragraph but one (eleventh line from end), where "Louis XIII." passed for "Louis IX."

—The Rev. A. J. Church has long since proved himself to be a capital story-teller, and many who know nothing of his ripe scholarship have reread his tales from Homer and Virgil. In 'Stories of Charlemagne and the Twelve Peers of France' (Macmillan) he leaves the classical period and moves forward to the Middle Ages. Most of the legends which are here recast for popular use come from the *chansons;* but one of them at least, the story of Ralph the Collier, seems to be unknown in a French version. The Early English Text Society has recently published the Charlemagne romances as they were translated by Caxton and Lord Berners, but, on the whole, the Carolingian cycle is much less familiar to the generality of English readers than is the cycle of the Niebelungen Lied. To the historian the vagaries of folklore are almost as entertaining as they are instructive. In the case of Charlemagne the distortion of fact is less glaring than in that of Attila, but it is still considerable. On the whole, legend tends to abase the great emperor rather than to exalt him. Such touches as that in the Heimskringla Saga, where Sigvat the skald christens Olaf's son Magnus, after King Karl Magnus, "the best man in the world," are rare. Usually Roland and the peers are the true heroes, while Charlemagne is somewhat belittled by their prominence. Mr. Church recalls the analogy of Agamemnon and Achilles, which is quite to the point. "The real Charlemagne," he adds, "was a very great personality, one that impressed his age as deeply as any man has ever done; in these stories he often appears petty, capricious, and obstinate." The tales in Mr. Church's collection present a large number of the cavaliers who figure most prominently in the *chansons* of the twelfth century—Roland, Oliver, Fierabras, Turpin, the crafty Maugis, and Ganelon the traitor. For the sake of Shakspere we must also be glad that Huon of Bordeaux is included among the foregoing worthies, all of whom are somewhat better known than himself. This is an excellent series of tales, and one that will make good pabulum for boys of fourteen who are hungering after adventures.

—The last volumes issued by the Selden Society, Volume XIII. for 1899, the appearance of which was much delayed, and Volume XV. for 1901, deal with two obscure departments of the English law of the thirteenth century, the peculiar laws applicable under the Angevin kings and their successors to the forests and to the Jews. 'Select Pleas of the Forest' are extracts from the proceedings of the Justices of the Forest in their "eyres," or circuits, through the forest counties of England. Their editor, Mr. G. J. Turner, shows that the forest eyre, far from being purely an instrument of tyranny, was a part of the financial machinery of government, and was chiefly concerned with protecting the forests and raising revenue in the shape of fines. He gives a valuable introduction, describing the various forest officers and their functions. In an appendix he supplies a very learned glossary, in which the rich mediæval vocabulary of forest terms is admirably explained.

—Less learned, but even more interesting, is the later volume, 'Select Pleas, Starrs and Other Records from the Rolls of the Exchequer of the Jews,' edited by Mr. J. M. Rigg. This is a selection of extracts from the records of the Exchequer of the Jews between 1201 and 1290, namely, from the time of the Jewish Charter of Liberties granted by King John down to the expulsion of the Jews under Edward I. An excellent introduction by the editor describes the various persecutions—fiscal by the Crown and physical by the people—from which the Jewish community suffered. Indeed, considering the smallness of that community (about 18,000 in 1290), the fact that they had a monopoly of the money-lending business, and the fact that the legal rate of interest seems to have been 43 per cent. per annum, it is no wonder that they were both hated and persecuted. The anti-Semitism of the present day has far less excuse. The Justices of the Jews, of whose proceedings full specimens are here given, were an outgrowth of the Court of Exchequer, and were appointed to assist that court in dealing with cases affecting these most valuable chattels of the Crown. Considering how little original work has been devoted to the mediæval history of the English Jews, and how copious are the sources, Mr. Rigg might have done well to illustrate his points by reference to other authorities. Prynne's 'Demurrer' of 1656, the pioneer work on the subject, and Mr. Joseph Jacobs's very learned little book on the 'Jews of Angevin England,' make one feel that Mr. Rigg has hardly done justice to his material.

—The botanical collections obtained by the Hopkins-Stanford Expedition to the Galapagos Islands on the western coast of South America, were referred to the Gray Herbarium of Harvard University for determination. In the important paper printed in the Proceedings of the American Academy for October, Dr. B. L. Robinson presents the results of careful studies by himself and certain associates, here and abroad, in regard to the peculiar vegetation of this interesting group of islands. In Mr. Darwin's Life (I., p. 276) we read that it was the critical study of the peculiarities of the flora of the Galapagos Islands which was "especially the origin of all my views." With the comparatively rich material now available, in addition to Darwin's some two hundred plants, Dr. Robinson set himself about the task of ascertaining "(1) in how far the vegetation of the archipelago is really peculiar, (2) to what other floras it is most nearly related, and (3) the complicated affinities existing between the florulæ of the different islands." Besides these interesting questions, he desired to throw new light on the origin of the islands themselves. Concerning the points just enumerated, Dr. Robinson says: "While it is thus clear that the Galapageian flora is only an outlying portion of the American flora with a strong specific differentiation, it is impossible to trace its relationship closely to any one section of the Pacific American vegetation. It can only be said in a general way that nearly all the plants of the archipelago are identical with, or obviously related to, species of the Sierras and Andes, or of the Pacific Slope, between Lower California on the one hand, and northern Chili on the other."

—Two views have been held regarding the origin of these islands. The first regards the group as having been raised by volcanic action, and the following facts are urged in support of the suggestion: "(1.) All parts of the islands now visible are obviously of volcanic origin. (2.) The islands are separated from the mainland by a very considerable depth of ocean (more than 1,500 fathoms). (3.) The western coast of South America shows no sign of subsidence, but rather of marked elevation in recent geologic time." Under this view, the clothing of the islands by vegetation has come from seeds, etc., brought thither by winds, currents, and birds of passage. The second view considers the islands as having resulted from the subsidence of intervening land, and hence as being continental islands, or, as one may say, the tops of mountains once a portion of the mainland. The late Dr. Baur, much impressed by the curious relations which exist between the plants of the different islands, was led to adopt the theory of subsidence as more satisfactory than that of elevation. Concerning these noteworthy relations Dr. Robinson presents very interesting statements, which, however, are too long for transcription here. He treats the subject with an impartial hand, and finally arrives at the conclusion that "the botanical evidence, so far as it has yet been made out, is opposed rather than favorable to the subsidence theory."

## FURNESS'S HEAD-HUNTERS OF BORNEO.

*The Home-Life of Borneo Head-Hunters:* Its Festivals and Folklore. By William Henry Furness, 3rd, M.D., F.R.G.S. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902. Octavo. Pp. xl, 197. 88 full-page illustrations.

A rare charm characterizes Dr. Furness's account of some forest tribes in North Borneo. It is not a traveller's story of his wanderings among a strange people, nor a scientific student's record of observed facts, but a skilful combination of both story and record. His object is simply to

describe the native, his appearance, home, occupations, amusements, and, so far as he could learn them, the motives for his actions. So we watch, with him, from the veranda of the common house, the life-current as it flows from morn till night. We take part in expeditions, both for making war and for peace, and join in the elaborate ceremonials and feastings at the naming of a boy. Seated before the fire at evening we listen to the rude music and song and watch the dance, or hear some chief tell of his education as a head-hunter and explain and defend his superstitions. Here, too, we are told the meaning of the tattoo-marks on the body, the feathers on the shield, the carvings on the house-posts, the flight of birds, and other omens essential to the success of a tribe's undertakings. Nearly every important event in the native's life, including sickness, death, and burial, but not marriage, is more or less fully treated. Incidents personal to the author are introduced, and, though always subsidiary to the main theme, greatly heighten the lifelikeness of the scenes pictured. But what contributes most to the charm of the narrative, possibly, is the genuine attachment of the author for this forest-folk. The Kayans and Kenyahs, who seemed at first to be merely uncouth savages, came to be regarded at the end of a twelvemonth's residence among them as "kind-hearted, devoted friends." Naturally, the attachment was mutual; and to the resultant unrestrained, free intercourse between host and guest we owe some of the most interesting and important passages of the book. We should not omit to mention, however, that the reader's enjoyment is enhanced by the author's literary skill and quiet humor, a direct inheritance. The importance of Dr. Furness's work as a contribution to ethnological science, as well as its attractiveness, is increased by the skilful and abundant use of his illustrations. There is scarcely a statement capable of a material representation which is not accompanied by the reproduction of an admirable photograph that enables the reader not merely to verify, but to amplify, the text.

The impression which Dr. Furness's account leaves is of a tropical people who, having reached a certain stage of development, have had their further progress arrested, but who, for some reason, are not relapsing into savagery. Their architectural ability is far above that of many half-civilized races. Their houses, raised on piles fifteen feet high, are strongly built, well floored, well roofed with ironwood shingles; and not a nail is used in their construction. They are sometimes a quarter of a mile long, and capable of sheltering from six hundred to a thousand persons. Really, they are villages of a single street, the veranda being a public thoroughfare throughout the entire length in front of the private rooms. A highly developed artistic sense is shown in the decoration of the houses with carvings and painted borders around doors and along partition walls, but especially in the tattoo patterns carved in high relief on wooden stamps and the prows of their canoes. These Borneans are agriculturists and have considerable mechanical talent, shown in their blowpipes and canoes. A picture is given of a racing-canoe made from a single log 120 feet long and holding quite easily a hundred men. If it is remarkable that with this intelligence their development should have stopped, it is still more strange that they should not have relapsed into perfect barbarism. The head-hunting propensity, as described by Dr. Furness in a chapter of absorbing interest, it would seem, must inevitably debase those who yield to it. A chief told him how his father made him overcome his instinctive aversion to bloodshedding by killing, when a "little fellow," not a captive enemy, but his old nurse, of whom "I was really very fond." And from that time he cherished, "as his highest aim in life, to add every year to that cluster of human heads hanging from the rafters just above us, and gently swaying in the heat ascending from the flames." Yet he gave the impression of being a benignant, gentle-hearted man. Possibly some light is thrown upon the mystery in his vehement defence of the custom:

"No, Tuan! No! the custom is not horrible. It is an ancient custom, a good, beneficent custom, bequeathed to us by our fathers and our fathers' fathers; it brings us blessings, plentiful harvests, and keeps off sickness and pains. Those who were once our enemies, hereby become our guardians, our friends, our benefactors."

The difficulty of the problem is increased by the fact that a neighboring tribe, the Punans, who are much lower in the scale of civilization, "are not head-hunters, and care no more for a collection of human heads than for that of any other animal, and, therefore, never go on a raid." The English Government is doing all in its power to put an end to the practice by punishing it as a crime.

There can be no doubt, however, that the arrested development of the Kayans has much to do with their slavery to their superstitions, many of which are as old as human nature itself. Dr. Furness has collected a great number of facts showing their prevalence and power. The simplest actions of their lives are affected by them. One of the most common and far-reaching is the fear of uttering the name not merely of persons, but of inanimate objects, lest some evil or misfortune should result.

"A Kayan, Kenyah, or Punan never thinks of saying that he is going to search for camphor, but that he is going to look for the 'thing that smells,' and even this he says in a whisper, for fear the camphor crystals, deep in their secret, native home, might hear and elude him after he had all the trouble of chopping down the tree."

In the preparations for Tuba-fishing, the name of the fish cannot be spoken, but another word agreed upon is substituted for it. "This concealment of the truth," they believe, "deceives all the bats, birds, and insects, which are always keen to report to the fish all the sayings and doings of men, and, as Tuba has not been mentioned, no warning can be given." But the utterance of a personal name may be fraught with an unknown and deadly peril. This invests it with great importance, and the naming of a chief's son is celebrated with elaborate ceremonies, ending with a great feast. As no white man, so far as our knowledge goes, had ever been present on one of these occasions before Dr. Furness, his detailed account has a peculiar importance. The name is changed to suit the varying conditions in their lives. A man gave him as a reason for taking a new name that he had been " 'so sick that the evil spirits were trying to make my soul wander away from my body [and here his voice dropped to a whisper]; so I changed my name; now they will not know where to find me.' He looked furtively on all sides, as if afraid that the trick would be overheard by the spirits." The birds and animals are in league with the evil spirits —"to a Kayan there are no such things as beneficent spirits"—and it is essential to the success of any undertaking that the omens should be auspicious. The flight of a bird or its chirp on the left instead of the right of the path will put a stop to the building of a house. They will give up the cultivation of a rice field if on going to it they chance to see a certain deer or snake. The color of a pig's liver may be a sentence of death to some chief. It was with the greatest difficulty and only by the exercise of remarkable tact, that the British Resident, Dr. Charles Hose, brought the expeditions described by Dr. Furness to a successful issue by prevailing upon the natives for once to disregard the warnings of omen birds and beasts. The daily occupations cease; they neither leave their houses themselves nor allow strangers to enter, for days together, while waiting for a favorable omen, as, for instance, the sight of a certain hawk.

Our author is unusually happy in his references to the children, who, in his lifelike pictures of them, appear to differ only in outward circumstances from their civilized brothers and sisters. Very attractive is his account of a favorite pastime of the young girls:

"It was a sort of game of tag that they were always playing, only, instead of one chasing all, all chased one, and this one would get off some little distance from the rest and then suddenly disappear under water. Then the chase begins. All swim as fast as they can to the spot where she had vanished, some swimming with a rapid overhand stroke, while others swam entirely under the water. Then, possibly still in front of them, possibly far behind, up bobbed the girl who was *'it,'* shaking the water from her eyes and giving a shout of derision at her pursuers. Down she went again, and the chase was renewed, all under water, so long, sometimes, that the surface of the river became perfectly smooth, and no one would have imagined that in another moment it would be again bubbling up and dashed into spray by a crowd of laughing, shouting, black-haired, merry girls."

In the last chapters of a book far too short Dr. Furness tells of a visit to the Punans, a nomadic jungle tribe, and of a fishing expedition, a sport in which all, old and young, men and women, join.

Though Dr. Furness has described his forest friends as a most amiable people, and some of the photographs of the natives show much intelligence and character, it must not be supposed that he is silent as to their defects. What shadow can be darker than this which falls across his picture of this honest, hospitable, gentle race? Among them "there is no such thing as unselfish love. . . . Their lives are almost as purely individual and selfish as are the examples Nature sets before them at every turn in the jungle." And "deep-seated in the heart of the joyous, child-like Borneans there reigns in their bosoms, true to their jungle home, an inextinguishable yearning for a head not their own. Nevertheless, I like them."

BOOKS OF PICTURES.

*Old English Masters*, Engraved by Timothy Cole. With Historical Notes by John C. Van Dyke and Comments by the Engraver. The Century Co. 1902.

*Pictures in the Wallace Collection.* By Frederick Miller. London: C. Arthur Pearson; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

*The Deserted Village.* By Oliver Goldsmith. Illustrated by Edwin A. Abbey, R. A. Harper & Bros. 1902.

*World Pictures:* Being a Record in Color by Mortimer Menpes. Text by Dorothy Menpes. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: R. H. Russell. 1902.

*Done in the Open:* Drawings by Frederic Remington. With an Introduction and Verses by Owen Wister. R. H. Russell. 1902.

*The Social Ladder:* Drawings by Charles Dana Gibson. R. H. Russell. 1902.

These half-dozen books are essentially picture-books, not illustrated books. The text varies in importance from Goldsmith's classic poem and Mr. Van Dyke's seriously written "notes" to the mere line of legend beneath Gibson's drawings; but in each case save one the text is there only because the pictures first existed, and it is the text which illustrates, more or less well, the pictures, not the pictures which illustrate the text. Even in the one case where the drawings are illustrations of a preëxistent piece of literature, it is made quite evident that the illustrations are the thing in the present edition, and that the text is republished only as a vehicle for them.

Mr. Cole's engravings after 'Old English Masters' are as beautiful, artistically, as his former work after Italian and Dutch painters, and as far from justifying the claim of superior authenticity which his admirers persistently make for them. Mr. Van Dyke makes it again in the preface to the present volume in terms which it is worth while to examine. His first contention is, that "there has yet to be devised a mechanical process that will render the exact values of tones like the lines of the graver," and that color-values "no lens will determine so accurately as the human eye." He is not content, however, with the claim that wood-engraving makes up in truth of tone what it loses in truth of form, but maintains that it has both kinds of truth. He goes on to say: "Moreover, the excellencies that lie in the photograph the engraver already possesses. His picture is always photographed upon the block, and it is upon this block-photograph that he works. Indeed, it is no inconsiderable part of his craft nowadays to amend the faults of the photograph—to add where it omits, and to modify where it distorts"; so that engraving is more accurate, even in form, than the photograph. And yet it is art, too, and "the engraver is an individuality, not a machine; and if he have the artistic sense, he may be a translator, an interpreter."

The idea that because an engraver works upon a photograph, he therefore retains all its virtues as an accurate copy, is little less than absurd; witness any illustrator who has ever been engraved. Did Mr. Van Dyke ever see a tracing, made even by an experienced artist, and will he maintain that such a tracing has all the virtues of the original? It is not even true that engravings after paintings are more accurate in their values than the best photographs. Color values cannot be accurately registered at all in black and white, but the best modern photographs and photographic productions come nearer to rendering them than any engraver has ever done. Wood engraving gives a much richer tone and a more agreeable surface than mechanical process, and is more pleasing to look at, but it is *not* authentic, and no student would ever base any opinion of the original upon a wood-engraving. A passage in Mr. Cole's notes on the engraving after Constable's "Hay Wain" shows plainly that he himself is perfectly aware of the interpretative and artistic nature of his labors. He says:

"I engraved the picture . . . in as bold a manner as I could command, because I wanted each line to print up as fat and full as possible, as I felt by this means I might arrive at something analogous to the rich and unctuous coloring characteristic of the original. Much that was in the original had, of course, to be sacrificed, . . . whole legions of details are ruthlessly swept away. . . . And thus it is with all art: sacrifice is the rule. Art lives by sacrifice."

What Mr. Cole has produced, then, is a series of works of art in wood-engraving based upon other works of art in paint. As such they are magnificent, and no other man has produced their like for richness of tone and beauty of effect, while as interpretations, in another medium, of the characteristic forms of certain painters they have very great merit.

Apart from the aberrations of this preface, Mr. Van Dyke's text is very good—well thought out and clearly written—though, of course, no other critic would agree with all of it. The chapters on Reynolds and Gainsborough are especially good, and yet he seems to us slightly to underrate the latter painter. He is inclined to depreciate Constable a little, and to minimize his influence on the modern French school, and, we think, to misunderstand Turner and to misstate the reasons of the lack of appeal of that strange genius to many artists. He considers Constable a realist and Turner a creator, and seems to think the indictment against the latter is that his work is untrue. Now it is not because Turner's work is untrue to local fact, or even to natural law, that many of us cannot greatly like him—Claude and Nicolas Poussin, whom we admire, were untrue also—but because his imagination seems to us feverish and theatrical rather than broad and tranquil, his style operatic rather than symphonic, his technique audacious and effective rather than sound. But the work of Turner is too big a subject to be dealt with here, and we shall return to it later in reviewing Sir Walter Armstrong's great book.

'Pictures in the Wallace Collection' gives us twenty collotype reproductions by the Autotype Company, printed in a sepia tone, of paintings of more or less merit by well-known artists. Some of them, like Hals's "Laughing Cavalier" and De Hooch's "Interior with Woman and Boy," are of almost the first rank. The one Gainsborough, his "Mrs. Robinson" (Perdita), is of his most charming work, and one of the two Reynoldses is the beautiful "Nelly O'Brien." On the other hand, we have three of the sensual sentimentalities of Greuze where one would be amply sufficient, and the popular character of the work is similarly accented by the three Meissoniers, only one of which is of his best, and by the Horace Vernet and the Delaroche. The admirable reproduction of the De Hooch is an example of how superior to engraving mechanical process can be, even in the rendering of tone and light and air.

Mr. Abbey was ever peculiarly at home in the eighteenth century, and Goldsmith's 'Deserted Village' gives him an opportunity exactly suited to his great and delicate talent. Some of us, perhaps, will never like anything else quite so well as his drawings to the 'Old Songs' and 'She Stoops to Conquer,' but this is probably a matter of sentiment and association. At any rate, we shall like these better than his illustrations to Shakspere, where the dramatic demands were too much for him or for any man. The nature of his art is distinctly idyllic, and in an idyll like this he is at his best, with his old daintiness and charm and character and gentle humor. It is all the more to be regretted that the book-making is not worthy of the literature and the art. The red cover and gilt edges give us pause at the outset, and the staring likeness of the artist, from a photograph, strikes a jarring and discordant note. The heavily coated paper, which may have been necessary for the reproduction of the pen-drawings, is used also for the letter-press, and the badly arranged page and ugly, fantastic type all tend to increase a sense of discomfort which is like that of trying to listen to Mozart with a clatter of tinware in the next room. The Harpers should really treat Mr. Abbey better, for he is one of their most valuable possessions.

Mr. Menpes has gone around the world to produce the hundred full-page plates, many of them in colors, and the hundreds of little sketches in the text, which make the principal interest of 'World Pictures,' and yet the results are singularly similar and not a little monotonous. He has been everywhere, and the pictures he has brought back might almost have been done anywhere. They are little bits, pleasant enough to look at, rather common in color (which may be the fault of the reproduction), not very interesting in composition or line, and seldom of great or celebrated subjects. The pleasantly garrulous text is said to be by Dorothy Menpes, and her hand may have held the pen, but the voice, with its "I did this" and "I painted that," is surely the voice of Mr. Menpes himself. The book reads like a prolonged interview, and, like enough, that is what it is.

In his introduction to 'Done in the Open,' Mr. Wister calls Remington an "historian," and says of him that he "is not merely an artist; he is a national treasure." Let us call him an "historical painter," and admit frankly that, as such, he is more likely to be valued by posterity than most of those who have assumed to themselves that name. His vigorous art, not without a touch of brutality befitting its subjects, has recorded an epoch much as Mr. Wister has himself done it in his "historical novel," 'The Virginian'; and the fast-vanishing types of Indian and scout and cowboy will live for our successors in his drawings. He has little sense of beauty, and for his work he does not need it. He is not a decorator or an artist for art's sake, but an illustrator, in the larger sense of the word; and his illustrations of a time and

a region will be of the utmost value to the future historian. Mr. Maxfield Parrish has recently shown us that there is material in the arid West for another and a more purely æsthetic art; but a good thing of one kind does not make a good thing of another kind less good. Mr. Wister's obligato of scraps of verse will not add to his reputation.

Mr. Gibson's drawings, too, will have an historical value some day, as will all faithful records of the present, though his record contains less truth and more beauty than Remington's. It is the habit to call such work as his "caricature," but the word is to be admitted as just only if it is allowed to connote exaggeration in either direction, for his young men and maidens are as much handsomer than their prototypes as many of his old men and women are uglier than those one commonly meets with. His present set of drawings has more background than some that have preceded it, and will give more idea to the coming student of the *milieu* of his characters than he has sometimes deigned to do, but it has rather less of costume. The student will be taught that American girls of the beginning of the twentieth century were magnificent creatures, and he will learn what a "pompadour" looks like, but he will often be reduced to wonder how their garments were made, or whether, in evening dress, they wore any other than what used to be called a "slip." For the rest, Mr. Gibson's skill of rendering is as great as ever, and his "studies of expression" are, many of them, admirable.

## NOVELS AND SHORT STORIES.

*Captain Macklin.* By Richard Harding Davis. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Whom the Gods Destroyed.* By Josephine Dodge Daskam. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The White Wolf,* and Other Fireside Tales. By A. T. Quiller-Couch. Scribners.

*The Earth and the Fulness Thereof.* By Peter Rosegger. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'Captain Macklin' is a swashbuckling story of a nice lad whose Irish descent supplies probability for his devotion to "the sex" and for his passion for indiscriminate soldiering. It is the most natural thing in the world to find him campaigning in Central America after West Point has proved inhospitable to his ideas on the subject of hops without leave. No one can handle a Honduras revolution more entertainingly than Mr. Davis, who keeps the reader interested in his young hero and his young hero's heroes—boys of all ages, but alike in their enthusiasm for fighting, with a leaning to fighting on freedom's side. Extravaganza and romance are blended into a beguiling story. The turn given to the love interest is not the least fresh feature in a story that is throughout fresh and spicy.

Miss Daskam's story-book ranges far and wide, from ghosts to drunkards, from poets to librarians. She is at her best, and her best is excellent, in those stories which touch on the extremes of her gamut, where realism is tinged with supernaturalism, as in "A Wind Flower," the most perfect of the group. Here a spindling Maine girl and the Storm Wind join hands almost Hawthorne-wise, affording the reader no shock save one of acquiescence. The Poorhouse Woman, too, half daft because she cannot believe in the Holy Ghost, is the subject of another story that opens tellingly with a bit of sordid detail work, and ends in a half-mystic gleam. The "Ghost Story" is well founded, though rather involved in the telling; and what a strange thing to give the names Darby and Joan to two men friends! "Twilight Guests," wholly a dream sketch, is wishy-washy, while feebleness marks "A Bayard of Broadway" and "A Little Brother of the Books," both dealing with the real unmitigated by the probable. The remaining stories, of the drunken pianist and of the frustrated poet, are original, but not so harmoniously constructed as the best of the others. The title of one, "When Pippa Passed," reveals itself in the end as a pun.

In his book of "Fireside Tales," Mr. Quiller-Couch too roams far and wide, from the palfrey and gerfalcon romance to the modern railway episode. Of all his fields of activity we still delight most in his Cornwall. Smooth and trained as his speech always is, he betrays, or so we fancy, less and less of naturalness in his handling of a topic the farther it strays from his inimitable Cornish coast. This may be a survival of our admiration of "Q's" earliest work, or it may be the old story of the man who never can escape from his first successes, even though he excels them. Be it as it may, we persist in chiefly enjoying such company as the old fisherman who says: "Here you be for the sake of argument, a Christian man, and in beauty next door to the angels, and the only use you make of it is to steal groceries"; and the smuggling Captain who delivers himself of this bit of political economy: "I read my Bible and it says that Cæsar ordered the whole world to be taxed. Now that is sense. Cæsar didn't go niggling away with a duty on silk here and another on brandy there and another on tea and another on East Indy calicoes. Mind you, I've got no personal feeling against King George; but it does annoy me to see a man calling hisself King of England and making money in these petty ways." Their society is to us sweeter than that of the squires and ladies, ghosts and plain citizens, or even than that of the dwellers hard by Borneo. There is not one tale without its adroitness of invention, nor one that does not plainly testify to the writer's gift of expression; but several there are that are made unwieldy by being told as tales within tales, and at least one that reads like a conscious reflection of Kipling. For Kipling, most readers prefer to go to Kipling.

Peter Rosegger's Styrian romance, well translated by Frances E. Skinner, is straight from the heart of a man and from the lap of Mother Earth. Not since 'On the Heights' caught the reading public away into the upper lands of rustic living have we been transported so entirely into a peasant world above the valleys. A modern touch, naturally absent from Auerbach's masterly work, is infused into Rosegger's by his plan of telling the story through the letters of a journalist who, on a wager, has taken service for a year with a peasant farmer. All that he learned, the reader may learn too; he will find it suggestive reading indeed, rousing wonder at the extent and variety of knowledge a peasant must possess in order to manage a mountain farm; wrath at the restrictions that hamper and crush him; aversion to his sordidness; pity at his superstitions; joy in sharing the deliciousness of mountains and forests; interest in the characters and customs of a community good and bad like others, but real, genuine, undiluted, for good or evil. That the family with whom our journalist spent his year was exceptional he admits, yet we find nothing impossible in Adam of Adamshaus, with his childlike simplicity and his unswerving optimism; certainly nothing impossible in his wife, blustering over small trials, turning gentle in great crises, nor in the exquisite portrait of the daughter. The self-appointed farm-hand tells his story admirably, stirring the reader as he himself is stirred by the curses and the blessings of peasant life, with Nature often and society usually against him—at all events in Styria.

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

Of the season's nonsense books for the young, 'The Pete and Polly Stories,' by Carolyn Wells, cleverly illustrated by Fanny Young Cory (A. C. McClurg & Co.), sustain the writer's reputation as a humorist of the house of Lewis Carroll and Edward Lear, with a Carolyn Wells personal equation added. If read aloud, a chapter at a time, this book will be equally amusing to child and reader. 'The Golliwoggs' Airship' (Longmans, Green & Co.), versified by Bertha Upton and "pictured" by Florence K. Upton, relates the ballooning experiences of those former friends of childhood, the Golliwogg and his four wooden doll friends. The adventures are amusing and startling, and the pictures duly representative of Golliwoggs and wooden folk. It occurs to the adult reader that an age of entire sympathy with jointed dolls may need explanation of some of the lines. However, in balloon stories especially, striving after the difficult is quite in order. 'Coquo and the King's Children,' by Cornelia Baker, illustrated in color from original drawings by Lucy Fitch Perkins (McClurg), is also of the nonsense family—prose nonsense this, and an account of the travels of two children and the Court Jester, with sundry companions met on the way. The absurdities are quite enjoyable enough to make one sorry that Coquo should be a real punster, such as one meets in comic opera. However, the children may not notice all his iniquities in that respect, and in all others he is a capital fellow, in whom they will delight, as well as in the two children, in the little queen evolved from a potato, and in the wonderful resources of the enchanted green stone house. The illustrations are graceful in design, and, by comparison with much process color work, delicately attractive. 'Grimm Tales Made Gay,' by Guy Wetmore Carryl, with pictures by Albert Levering (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), can be included among children's books only on the score of being amusing. True, the youthful ear might well be caught by the jingling versification, but for the elders will be reserved the fullest enjoyment of the ingenious perversions of our childhood favorites, and in particular of the quite inimitable "Morals." The black and white illustrations, roughly humorous in character, not inappropriately recall early German caricature.

Nonsense enters into 'Sing a Song of Sixpence: Another Lost Legend' (Boston: George H. Ellis & Co.), but it is by way of the illustrations, eight in number, by Edward Lear, new to collectors, we believe, and now first published. They would be accepted frankly by the youngsters if mated with the nursery rhyme alone; but here there is an attempt to elucidate the rhyme by a half-serious prose invention. The resulting incongruity enhances the humor for adults; what children would make of it must be tested by experience.

'Prince Silverwings' and the accompanying fairy tales by Mrs. Carter Harrison (McClurg) are poetic, telling of princesses and cloud-maidens and such good company. The colored illustrations, by Lucy Fitch Perkins, are charmingly refined in line and conception; the whole volume a handsome one. Little, Brown & Co. publish Katharine Pyle's 'In the Green Forest,' which she herself furnishes with illustrations in black and white, both full-page and in the text. Story and drawings are of a good fairy-tale kind, full of green and winged things, with a plenty of adventure and obstacle before the fairy Red Cap really reaches the Sun Queen and learns magic from her. *Nous autres* may be pained to learn that there is a higher authority on magic than even the Fairy Queen, but the tale is pretty reading. From the same publishing house comes, in sumptuous attire, William Dana Orcutt's 'Princess Kallisto, and Other Tales of the Fairies'; the colored illustrations, gay poppies, beguiling children, soft-tinted marginal drawings by Harriette Amsden. Mr. Orcutt's statement, in his "foreword," that "the wonderful results of the present kindergarten work have emphasized with remarkable clearness the important part which stories play in a child's early life," may make some captious old folk smile as they reflect what a ministering angel Maria Edgeworth was when Froebel lay howling. Further, what would Froebel and the Nature teachers say to Mr. Orcutt's story of the ants being lazy noblemen who are condemned to toil in colonies till they shall have learned to work? And what becomes of kindergarten principles in a sentence like this from the story of the wicked enchanter: "It would not make a nice story at all to tell you about the many evil things which Kron had done, *so you must try not to think about them*"? The stories in the main are pleasing and thoughtful, freighted each with a little cargo of suggestion to the imagination or the moral sense.

No appeal to the imagination is hazarded in 'Six and Twenty Boys and Girls,' pictured by John Hassall, with verses by Clifton Bingham' (London: Blackie; New York: Scribner). An alphabet of good and bad children are held up to cautionary or emulating view, with an absence of subtlety that Gradgrind himself must have applauded. The full-page, highly colored portraits of just and unjust are equally explicit—both, here and there, to the point of roughness. Admonitory literature for small children is so rare in these times that this work may be commended to the parents of children with faults of manner or custom for its warnings and its examples.

'Red Folk and Wild Folk,' the illustrations (both in colors and in black and white) by Edwin Willard Deming, the Indian folk-lore stories for children by Therese O. Deming (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), will charm young children by its gay coloring and large type, while all who care for Indian legend and animal stories will find a peculiar interest in this collection of stories, their almost crude simplicity bearing witness to their pedigree. It is instructive to find again the Rabbit outwitting man.

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. comes Nora Archibald Smith's 'Three Little Marys,' a Scotch, an English, and an Irish, making a very good trio of stories for little girls, characteristic of the three nationalities, interesting without pretence. Three full-page black-and-white illustrations with a colored cover complete the outfit of this little volume. 'The Lovable Tales of Janey and Josey and Joe,' by Gertrude Smith, illustrated by E. Mars and M. H. Squire, come from Harper & Brothers. The vivid pictures are rather fretty with over-detail, but in the child-lover's spirit. The story, beautifully printed, of the every-day doings of three little children would be a suitable one for extreme youth save for the ludicrous overloading with endearing adjectives whenever any one, but particularly whenever Janey, heaves in sight. The dears, beautifuls, lovables, preciouses, that pepper the pages are quite beyond reason. When Janey says to the robin: "I am Janey Monroe, you know, and my little heart is full of love," and when the robin's answering "chee! chee! chee!" is explained to mean, "You see that I am not afraid, precious Janey," it seems almost time to take precautions against sweets between meals. Another blemish is the constant trick of beginning paragraphs with, "And," as if to put the narrative on a Biblical pedestal.

For larger children and, indeed, as the dedication says, "for all those who love children and dogs," is offered, by the Macmillan Co., Mabel Osgood Wright's 'Dogtown,' with many photographic portraits from life, human and canine, by the author. There is more than dog story in this entertaining volume—there is dog-learning; nor is it surprising to find woodland and bird lore as well filtering through the pages. A mild love interest adds little to the merits of the book, and the small boy Tommy's sweethearting is artificial. It is difficult to imagine a boy of six calling a girl of eighteen "a kind of flower fairy," or saying, "I don't think looks matters much. If you just like things you see 'em all right." Anne is better, and the dogs are entirely delightful, made alive and personal as only the closest intimacy of knowledge and understanding could make them.

'Ten Girls from Dickens,' by Kate Dickinson Sweetser, illustrated by George Alfred Williams (J. F. Taylor & Co.), furnishes the extracted and condensed histories of the Marchioness, Little Nell, and eight others, told as far as possible in the great original's language. A black-and-white full-page illustration accompanies each one—the cover and the frontispiece are especially good—and the whole is a beautiful piece of bookmaking.

'Young George, His Life,' told and drawn by Edith Farmiloe (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), presents in colored full-page illustrations, each one confronted with a line of text, the pitiful status of a "little father" of the London slums, his family, his responsibilities, his fights, his occasional amusements. For the adult it is pathetic with its effective drawings; but there are pages—such as those relating to the drinking mother—which are not suited to children.

'What a Girl Can Make and Do,' by Lina Beard and Adelia B. Beard (Charles Scribner's Sons), is seen to be every variety of handiwork from carpentry to basket-weaving, and all sorts of amusements indoors and out. Girls should surely be greatly pleased with this book. Its full and clear instructions and illustrations should put them in possession of a thousand resources for keeping fingers and minds entertainingly busy.

## BROWNING AND TENNYSON.

*The Poetry of Robert Browning.* By Stopford Brooke, M.A. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1902.

The title of the first chapter of this book, "Browning and Tennyson," suggests the historic twinship among great authors, as in the case of Homer and Æschylus, Virgil and Horace, Dante and Petrarch, Shakspere and Milton, Voltaire and Rousseau, Goethe and Schiller, Emerson and Hawthorne. As the Greek saying has it, "Nature's dice are always loaded," and they are sure to fall in pairs. It is doubtful if either of the two poets in the present case has before had a critic so thoughtful and judicial as Mr. Brooke. Of the two, his Browning book seems the abler, partly because the breadth and variety of Browning open up a greater width of theme than the slenderer and more fastidious muse of Tennyson. The impression given in this book is that, on the whole, Browning is the author's favorite of the two. He recognizes clearly from the beginning that Browning had always freshness and Tennyson had not; that Tennyson was conventional and clung to a caste, while Browning was much more a man of the world, and at the same time free as to his poems; that Tennyson inherited something of the sentimental strain of the period just before him, while Browning was absolutely himself; that Tennyson was wholly English, while Browning was much more European in his associations and materials, though his temperament was English and "his roughness of form was positively early Teutonic" (p. 31). Tennyson, moreover, "is never impressionist, and never could have been," while Browning, "who had in long poems done the very opposite of impressionism, had also in a number of short poems anticipated impressionist art by nearly forty years. 'Porphyria's Lover,' many a scene in 'Sordello,' 'My Last Duchess,' 'The Laboratory,' 'Home Thoughts from Abroad,' are only a few out of many" (p. 10).

Mr. Brooke thus sums up the essential difference between the two poets:

"He [Browning] strove to paint the whole. It was a bold ambition. Few have fulfilled it so well. None, since Shakespeare, have had a wider range. His portraiture of life was so much more varied than that of Tennyson, so much more extensive and detailed, that on this side he excels Tennyson; but such portraiture is not necessarily poetic, and, when it is fond of the complex, it is always in danger of tending to prose. . . . He loses the poetic turn of the thing of which he writes, and what he produces is not better than rhythmical prose. Again and again Browning fell into that misfortune; and it is a

strange problem how a man who was in one part of his nature a great poet, could, under the sway of another, cease to be a poet. At this point his inferiority to Tennyson as a poet is plain. Tennyson scarcely ever wrote a line which was not unmistakably poetry, while Browning could write pages which were unmistakably not poetry" (pp. 44, 45).

Mr. Brooke adverts to that theory, of which Lowell was so fond, that Browning had Jewish elements if not in his blood, yet in his intellect, spirit, and character, and concludes that he was "a complex creature," whereas Tennyson was not complex. He notes that Browning's love of color was far more intense than that of Tennyson, and that sometimes, as Ruskin says, "it is not color, it is conflagration"; but it is at any rate an essential part of Browning. Browning, he thinks, comprehended women far better. Tennyson could deal with a few simple well-known types, of both good and bad women; but Browning, in describing women, "touched great variety and great individuality"; "each of his women is distinct from the rest." "He neither lowered her, nor idealized her beyond natural humanity, . . . and he has wrought this out, not by elaborate statement of it in a theory, as Tennyson did in 'The Princess,' with a conscious patronage of womanhood, but by unconscious representation of it in the multitude whom he invented" (pp. 346, 348). It is to be noticed, however, that Mr. Brooke's criticisms on Browning's women are among those passages over which the reader of this book will be most tempted to doubt his author's judgment. In dealing with the strong picture of the wanton Ottima in "Pippa Passes" (p. 331), or the poor sinful child Mildred in 'The Blot in the 'Scutcheon' (p. 338), we venture to think that Browning knew what he was drawing far more profoundly than his critic. Again, we should dissent from the opinion that Balaustion was, among women, "the finest creature Browning drew" (p. 389). Mr. Brooke paints admirably the steady lessening of the imagination and steady increase of the intellectual element in Browning (p. 415), and thinks that it had begun even while he was at work on 'The Ring and the Book,' yet points out the exceptional charm and power of a few of these later occasional poems, as "Hervé Riel" and "Pheidippides," while he justly finds some of them "needlessly ugly," as "Halbert and Hob" (p. 433). In the greater part of "Parleyings with Certain People" "imagination such as belongs to a poet has deserted Browning" (p. 435). Mr. Brooke truly says, in summing up his poet's total service:

"He kept, in the midst of a fretful, slothful, wailing world, where prophets like Carlyle and Ruskin were as impatient and bewildered, as lamenting and despondent as the decadents they despised, the temper of his Herakles in 'Balaustion.' He left us that temper as his last legacy, and he could not have left us a better thing" (p. 440).

As a rule, it may be said that, if we recognize Mr. Brooke's own distinction between the imaginative and intellectual in Browning, his critic finds himself most at home in the intellectual, less in the imaginative, and least of all in the domain of emotion. Thus, his analysis of the powerful poem "Caliban" is so profound as to leave nothing to be desired, but in dealing with the much-discussed "Childe Roland to the Dark Tower Came," Mr. Brooke is quite shy and self-distrustful, and almost inclined to think that his poet merely put odds and ends together aimlessly, which certainly was not Browning's way (p. 276). Mr. Brooke quotes "Meeting at Night—Parting at Morning" rather as if they were pleasant little verses in the corner of a village newspaper, instead of being, as they are, strains so concentrated and so perfect as to be likely to live as long and prove as inexhaustible as Sappho's Ode.

We should be doing injustice to Mr. Brooke's rich and thoughtful style if we did not quote his closing words:

"As if the Muse of Poetry wished to adorn the image of his death, he passed away amid a world of beauty, and in the midst of a world endeared to him by love. Italy was his second country. In Florence lies the wife of his heart. In every city he had friends, friends not only among men and women, but friends in every ancient wall, in every fold of Apennine and Alp, in every breaking of the blue sea, in every forest of pines, in every church and palace and town hall, in every painting that great art had wrought, in every storied marketplace, in every great life which had adorned, honored, and made romantic Italy—the great mother of Beauty, at whose breasts have hung, and whose milk have sucked, all the arts and all the literatures of modern Europe. Venice saw and mourned his death. The sea and sky and mountain glory of the city he loved so well encompassed him with her beauty; and their soft graciousness, their temperate power of joy and life, made his departure peaceful. Strong and tender in life, his death added a new fairness to his life. Mankind is fortunate to have so noble a memory, so full and excellent a work, to rest upon and love."

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*Illustrations of the Book of Job.* In twenty-one plates invented and engraved by William Blake, Author of Designs to "Blair's Grave," "Young's Night Thoughts," etc. London: Published by the Author, 3 Fountain Court, Strand, and Mr. J. Linnell, 6 Cirencester Place, Fitzroy Square. March, 1826.

[One thousand copies issued in facsimile by J. M. Dent & Co., London, and G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1902.]

The latest important work of William Blake was that entitled as above. Linnell was not a publisher in the usual sense of the word, but rather an artist, a hard-working and sucessful painter, who had employed Blake, or encouraged him in this and in other artistic enterprises. Linnell was guided thereto, as it would appear, partly by pure desire to aid a struggling brother artist, partly by that worthy ambition to cause artistic work to be produced which, as a man of feeling at once and of mental energy, he showed throughout his long life. What he thought of Blake's work it is not easy to ascertain; but his actions were such as would do credit to a richer and to a more influential man than Linnell ever was, and he was able to leave to succeeding generations a series of works by the more imaginative man, by the exceptional artist, Blake; works having a stronger hold than Linnell's own on the graver attention of posterity. For in reality there has never been an artist, whose works are known to us, so entirely alone in art, so absolutely apart from any school or the influence of any tradition. To call him a religious painter-engraver is to lead the student astray, because there is no close observance in his work of any Christian traditions, whether artistic or liturgical; and only a general, laic, Protestant Bible-reader's view of Old Testament records. To call him an artist of strong and pure imagination is to exaggerate the importance of his work, because he dealt rather with grotesque exaggeration, such as was excited in his mind by half-gained knowledge and half-understood dreams. To call him an artist of sentiment, of that universal human feeling which is found in the fine art of words even more freely than in the arts of color and form, is to ignore much the greater part of his mental life, namely, its mystical side; whereas, to call him a mystic is to ignore the fact that his rejection of realism proceeded from impatient indifference to what most artists think essential to their art, rather than from a deliberate attempt to reveal or discuss mysteries. Every student of his life is entitled to his own and a separate and distinct view of the combination, in Blake's mental condition, of a kind of insanity with imaginative power and with the tendency to fanciful excess. It might be held with, perhaps, equal plausibility that, if he drew the figure very badly, it was because he could not see it rightly, had never learned its true character, and was, therefore, presumptuous in drawing the figure at all; and, on the other hand, that his spirit was full of visions which crowded one another so closely that there was no time or mental grasp sufficient to see each one clearly, and that he was far too sincere and too direct in his moral aim to spend time in rectifying his drawing or solidifying his composition.

The experience of art-students is usually that they care most for Blake when they are young, and as yet not greatly practised in their art; and yet this is not the universal experience. It would be hard to escape the impression, when some one is found very enthusiastic over the 'Book of Job' or other plates of Blake's, that as yet the greatness and the splendor of the artistic world have not quite revealed themselves to the enthusiast. In literature there is hardly the like of what William Blake was in art; and yet it may be said that there are certain mystics, certain illuminati, whose poems or unrhymed rhapsodies give more pleasure to the beginner in literature than to the veteran. So with the illustrations for the Book of Job; if one is well versed in intelligent, learned, sane, and yet powerful art, he will care less for the dreams and visions which fill these twenty-one plates. The monstrous caricature of an elephant which is used (plate 15) to stand for Behemoth will repel rather than attract, while the final plate, showing how the Lord blessed the latter end of Job more than the beginning, will pass as but half-understood sentimentalism. On the other hand, no one can refuse his tribute of admiration to the design in plate 3, in which the columns and walls are falling upon the sons and the daughters of Job, while Satan presides over the destruction, balanced, as it were, upon a falling stone whose support his spiritual essence is seen not to require. And so it is with the treatment of that same Satan, occurring again and again in the plates; he is asexual, and is partly invested with scales, as if in some suggestion of a lower nature than that of man. The way in which the story is told has at once the good and evil of extreme intensity.

Concentration of horror or of peaceful

tranquillity deliberately intended excludes other considerations. Realism, of course, is entirely remote from the conception of such designs, and yet the separate instances are treated in a realistic way; it is only their combination and their concentration into a scene that is the very reverse of real, which is purely fantastic. Thus, the runner who approaches Job and his wife with the cry, "And I only am escaped alone to tell thee," is shown in headlong race, and, however ill-drawn the limbs, and however ill-expressed the attitude and the action of running (the foot resting flat upon the ground even in the action of running), it is still reality which controls that figure. On the other hand, the presentation of Job and his wife as already overwhelmed with grief, eyes raised to heaven, and hands clasped in attitudes of despair, while still the one runner has only just reached them and the other is seen far behind, is an entirely unrealistic conception, as completely so as if it were expressly announced as a metaphorical rendering of the idea of loss and of grief.

It appears, then, that the very doubts which invest this subject and the hesitation which every art student must have as to the true place in art of the 'Book of Job,' are a sufficient reason for its reproduction. The original work is of very considerable scarcity, and of great cost. The reproduction issued by the London and the New York house and sold here at a reasonable price will be found to give nearly all the artistic value of the original plates; losing more in the brilliancy and beauty of the prints than in other ways, and therefore revealing all of Blake that there is in the designs except his merit and charm as an original engraver on metal.

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*New France and New England.* By John Fiske. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

It is difficult to review a posthumous book by John Fiske without saying at least one word about the author. The memory of his luminous mind and of his great learning, of his shrewd humor, and of his true simplicity, is as yet too strong to be put by. In most cases the reviewer must keep his attention fixed upon the work rather than upon its writer; but where the thought of the writer's eminence is enforced by the recentness of his death, the ordinary rule can hardly be observed in all its strictness.

There is a further reason why a reviewer of this volume should be tempted to stray from his duty of immediate and particular criticism. In a publisher's preface, it is stated "that 'New France and New England' completes the story of the settlement and development of the colonies up to the point where Mr. Fiske's 'American Revolution' has already taken up the narrative. It therefore gives a final unity to the sequence of remarkable volumes which he has devoted to American history." Here, then, one is tempted to speak of the series as a whole and of Mr. Fiske's historical methods; but such subjects, though attractive, lie beyond the scope of the present notice.

Mr. Fiske was an experienced and accomplished lecturer, as thousands of people in different parts of the country have reason to remember. His 'New France and New England' consists of ten chapters, which might be styled ten separate essays were it not for the fact that most of them are couched in lecture form and were delivered before the Lowell Institute. Personality is, on the whole, more likely to emerge during a lecture than during an essay, and almost every page is redolent of Mr. Fiske himself. His complete freedom from pretence is visible in all his writings, but nowhere more eloquently than here. He talked copiously from the fulness of knowledge, but with no affectation of learning, and his style of writing was equally spontaneous. His genuine interest in the subject of his research is reflected in the animation of his narrative.

While this latest of Mr. Fiske's writings bears genuine marks of his quality, we cannot pretend that we think it by any means the best of his works. To some the title may bring disappointment, for in the contents one finds no systematic attempt to examine the relations of New France and New England, to point a contrast between divergent political systems, or to delineate the successive phases of national rivalry. The first four chapters are given to the historical geography of New France, the fifth to Salem witchcraft, the sixth to the 'Great Awakening' produced by Jonathan Edwards, the seventh to Norridgewock and Louisburg, and the last three to the Seven Years' War. Thus geography and war get most of the text, with witchcraft and Jonathan Edwards thrown in; yet in the whole book there is hardly a word of Frontenac, and no account is given of his policy towards New England.

We feel very certain that, had Mr. Fiske lived longer, his final account of the duel between France and England in America would have possessed greater unity than can be claimed by the book with which we are now dealing. Perhaps a little more care might have been shown regarding points of detail. However, the main thing is that the studies in question exist and have been published. The four chapters on French exploration form a little series at the beginning, and the three chapters on the Seven Years' War make a group by themselves at the end—a group to which the story of Pepperell's expedition against Louisburg may fitly be added. In the middle come the articles on Salem witchcraft and the religious revival in New England. For our own part we must say that we prefer the chapters which treat of life in New England. They seem fresher, although the subjects themselves are well worn, and they show a firmer grasp of the material. The chapters on New France are at the disadvantage of following in the track of Parkman, and there is little to indicate that Mr. Fiske had made a special study of Canadian history. He is much interested in the Indians and the *voyageurs*, but the development of the colony is put altogether to one side.

Mr. Fiske was essentially a humanist in the broader and higher sense of that term. Although the problems of philosophy and science appealed to him deeply, he cared quite as much for the concrete, and did not divorce his intellectual interests from the ordinary affairs of mankind. The depth and quickness of his sympathies go far towards accounting for his success as a popular historian. He was not above being clear and simple, nor did he shrink from putting into his books what the average reader cares to hear about. For perorations and other rhetorical tricks he cared little, but, when touched by the spectacle of such torments as the poor victims of Salem suffered, he could use language of unwonted fervor: "We can but faintly imagine what must have been the destruction of confidence, the breaking of the dearest ties, the madness, the reign of savage terror; and we cannot be too grateful that the gaunt spectre which stalked so long over the fairest parts of earth has at length been exorcised forever!"

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*John Mackenzie,* South African Missionary and Statesman. By W. Douglas Mackenzie, M.A., Professor in Chicago Theological Seminary. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1902. Pp. xii., 564, portrait.

The appearance at the present time of this biography is singularly opportune. South Africa is to be "settled," Mr. Chamberlain is on his way as settler, and it is here made clear that he, of all English statesmen, had best secured and held the esteem of the subject of this book. In their views of the needs of the case they essentially agreed. Mackenzie was an imperialist of a class which we do not always quite understand or exactly distinguish. For him imperialism meant the supremacy of the central government—federalism we might call it. His ideas upon it were largely modelled on the treatment by this country of its Territories, and also affected by the problems and results of our civil war. He saw that the greatest difficulty in South Africa lay in the rapidly growing colored population; he was in fact the first to note that rapid increase. Further, he recognized that no white pioneer class could be trusted to act fairly by "natives." They would make of them a subject race, whether slaves in name or not. Yet, for him at least, the races of South Africa were worth saving, must and could be saved. To accomplish that and bridge the gulf for them to self-government—protecting them on the way from being exploited by whites—he advised simple protectorates (using their tribal chiefs) and crown colonies. The last, oddly enough, he compared with our Territorial government. So he fought, and successfully, the incorporation of Bechuanaland into Cape Colony, the spread of Dutch rule—which meant always an enslaved black race with no rights against a white man—and the jurisdiction and system of the British South African Company.

His difficulties were great and of a strange kind. It is hardly credible, and yet this book makes it plain, how little English politicians less than twenty years ago thought and knew about South Africa. They had no interest in it, would not be troubled with it; nothing could be made of it. So they were driven on without a policy, refusing to see either opportunity or duty. To open the eyes of the English to this problem, one to which they were bound to come sooner or later, was Mackenzie's public work. In it he was only partly successful. Entire success would have prevented the Boer war; entire failure would have meant the enslavement of all

the native races. Yet, considering the English attitude, it is rather wonderful that he accomplished so much. Their timidity—so strangely contrasting with present high hands and mailed fists—ran back to a feeling that the mass of the new democracy was unreliable, fickle, and averse to any new responsibilities, and the fear of that democracy was upon them all. That a democracy could be imperialistic never entered their heads or certainly their convictions. Mr. John Morley, of whose honesty Mackenzie thought highly, said frankly: "I grant yours is far the nobler position and begets more worthy and chivalrous feelings"; but yet he rated it impossible. Froude's attitude was still more and cynically hopeless. Mr. W. E. Forster, on the other hand, was with him throughout. With Mr. Rhodes and his kind of imperialism he could have no sympathy; commercialism and money power could, for him, found no true state. He regarded Rhodes as pursuing an essentially double course, Dutch with the Dutch and imperialistic with the English. Of Mr. Gladstone he and his biographer have significantly little to say. It is perfectly clear what Mackenzie thought of Mr. Gladstone's South African policy, but the halo round the figure of the great Liberal leader is still too bright for an English Nonconformist to dare to speak out. Of Disraeli there is not a single word.

This, then, is no ordinary missionary biography, but a book which must make its weight felt both as a record of the past and as a suggestion as to the future. Of defects in the treatment there are few. There might have been much fuller detail on many points, but these are surfaces under which the ashes are still glowing, and the biographer, religious especially, must step cautiously. In the large, Professor Mackenzie has accomplished his delicate task well. The admiring son is far in the background, and we have a strong picture of one man by another. And the claim of the title is fairly made out. This was both a missionary and a statesman. As both, his position may, perhaps, be best summed in the following sentences written in 1891:

"I believe I was the first to point out the possibility of the peaceful opening up of native territories under the Imperial Government, accompanied by the recognition of the rights of natives to their holdings, and by intelligent steps taken to secure those lands to their owners under the Imperial Government." (P. 454.)

"The problem in South Africa is not an easy one in any circumstances. What I fear is that her Majesty's Government is in danger of acquiescing in its own expulsion from active administration in new territories, by a few men in the Cape Colony, before there is a Confederated South African Government to which it could hand over its duties; and I am well aware that no greater calamity could possibly happen to South Africa." (P. 456.)

With imperialism of this kind we can surely have no quarrel.

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*The Last Days of the French Monarchy.* By Sophia H. MacLehose. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons. 1901. 8vo, pp. xiv, 391.

No adequate introduction has yet been written to the history of the French Revolution. Many attempts have been made to picture the *ancien régime*, ranging from the philosophic and highly finished chapters of De Tocqueville to the most trivial of the innumerable sketches of the private life of Marie Antoinette. Many important contributions to the subject are of course available, but we still await a sound and comprehensive explanation of the French Revolution which shall satisfactorily establish the historic continuity between the old and new France. Reasons why such a work should still be wanting are not far to seek. In the first place, the very word "revolution," as Carlyle long ago warned us, is used in almost as many senses as there are writers on the theme. He himself meant by it, if we remember rightly, the upbubbling of disimprisoned anarchy, and many have accepted this definition. Sharply to be distinguished from this notion is the conception of the French Revolution as a great permanent change which separates the France of Napoleon and later times from that of the eighteenth century. The more superficial volcanic phenomena have until recently fascinated most observers. They have recorded the rumblings and the darkness, the stifling fumes and the lightning flashes. The fundamental and permanent alterations have been forgotten in the turmoil of transient disorder. It is obvious that one to whom the upbubbling of anarchy and the prevailing of the powers of darkness constitute the essence of the Revolution, should look inquiringly to the *ancien régime* for an explanation of Hébert and St. Just. The more profound student of the subject will also turn to the eighteenth century for an explanation, not, however, of an explosion, but of an enduring and fundamental political and social reorganization.

Even if writers were at one in their interpretation of the Revolution and its antecedents, they would still have to face an important inherent difficulty of their subject. It is necessary, in dealing with the *ancien régime*, to describe the conditions in France and the lot of all classes of society, from the king and his immediate companions to the peasant. At the same time, extraordinary changes which took place during the generation preceding the opening of the States-General must be even more carefully studied than the ancient political and social organization of the kingdom. Unfortunately, writers have never succeeded in doing justice to both the static and dynamic. The scholar who has best succeeded is, perhaps, Gomel, who, in his 'Histoire financière de la Révolution Francaise,' has exhibited with remarkable clarity and precision the economic conditions, the trend of public opinion, and the experiments of the ministers.

The volume in hand belongs in the same class with Lowell's excellent 'Eve of the French Revolution.' It is a popular and eminently readable account of the most striking features of the old order; for the most part, based upon unimpeachable sources. It is the first of two volumes; in the second, the author proposes to carry on her narrative from the summoning of the States-General in 1788 to the establishment of the First Republic. After a description of the royal town and all its Persian apparatus, there come three brief chapters on the administration, the privileges, and the *philosophes*. Then, with a correct instinct for discovering the real beginnings of the Revolutionary movement, the writer turns back to the Austrian Alliance, and soon introduces us to the Empress's little daughter, to whom the leading place is assigned in the succeeding pages. Marie Antoinette is treated with refreshing candor. The author frankly and fully describes the Queen's gambling and her minor indiscretions, but takes no delight in exposing the weaknesses which the loyal Madame Campan and those who accepted her judgment have been wont to conceal. Since the publication of the correspondence of honest Count Mercy with the Queen's mother and brothers, there is no longer any doubt that, in spite of the fundamental propriety of the Queen's conduct, she exercised a most malign influence upon the public policy, and justly called down the hate of the nation. The writer's account of Turgot and Necker is clear, and perhaps as adequate as could be expected under the circumstances. It is noteworthy that Calonne, the Notables, and the conduct of the Parlements during 1787-8 receive far more attention than is granted them in other popular accounts of the period. This promises well for the second volume, which will doubtless be read with pleasure by those who have profited by the first.

As one lays down the book, he cannot but reflect that, although all may be quite true that has been said, there is a certain failure to grasp the essentials in the critical situation in which France found itself. The pomp and circumstance so vividly described were in no way new, nor were the frivolity of the Queen and the embarrassments of the ministers. Several of the books which would have helped the author to a deeper insight have been omitted from the long list of authorities which she consulted. None of Babeau's admirable works except that on Paris is mentioned, nor Gomel's volumes. Even Rocquain's well-known 'Esprit Révolutionnaire' and Aubertin's 'Esprit Publique au Dix-huitième Siècle' are omitted. The author cites Loménie's 'Beaumarchais,' but not his 'Mirabeau.' Hanotaux's monograph would have prevented the repetition of the old mistake through which the establishment of the intendants is assigned to Richelieu. Lastly, the whole momentous matter of the Church is almost entirely neglected. Something can be done to rectify these deficiencies in the second volume, and the scope of the work should be broadened, if it is to include all the important phases in the regeneration of France.

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*Early Prose Writings of James Russell Lowell.* With a prefatory note by Dr. Hale of Boston, and an introduction by Walter Littlefield. John Lane.

Thcse who recall the latter pages of Mr. Scudder's delightful biography of Lowell can hardly have forgotten the description (vol. ii., 395) of the pains the poet took with the final revision of his prose writings, going over them all with care, "tucking in" or "erasing" whatever he wished, with his final decision that the "buccaneers" should "go hang." He did not live to see that it would not be so easy as he had supposed to inflict this penalty on the pirate class, or that his own early friends would lend countenance to the buccaneering. The book now before us contains Lowell's college prose, such as it was—and it was poor enough—and those early views of the British dramatists, printed in 'Conversations on Some of the Old Poets,' which he had re-

fused to reprint, as wholly immature and sometimes expressing opinions retracted afterwards. Dr. Hale, in his introduction, goes over ground which he has before traversed in telling the story of Lowell's college days; and does it so hastily that he describes Lowell, as a sophomore, coming into a college room to arrange for a meeting of the "Harvard Union," which all old graduates testify to have been a society for juniors and seniors only; moreover, he gives the name of Charles *S.* Loring to the lawyer with whom Lowell studied, meaning Charles Greely Loring, one of the leaders of the Boston bar. The editor of the book, Mr. Littlefield, is so unfamiliar with the literature of that time as to rate Lowell's magazine, the *Pioneer*, as inferior to the *Boston Miscellany*, to which it was as much superior, during its brief career, as the *Atlantic* was afterwards superior to the *Pioneer* itself. He thinks Mr. Lowell fell behind Nathan Hale, editor of the earlier magazine, in not appreciating the value of the novel, although, as a matter of fact, Mr. Hale's magazine printed no novel, and Mr. Lowell's *Pioneer* began upon one in its first number. This, "The Armenian's Daughter," was contributed by his junior editor, Mr. Robert Carter, then an eccentric youth, whose main peculiarity was the construction, in imagination, of works of fiction on the most enormous scale. His main work of this kind, which he delighted to describe in detail, as being in steady progress, was to consist of twelve volumes, each as large as Eugene Sue's 'Wandering Jew,' then popular; two volumes of this mammoth work being prospectively devoted to an episode consisting of a History of the World, narrated by a hermit amid the Mountains of the Moon in Africa. Mr. Littlefield finally concludes that the once noted Nathaniel P. Willis exhibited "marvellous perception" in pronouncing Lowell to be "a very unfit editor for a periodical," although Lowell afterwards proved just the contrary in the *Atlantic Monthly*, where he had a fair field for action. Such are the vagaries of editors and biographers.

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*The Leaven in a Great City.* By Lillian W. Betts. Dodd, Mead & Co.

This is an account of New York's East Side poor, impressive from the writer's intimacy with her subject, and from her attitude towards it, at once sympathetic and judicial. It begins with recalling the tenement-house agitation of 1878, inaugurated by the conference called by the State Charities Aid Association. It describes certain Fourth Ward alleys on the very lowest level of poverty and degradation; then moves on to better things—to the improvements effected by the College Settlement work, the forming of Mothers' Clubs, Working Girls' Clubs, and kindergartens; nothing extenuating as to their difficulties and hindrances. Miss Betts's knowledge of the working-girl class lends profound interest to her statement that "the inspiring fact remains that the standard of home life in ethics, as in necessities, is rising." Of moment, too, is her estimate of the great class of independent wage-earners "as far removed from the incapable, the degraded, the vicious, the dependent, the ignorant—who provide the themes for books—as far removed from the worthless, the deficient, the mentally, morally weak, so familiar to the people of wealth who give money or time, or both, to lessen their miseries, as they are in standard and ambition from the people counted wealthy." "There is no word to distinguish them from those who make capital of their poverty, and the world loses much because of the lack of a term that would express the class who are the hope of this nation, whose children are the promise of its established greatness."

For the influences making against the very poor, Miss Betts arraigns chiefly political indifference among voters, and the "divorce between the churches and the political control that makes the environment of the home and the churches." Of many eleemosynary institutions she says: "They exist because so many good people in the community have found greater pleasure in establishing and maintaining them than in working actively to prevent the growth of the condition that peoples them." The pages devoted to Col. Waring bring home this truth: "The greatest benefit that Col. Waring, that man of law and order, conferred upon New York, was not its clean streets, but the moral lesson that a city department can be administered to secure the best interests of the people on the principles that control the best business houses of the city." "Twenty years of Col. Waring, and the moral tone of the most ignorant would be changed." The view throughout is that of the College Settlement. "Little fathers and mothers" receive no sentimental sympathy. Their work is their best training. Some of the chapters plainly were written in the after-election glow of 1901—"The apotheosis, New York redeemed."

Photographs of some of the city's most characteristic old parts lend interest, but even more illustrative than illustrations are the many stories told out of the writer's own experience. The book is, as a whole, a valuable contribution to the consideration of city problems, and furnishes impressive reading.

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*Theory of Differential Equations.* Part III. (Vol. IV.): Ordinary Linear Equations. By Andrew Russell Forsyth. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi, 534.

The successor of Cayley here truly presents us with the fifth volume of his useful work on differential equations; for his more practical 'Treatise' on the same subject really forms an essential part of this. No further volume is promised; but the author does not declare that he will give no other, and we are inclined to think that one more will come. Certainly, enough topics have been passed over to furnish forth two, and that richly. Although it cannot be called a complete handbook, the work has a tolerably definite plan and a judicious one. Whatever would more particularly interest an algebraist or student of the theory of groups is omitted. Whatever stood right across the path of a writer on Differential Equations is treated in a general way. Works of several American mathematicians are necessarily expounded in this volume. Prof. G. W. Hill's method forms the subject of one of the ten chapters, and that is meagre allowance. An unfinished MS. treatise of the late Prof. Thomas Craig has been made use of. Theorems by Osgood, Bôcher, Van Vleck, and others appear. A peculiar sort of suggestiveness attaches to that of Bôcher.

Of course, such a book can have no interest to the generality of our readers except in this respect. The premises upon which pure mathematics rests are few and simple. So far as they are capable of definite numeration, there are about a score of them. The reasoning is wholly deductive. If, therefore, deductive reasoning were what the logic books represent it to be; if, as Kant says, it merely explicated what is confusedly thought in the premises; if, as Mill says, it merely registered what had already been accepted, then the total number of mathematical conclusions could not exceed the total number of possible combinations of premises—or, say, something like a million, including the most trivial. By this time, then, pure mathematics ought to be approaching exhaustion. Doubtless, the current impression among ageometrical persons is that such is the case. Yet the four volumes of Professor Forsyth's 'Theory' present, in somewhat full outline, only about two-thirds of the discoveries made during the nineteenth century in a subject which has occupied about one-tenth of the total energy of mathematicians; and far from there being the slightest sign of exhaustion, the bulk of the new work is increasing in geometrical progression, while it is constantly growing more and more profound and broad. As many new *methods* of value now appear in a decade as there were born of new *theorems* in the same interval a hundred years ago. Here is a subject dealing with nothing but the abstract creations of the mind; a subject, too, in which comparatively few are able to make discoveries; and yet it may be doubted whether sixty volumes could give a very much fuller account of the mathematical discoveries of the nineteenth century than could be given in the same space of the discoveries in so rich and universally accessible a field as biology. At any rate, the fact that there is no utterly overwhelming discrepancy affords food for rumination.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allchin, W. H. A Manual of Medicine. Vol. 4. Diseases of the Respiratory and Circulatory Systems. The Macmillan Co.

Alderson, Barnard. Andrew Carnegie, the Man and his Work. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.40.

Armstrong, Sir Walter. Turner. London: Thomas Agnew & Sons; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $40.00.

Askham, Richard. Moods and Outdoor Verses. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard.

Bagot, R. Donna Diana. Longmans, Green & Co.

Banks, Elizabeth L. The Autobiography of a Newspaper Girl. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.

Beach, Allgood. A Disciple of Plato. Boston: Roberts Publishing Co.

Bentham, George. The Variorum and Definitive Edition of the Poetical and Prose Writings of Edward FitzGerald. Introduction by Edmund Gosse. Vols. I.-III. Doubleday, Page & Co.

Berard, Victor. Questions Extérieures. Paris: Armand Colin.

Bonnell, H. J. Charlotte Brontë, George Eliot, Jane Austen. Longmans, Green & Co.

Bretherton, R. H. The Child Mind. John Lane.

Brine, Mary D. Lassie and Laddie. E. P. Dutton & Co.

Campbell, J. G. Witchcraft and Second Sight in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.00.

Carpenter, Frederick Ives. Wager's Life and Repentaunce of Marie Magdalene. University of Chicago Press.

Cary, Clarence. The Trans-Siberian Route. Published by the Author. 50 cents.

Coe, George Albert. The Religion of a Mature Mind. Fleming H. Revell Co.

Coleman, P. J. A Martyr of the Mohawk Valley, and Other Poems. The Messenger Press.

Connor, R. Glengarry School Days. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.25.

Crothers, Samuel McChord. Miss Muffet's Christmas Party. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Cummins, Maria S. The Lamplighter. New edition. Houghton Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Dole, Charles F. The Smoke and the Flame. American Unitarian Association. 80 cents.

Edgren, Hjalmar. An Italian and English Dictionary. Henry Holt & Co.

Ellwanger, George H. The Pleasures of the Table. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50.
Farrow, E. S. Camping on the Trail; or, Some of My Experiences in the Indian Country. Philadelphia: American Arms Publishing Co.
Fisher, Sydney George. The True History of the American Revolution. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
French, Arthur W., and Ives, Howard C. Stereotomy. John Wiley & Sons.
Gautier, Théophile. Journeys in Italy. Translated by Daniel B. Vermilye. Brentano's.
Ghent, W. J. Our Benevolent Feudalism. The Macmillan Co.
Gibson, Charles Dana. The Social Ladder. R. H. Russell. $5.
Glyn, Elinor. The Reflections of Ambrosine. Harper & Brothers.
Goepp, Philip H. Symphonies and their Meanings. Second series. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Preface by Austin Dobson. Illustrations by Hugh Thomson. New ed. Macmillan. 80c.
Goodspeed, George Stephen. History of the Babylonians and Assyrians. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Gower, John. Complete Works. Vol. iv. The Latin Works. Edited by G. C. Macaulay. H. Frowde.
Graham, Douglas. A Treatise on Massage: Its History. Mode of Application, and Effects. (Manual Therapeutics.) New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Grenfell, B. P., Hunt, A. S., Smyly, J. G. The Tebtunis Papyri. Vol. I. Henry Frowde.
Hale, Edward Everett. Memories of a Hundred Years. The Macmillan Co.
Hall, G. Stanley. Kinderpsychologie und Pädagogik. Translated by Dr. Joseph Stimpfl. Internationale Pädagogische Bibliothek. Altenburg: Oskar Bonde.
Hapgood, H. The Spirit of the Ghetto: Studies of the Jewish Quarter in New York. Funk & Wagnalls. $1.35.
Harker, L. Allen. A Romance of the Nursery. John Lane.
Harper's Cook-Book Encyclopædia. Harper & Bros.
Hart, Albert Bushnell. How Our Grandfathers Lived. The Macmillan Co.
Haviland, C. A. A Lawyer's Idle Hours. 2d ed. Brooklyn, N. Y., 982 Fulton Street: The Author. $1.00.
Hewett, G. M. A. The Open-Air Boy. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Hibbard, Grace. Wild Roses of California: A Book of Verse. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.00.
Higginson, Ella. Mariella of Out-West. The Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Hill, Grace Livingston. The Angel of His Presence.—Bowyer, Edith M. N. Gabriel the Acadian. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. 75 cents.
Hort, Prof. F. J. A., and Mayor, Prof. J. B. Clement of Alexandria; Miscellanies, Book VII. The Greek Text, with Introduction, Translation, Notes, Dissertations and Indices. Macmillan.
Huebner, Francis C. Charles Killbuck. Washington: The Herbert Publishing Co.
Hunt, Gaillard. Writings of James Madison. Volume III. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
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Irving, S. C. Odes of Anacreon. Translated. Evanston, Ill.: William S. Lord.
Jordan, David Starr. The Philosophy of Despair. San Francisco: Elder & Shepard.
Jordan, Leopold. Interviews with a Monocle. San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co. 50 cents.
Jordan, William George. The Power of Truth. Brentanos.
Kasson, Gracia, and Tschantré, E., jr. The Tan Tales: A Book for Children. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Keen, Adelaide. With Saucepan over the Sea: Quaint and Delicious Receipts from the Kitchens of Foreign Countries. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Kelleen, W. V. Henry Wheaton: An Appreciation. (100th Graduation Anniversary Address.) Boston: The Merrymount Press.
Kent, Prof. C. F. The Message of Israel's Lawgivers. The Laws of the O. T. Codified, Arranged in Order of Growth, and Freely Rendered in Paraphrase. Scribners.
King, S. H. A. Bunch of Rope Yarns. Boston: Richard G. Badger. $1.25.
King, Clarence. Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada. New ed. Scribners. $1.50.
Kiser, S. E. The Love Sonnets of an Office Boy. Chicago: Forbes & Co.
Knowlson, T. Sharper. The Art of Success. Frederick Warne & Co.
Kobbé, Gustav. Signora. R. H. Russell.
Larned, J. N. A Primer of Right and Wrong. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 20 cents.
Laughlin, Clara E. Stories of Authors' Loves. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Laughlin, Clara E. The Evolution of a Girl's Ideal. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Laut, A. C. The Story of the Trapper. D. Appleton & Co.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Mr. Sun and Mrs. Moon. R. H. Russell.
Leonard, Mary F. Mr. Pat's Little Girl. Boston: The W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Liand, Louis. Pages Eparses. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr.
Lindsay, Lady. A Christmas Posy. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.
Louis, Prof. E. H. First Manual of Composition. Revised. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Love Poems of Herrick. (The Lover's Library.) John Lane.
Lowell, James Russell. Early Prose Writings. John Lane.
Lucas, F. A. Animals before Man in America. D. Appleton & Co.
Ludlow, Rev. J. M. Incentives for Life, Personal and Public. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Lumholtz, C. Unknown Mexico: Five Years' Exploration among the Tribes of the Western Sierra Madre, etc. 2 vols. Scribners. $12.00.
Mann, Dr. G. Physiological Histology; Method and Theory. Henry Frowde. $5.00.
Marshall, E. Lizette: A Story of the Latin Quarter. Lewis, Scribner & Co.
Mason, A. E. W. The Four Feathers. Macmillan. $1.50.
Mason, D. G. From Grieg to Brahms: Studies of Some Modern Composers and their Art. The Outlook Co. $1.50.
Mathers, John. The History of Mr. John Decastro and his Brother Bat. 2 vols. New ed. Pittsburgh: The Irwin Press.
Mathieson, William Law. Politics and Religion in Scotland. 2 volumes. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons. $6.25.
Maud, Constance Elizabeth. The Heroines of Poetry. John Lane.
Maudsley, Henry. Life in Mind and Conduct. The Macmillan Co. $3.50.
McClure, Alexander K. Recollections of Half a Century. Salem: Salem Press Co.
Meade, L. T. Girls of the Forest. London: W. & R. Chambers; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Mell, P. H. Biological Laboratory Methods. The Macmillan Co.
Menpes, Dorothy. World Pictures. Illustrations by Mortimer Menpes. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: R. H. Russell.
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Miles, Eustace H. Avenues to Health. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co. $1.50.
Miles, Louis Wardlaw. King Alfred in Literature. Baltimore: John Murphy Co.
Miller, Rev. J. R. To-day and To-morrow. ("What Is Worth While" Series.) T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50 cents.
Miller, F. Pictures in the Wallace Collection. London: C. Arthur Pearson; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $7.50.
Murray, T. Douglas. Jeanne d'Arc. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Nichols, Rose Standish. English Pleasure Gardens. The Macmillan Co. $4.
Norcross, Frederick Walter. Plays and Poems. The Chiswick Press.
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Pennington, Jeanne G. The Sea of Circumstance. The Abbey Press. 50c.
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Pyle, Katharine. In the Green Forest. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Recipes for the Color, Paint, Varnish, Oil, Soap and Drysaltery Trades. London: Scott, Greenwood & Co.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.50.
Remington, Frederic. Done in the Open: Drawings. Introduction and Verses by Owen Wister. R. H. Russell.
Saintsbury, Prof. G. A History of Criticism and Literary Taste in Europe. Vol. II. From the Renaissance to the Decline of Eighteenth Century Orthodoxy. London: Blackwood: New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Sewell, T. Elements of Electrical Engineering. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.00.
Seymour, Miss Clara H. Masterpieces of Greek Literature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Stevenson, Robert L. Virginibus Puerisque. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. $1.25.
Stickney, Joseph T. Dramatic Verses. Boston: Charles E. Goodspeed. $2.50.
Stillman, W. J. Billy and Hans. London: George Bell & Sons.
Stimson, F. J. Jethro Bacon of Sandwich. The Weaker Sex. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.00.
Stoddart, J. H. Recollections of a Player. Century Co.
Sudermann, Hermann. The Joy of Living. Translated by Edith Wharton. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Swift, Jonathan. A Tale of a Tub. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. $1.25.
Thruston, Lucy M. Jack and his Island. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.20.
Turner, George K. The Taskmasters. McClure, Phillips & Co.
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Ward, A. W., Prothero, G. W., and Leathes, S. The Renaissance. Vol. I. (The Cambridge Modern History, planned by the late Lord Acton). Macmillan.
Williams, G. F. The Diamond Mines of South Africa: Some Account of their Rise and Development. Macmillan.
Williamson, C. N. and A. M. The Lightning Conductor: The Strange Adventures of a Motor-Car. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Wilson, Calvin Dill, and Reeve, James Knapp. The Flight of the Hebrews. Dayton: United Brethren Publishing House.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 4, 1902.*

## The Week.

It is something of a coincidence that Congress met on the very day that the International Shipping Trust went into operation. Senator Frye sees in this conjunction one argument more for passing the Ship Subsidy Bill. Here is this vast combine, willing to spend $50,000,000 on new steamers if Congress will only furnish half the money. The Maine Senator is no doubt in earnest, but if he makes such a proposal on the floor of Congress it will be received with shouts of laughter. A bill to pension Crœsus would have as good a chance of passing. Ship subsidies are dead, nor does it require a post-mortem to determine what killed them. Mr. Morgan did it with his little syndicate.

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The Comptroller of the Currency, in his annual report, recommends that national banks be allowed to issue notes over and above the amount of their security bonds, beginning with 20 per cent. of their capital, and increasing gradually to 50 per cent. "A graduated tax on the amount issued," he says, "joined with ample provisions for their redemption and return to the issuing bank, would result in the necessary contraction when the circulation became redundant and the notes were not needed in business." This is very true, but it is also true that ample provisions for their redemption would produce this result without the graduated tax or any tax different from that which the law now imposes. Since the public pay for the use of all the notes they take out and keep out, they can be depended on to return all that they do not really need. All that they do really need they ought to have, and the Government need concern itself only with their goodness. The Comptroller's report is, nevertheless, a notable and helpful communication. It presents, in the way least likely to cause alarm, the arguments in favor of an "assets currency." While disclaiming any originality for the suggestions made under this head, the report is well timed to meet and support a growing public demand for a currency more responsive to the varying needs of business, especially those of the crop-moving season.

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As was expected, Secretary Moody's first annual report makes an earnest appeal for more officers and men for the navy. Unlike his predecessor, he passes over the question of more ships with the moderate statement that he believes it to be his "duty to recommend a continuance without interruption of the increase of ships." The precise type of ships he is quite willing to leave to the wisdom of Congress. He is even ready to admit that there are "differences of opinion among naval authorities" upon this point, and therefore he thinks that two battle-ships will about fill the bill. This is in refreshing contrast to the perfervid appeals of his predecessor, whose insistence that the spending of $100,000,000 on battle-ships was the best possible use to which the money could be put in the interest of labor, made him a laughing-stock. Secretary Moody's latest tables as to the dearth of officers show that there will be a deficiency of 1,360 at the end of the next four years. Apparently, Mr. Moody and his fellow-advocates foresee an endless increase of ships and men. If we build two more battleships and a few more cruisers every year, we have no doubt that tables could be prepared showing that by 1910 we shall need 2,360 more officers to man our swollen fleets, and so on *ad infinitum*. If it is not time, as we think it is, to stop building more ships, it is at least time for our legislators to sit down and formulate a distinct policy, fixing definite bounds to our naval expansion and allowing the public to pass upon them.

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Mr. James Breck Perkins, the historian, who is Congressman from the Rochester district, has been interviewed by the *Democrat and Chronicle* of that city on several subjects appertaining to his public duties, and among others that of the tariff. He says that he intends to introduce two bills at the opening of the session—one to repeal the duties on coal and meats, and the other to repeal those on hides and rough lumber, clapboards, and shingles. He doubts whether either of these bills will be passed at the short session, but he thinks that it would be good politics for the Republican party to pass the former of the two within a week after the session begins. Mr. Perkins is a protectionist, but says that he does not intend to be humbugged by names. A duty of 67 cents per ton on coal and of 5 cents per pound on beef is not protection, but an imposition on American laborers and manufacturers. "Sooner or later," he adds, "bills like these will be passed. If, while I represent this district in Congress, I can in any way contribute to reducing the price of the coal that burns in the stove, or lessening the cost of the meat that is cooked in the kitchen; can make it possible for the manufacturer to turn out his shoes cheaper, and the artisan to build his house for less money, I shall feel that I have been of some service to my constituents." Mr. Perkins is well qualified by training and reputation to become a leader of the advanced thought of the Republican party on this question.

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The failure of the attempt to settle the anthracite dispute by direct negotiations shows that the matter was so complicated as to require the services of an impartial commission. That the pressure to carry out the arbitration by commission should come from the independent operators is also highly significant. These gentlemen are in a better position than the railroad mining companies to deal at first hand with their own workmen, while they gain correspondingly little from general agreements. Their belief that the whole anthracite situation should be presented before the special commission and given to the public will be generally shared, for no settlement of the dispute is likely to be permanent unless it has the approval of the public and is openly made on the basis of facts.

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The sudden displacement of the Minister of Colombia at Washington and the appointment of the Secretary of Legation to take charge of the negotiations respecting the Panama Canal, point to an early adjustment of the questions at issue. It is said in explanation of Minister Concha's stubbornness on this subject that, in his view, the granting of perpetual control of the strip of land through which the canal must pass would be a violation of the Constitution of Colombia, which forbids the abrogation of sovereignty over any part of her territory. Of course, this is a respectable position for any government to take, and for any Minister to insist upon if his Government so holds. Yet that view seems somewhat incongruous with the power granted to the United States by treaty to keep the Panama Railway open, which power was exercised by us only a few weeks ago, when an American Admiral sent an armed force to remove obstructions to transit placed there by other armed forces. This was or was not an infringement of sovereignty, according to the viewpoint of the individual observer. If he is a strict constructionist he will say that it was; if not, not. But, in fact, this power was granted to us when the Panama Railway received its charter, and has been frequently exercised without protest from the Government of Colombia. Possibly the Constitution of Colombia has been changed since those powers were conceded to us. All these questions, however, seem likely to be settled satisfactorily, now that the Government at Bogota has taken them out of the hands of Mr. Concha. Secretary Hay seems

to have scored another victory of considerable importance.

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The London *Daily News*, commenting on the situation in Venezuela, holds that if the United States is to have the privileges of the Monroe Doctrine, she should also have its duties, among which is that of preventing the South American republics from becoming a danger to the civilized world. The *Daily News* here shows a deficiency in the sense of humor which we have often noticed in the attempts of statesmen and publicists of the Old World to understand the Doctrine. The great merit of the Doctrine lies in the fact that its limitations have never been defined. Consequently, it is adapted to all sorts of emergencies. It is like the auctioneer's garment, "large enough for any man and small enough for any boy." It fits the case of Venezuela now just as well as it did seven years ago. At the present time, that country is higgling over her debts to England and Germany, relying on the United States either to give bail for her, or to prevent the creditors from collecting their money by seizing her custom-houses. According to the latest advices from Washington, we shall do neither. The Doctrine never made us responsible for the borrowings or pilferings of the transient governments of Central and South America. The only thing that could make us responsible for such claims would be an attempt on our part to prevent other nations from collecting what is due to them, and using such force as may be needful to that end. The question may be asked, What is due to them? Anything is due to them which they have our permission to collect. This shows the adaptability of the Doctrine to all possible cases.

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The monetary situation in Mexico deserves the attention of the ex-Bryanites. Our gold dollar is worth $2.85 in Mexican silver. That is, the national money is cheap and plentiful. The planters, though probably ignorant of Gresham's law, rejoice at the prospect that the cheap dollar will stay in the country, and feel that the widening ratio of silver to gold is a matter which affects only the bankers and merchants of the cities. Thus a rudimentary division of the nation into "silverites" and "gold bugs" is already apparent. How long the agrarian classes will be delighted to receive more dollars which are progressively worth less in gold or in goods, remains to be seen. It always takes a certain time to discover the fallacy of high prices paid in a depreciated currency. But Mexican bankers and importers are under no illusions in this matter. They are already making gold contracts, and reckoning with a fluctuating foreign exchange. It will be interesting to see if this capitalistic preference for the yellow metal will not produce a Populistic movement in behalf of the dollar of the fathers. But the Mexicans have this advantage over ourselves, that, while the people are subject to all sorts of political aberrations, the Government will treat the monetary problem in the cold light of reason. Abraham and his four hundred shekels of silver are not likely to be cited before the Congress of Mexico.

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We are much pleased with the "authoritative" announcement from Platt's friends in Washington that he is willing to abdicate on condition that his son Frank be elected in his stead. Why not? If the Senatorship is Mr. Platt's personal property—as he undoubtedly considers it to be—why should he not be allowed to make it over as a family heirloom to his dutiful son? Simon Cameron passed on the Pennsylvania Senatorship to his son Don, just as Quay is understood to be making ready to elevate his son Dick to our hereditary House of Peers; why should not Platt be entitled to do what he will with his own in similar fashion? The son could not be a more useless Senator than the father. He could vote as straight, be as dumb, and as eagerly grab all the patronage in sight. What more would New York have in the way of a representative? We fear, however, that even the Republicans in the Legislature are not yet disciplined to the point of swallowing everything bearing the name of Platt without gagging. Frank Platt has so publicly, and on so many occasions, displayed what Swinburne calls "facetious idiocy," that he would have to pay a thumping inheritance tax before being allowed to take over the Senatorship under his father's will.

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Popular discussions on the stump during the recent campaign doubtless led many persons to suppose that the canal improvements in this State could be carried out forthwith, whenever one party or the other said the word. Those who gathered this impression must have been somewhat surprised, during the last few days, to learn that nothing like agreement exists on so important a detail as the route of the enlarged waterway. Of course, the questions of route must be settled before the people can be asked intelligently to pass upon the proposed expenditures, and it is really an encouraging circumstance that the serious consideration of this problem has begun. The decision lies between the lake route, which contemplates a use of Lake Ontario for a distance of 112 miles, terminating at Oswego, and the route across the State substantially following the line of the present Erie Canal. The advantages claimed for the lake route, which has been favorably reported on by State Engineer Bond, are less cost and smaller maintenance charges, besides shorter time required to traverse the canal. These claims undoubtedly have a substantial basis. Engineer Bond has estimated that the canal, by the lake route, could be improved to 1,000-ton barge capacity, and the present Erie and Champlain canals substantially enlarged at a cost of $60,000,000, which is $20,000,000 less than the cost of a similar canal over the present route. The estimated difference in time favorable to the lake route is thirty-five hours for barges and forty-five hours for propellers. With the use of Lake Ontario and also of Oneida Lake, there would be 195 miles of open waterway, requiring no maintenance whatever.

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These arguments, though forcible, are by no means conclusive. The claims made for the route across the State are exceedingly strong. The lake route proposed would leave out Rochester and Syracuse altogether, besides many other smaller towns and cities which owe their importance in part to their positions on the line of the present canal. Side lines and feeders for the use of these centres would but lamely answer their needs. Buffalo, also, has reason to fear the lake route, and is emphatically against it. While it contemplates transhipment at Buffalo, and provides for the use of practically the present route from Buffalo to Lockport, it is quite likely that shippers might readily fall into the habit of sending their grain and other freight by steamer through the Welland Canal from Lake Erie to Lake Ontario and thence over the open lake to Oswego, there to tranship and enter the barge canal. This might be fine for Oswego, but it would arouse fear lest the enlarged canal might become a mere chute for the passage of freight to this port, without other benefit to the State. If it is true that local traffic should be an important feature of the improved canal (and it seems to us that it ought to be), the objections to the lake route deserve most careful consideration. Practically, also, the friends of the canal improvement project must take into account the political bearing of the two propositions. How can a route be adopted which is opposed by Buffalo, Rochester, Syracuse, and many other communities formerly counted as advocates of the canal improvements?

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Much curiosity, and some perplexity, exist in regard to the Elevated and Subway merger. The question is asked, what the Subway enterprise has to gain by leasing the Elevated roads, on terms which are certainly very liberal. The 7 per cent. dividend to be guaranteed on Elevated shares is pledged to a property which has been paying only 4 for five years past, whose highest record has been 6, and whose capital stock is being heavily increased. The two undertakings will, of course, be competitors at

the completion of the Underground; they are, for the most part, parallel enterprises. Experience with this city's development has taught that inroads of new competition on the earnings of a local transportation enterprise will be only temporary; diversion of traffic to the new route is apt soon to be offset by pressure of increased traffic on both. But experience has also shown that shrinkage of the older enterprise's earnings may, in the interim, be severe. When the surface railways, in the nineties, extended their facilities and became, in fact, competitors for the Elevated's "short haul" traffic, each of the above-named principles was demonstrated. During the fiscal year 1893, the Elevated system carried 219,621,000 passengers, and earned $11,137,000. Yet within six years its passenger movement had declined to 177,204,000, and its earnings to $9,325,000. About that time, as residents of the city very well remember, pressure of moving population overflowed even the greatly expanded facilities of the surface lines, until, in the fiscal year just closed, passenger traffic on the Elevated had risen to the high-water-mark of 223,427,000, with earnings of $11,067,000.

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It is announced, as one purpose of the pending merger, to mitigate the violence of this intervening shrinkage. How it can be done by the act of a management is not altogether plain. "Rate-cutting," the nightmare of other railway systems, plays little part in the Subway and Elevated plans; for the reason that rates per passenger are virtually fixed. Nor is it likely that competition can be modified by avoiding, on one line, train schedules which should draw patronage from the other. This question, too, is practically decided in advance for each. The probability is that the amalgamators have in mind possibilities of "splitting of fares" by one or the other company with the surface lines—or, later on, with railways, such as the Pennsylvania or the Central, whose terminals touch the local railway stations. This might conceivably be used as a weapon of competition. If this supposition be correct, it will be interesting to see how the general plan works out. The rather strong feeling in financial circles has been that close coöperation between the various local and outside transportation enterprices in the matter of travelling facilities is a certainty of the future.

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If labor unions or any of their members have standing in court, there is no reason why they should not apply for the legal remedy of injunction, and in a proper case receive it, even though they are strikers and the injunction is sought to restrain their former employers. What lends novelty to the case of this kind at Vineland, N. J., is the fact that it indicates that at least the Glass Bottle Blowers' Association of the United States and Canada is willing to countenance "government by injunction" provided it be on their side. This association is seeking to restrain the Jonas Glass Company of Minotola, N. J., "from interfering with the business of the strikers." It is charged in the complaint that the company has attempted to intimidate, frighten, and drive away the labor association and its officers, that strikers who gathered at the railway station to meet incoming trains bringing non-union workmen have been assaulted with force of arms by persons hired by the company, and that representatives of the company have threatened to kill some of the strikers and to destroy the strike headquarters. The court, therefore, is asked to enjoin the company. An order to show cause has been granted. The proceedings on the return day will be watched with great interest.

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Careful reviews of the work of Circuit-Attorney Folk, who has broken up the boodle ring in St. Louis, show that the two great qualities which have brought him his success are fearlessness and single-mindedness. His course and character are worth studying by reformers everywhere. "I told the men who nominated me that I didn't want the office," said Mr. Folk the other day, "for I felt that if elected the task for me would be tremendous. But I was elected, and I set about to do my duty as I saw it. I had to prosecute some of those very men who nominated me. Some of them are in the penitentiary, some are under bonds as indicted perjurers and bribe-takers." The best of this is that it is true, and it is also true that Mr. Folk has been able to convict not only the bribe-takers, but some of the wealthy bribe-givers as well. Some of the Missouri newspapers are nominating him for all sorts of offices, but it is quite clear that he has not been actuated by motives of political ambition. "I don't think I could be elected for another term,' he said recently, and added grimly: "Ninety-nine per cent. of the people are honest and want honest government, but, unfortunately, the remaining one per cent. are perniciously active." Though a Democrat, Mr. Folk is meeting the strong opposition now of the Democratic machine. Naturally, the Democratic leaders are not anxious to advance him, for he has promised them that if he gets a chance he will expose and punish the State boodlers as he has the corruptionists in St. Louis.

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By an excellent provision in the laws of Indiana, a sheriff who allows a prisoner placed in his custody to be lynched forfeits his office. Gov. Durbin has acted promptly in the case of Sheriff Dudley of Sullivan County, who permitted, if he did not connive at, the lynching of a negro on November 20, and has notified him that he must turn his office over to the county coroner. The sheriff may, however, be reinstated if he proves that he was really powerless to prevent the outrage. Meanwhile, his friends assert that the delay in sending troops was the real cause of the disgrace. The Indianapolis *Journal*, in commenting on the affair, says that it had "all the features of a flagrant violation of the law," and adds that there "was no doubt of the prisoner's speedy trial, conviction, and punishment." By the Indiana law of 1901, assisting at a lynching is murder; and merely looking on is a crime punishable by not less than two or more than twenty-one years' imprisonment. The power and duty to prosecute were taken out of the hands of the local law officers and placed in those of the State's Attorney-General. The latter is expected to act at once in this case, which is the first under the new law. If Indiana can make examples of a dozen of these murderers, it will perform a great service for the entire Union, for its course in the matter will attract national attention.

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Irish troubles, which recently looked at their worst, seem likely to be compounded temporarily through conference of the landlords and tenants. Mr. John Redmond has almost expressed confidence in the ability of the Government to deal successfully with the land question, and apparently the recent jailing of Irish editors and members of Parliament under the Crimes Act has been quite forgotten. The present good feeling is a favorable antecedent to the land-purchase bill which Mr. Balfour has promised to introduce at the next session of Parliament. It is quite natural that the Irish should look for practical relief rather to Mr. Balfour than to the disorganized Liberals. The stalwarts, under Campbell-Bannerman, have by no means made their attitude clear in this matter. That they are in favor of thoroughgoing legislation they insist, but this is after all a generality, and it would be difficult to pin the regular Liberals down to open advocacy of Gladstonian home rule. If their attitude is ambiguous, that of the Rosebery faction is doubly so. Its leader is irrevocably opposed to an Irish Parliament, but would see without concern a number of legislative bodies in Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, or even "one such body," in each of these portions of the kingdom—which seems like home rule under the sweeter name of "devolution of power," but may mean nothing at all except that Rosebery is in the mood of conciliation. Until the Liberals know their own mind on this subject and show signs of coming to their old strength, Mr. Redmond, and even his imprisoned colleagues, can hardly be blamed for looking to Mr. Balfour.

### CASTE AND ANTI-CASTE.

President Roosevelt's letter to a citizen of Charleston protesting against the appointment of a respectable colored man to the collectorship of that port as "an insult to the white blood," is a half-battle word. Publication of it is in wholesome conformity to Lincoln's sagacious use of this citizenlike mode of making known his policy—in wholesome contrast to McKinley's crafty avoidance of it. It is short, dispassionate, dignified, entirely frank; the manly expression of the President of the whole people. "I cannot consent," he says, "to take the position that the door of hope—the door of opportunity—is to be shut upon any man, no matter how worthy, purely upon the grounds of race and color." And again: "If, as you hold, the great bulk of the colored people are not yet fit in point of character and influence to hold such positions, it seems to me that it is worth while putting a premium upon the effort among them to achieve the character and standing which will fit them." This is worthy of Lincoln, and we know of no answer to it except the hoary Southern interrogatory, "Would you have your daughter marry a nigger?"

The President justly lays stress on his consistent attitude in this matter, both as Governor of New York and as Chief Magistrate. He has made, and is making, occasional appointments of worthy colored men to office, not questioning their equal claim to it with any worthy white man. He has always sympathized with the efforts within and from without the South to enlighten, elevate, and purify the great mass of manhood there imbruted by slavery. To this end he conferred, a year ago, with Booker Washington at his own table at the White House, and for this he was denounced in the Southern press in terms which we recorded at the time—"blunder," "crime," and "studied insult to the South" among them. He holds fast to the doctrine of the perfectibility of man, abhorrent though it be to every white Southerner, and means to judge his fellow-beings not according to the accidents of birth and descent and complexion, but on grounds of character such as won for Booker Washington an honorary degree from the college of the great Northern defender of the Fugitive Slave Law. Such judgments are not unknown even in the South, where we read from time to time of white attendance at the funeral of some black man who has extorted the respect of the entire community. The spectacle would be more edifying if it did not suggest the brutal apothegm, "There is no good Indian except a dead Indian."

Mr. Roosevelt properly makes light of his correspondent's holding up the bogey of a return of negro domination at the South. It is, however, true that the sting of that domination was not merely the travesty of government under the carpet-bag régime. It was also and peculiarly the sight of the black man not "in his place." Grant that his "place," as a consequence of the civil war, was no longer chattel slavery; that limbo was still one in which he could by no possibility be looked up to by the meanest, most illiterate, and most shiftless white. Southerners are proverbially fond of titles, military and civic and pay their wearers due respect on account of them—take off their hats to them, to use an allowable metaphor. Imagine their revolt at being put in the attitude of hats off to those expected for centuries to uncover to "white blood" in every relation. Northerners will in vain try to enter into the humiliation of having to ask one black office-holder for your daily mail, and pay your taxes to another, without being able to bring yourself to address either even as Mister. Nothing more curiously than this repugnance illustrates the Southern view of office, not as a service to the people who created and filled it, but as a social distinction. It was, in the old oligarchical slaveholding days, a distinction reserved chiefly for a very small portion of the whites; but, as a symbol, it is now cherished as the last which enables the most degraded white to hold his head above the most upright, best educated, and most prosperous colored man. The suffrage is tending to take a place beside it as such a symbol, but the solemn pledges of Reconstruction here retain some force to tolerate a negro vote, besides that usage has dulled the "insult" of the implication of social equality. Yet colored disfranchisement has grown to such an extent as to emphasize the shocking contradiction between it and Federal appointments to office like that of which the "prominent citizen of Charleston" complains to President Roosevelt. Can we keep the negro obsequious at the polls if we have to settle with him for import duties at the custom-house?

To the Southern "Never" opposed to a black career proportioned to talent, President Roosevelt's "open door" should be an epoch-making response. It might be if the Republican party had not practically thrown off all its old guardianship of the freedman. In view of the disposition of the Supreme Court towards the Southern Constitutional disfranchisement dodges, not to mention other familiar obstacles arising from our form of government, the party has perforce stayed its hand; but it has at the same time forborne to bear unremittingly its moral testimony. If it has not ventured to make reduction of Southern representation in Congress a standing plank in its platform, neither has it given voice there to its disapproval of the obliteration of the black vote. No universal outcry has arisen, either, against the creation of a select white Republican party at the South, by the so-called "lily white" movement, for collusion with which the President has just removed an internal-revenue collector in Alabama. In fact, there is no denying, as we might call Senator Hanna to witness, that the Republican party organization at the South has been fostered largely for its corrupt serviceability in gambling at Republican national conventions.

We must, therefore, applaud President Roosevelt's moral courage, both as regards the South and as regards his own political organization, the one of which he mortally offends, and the other conspicuously transcends. It is a quality which every one may cultivate in the quiet, and for which strenuousness affords no preparation—at least no necessary preparation. On this side we trust his example may bear fruit with the rising generation, more apt to enrol itself among his followers because of his showy and fussy manifestations. His just meed, however, is likely to be obscured in our present reaction from the moral exaltation of the anti-slavery struggle, and it may be left to the historian to single out this episode in Mr. Roosevelt's administration as the noblest and brightest jewel.

We cannot close our remarks on his letter in the Crum case without citing one more passage, of which we will not question the sincerity: "I do not intend to appoint any unfit man to office." This declaration is general, but contains an allusion to the especial necessity, when selecting colored men for appointment at the South, of not increasing the race odium by imposing misgovernment on a region where postmasters have been mobbed to death for no other reason than their color. No political debts can, if only in mercy to the incumbent, be paid there in bad coin. The late President McKinley, it is notorious, was not so scrupulous. But it would be a reproach to his successor to think him simply politic in the case of black appointments, and not governed by the fundamental principles of civil-service reform which he has so long professed and sought to put in effect. It is, then, all the more astounding that he should have made a white appointment in Delaware which subverts the policy affirmed above. He has not only appointed an "unfit man," professionally, but one whose political associations should have barred him out as peremptorily as his Charleston correspondent would have had his color preclude the choice of Dr. Crum for collector. If to be the friend, henchman, and tool of Addicks is not enough to disqualify, what becomes of the rule laid down? We fear the President has not read the moral of his own virtuous and most laudable action in South Carolina.

### THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

The President is to be praised for cutting down his message below the usual portentous length; but he could easily have substituted for the first column a simple "See my speeches and books, *passim*." Passing, then, to the really significant parts of the message, there are three subjects upon which public attention will be fixed. About them debate has centred since Congress adjourned; they figured largely in the November elections; over them future political battles are expected to rage. What has the President to say about these burning questions? How does his present attitude toward them compare with the one he held a year ago, and with the position he has since taken in his public utterances?

In the matter of Cuban reciprocity, we have to note a distinct lowering of tone, on the President's part, since last December. Then he boldly urged Congress, "by every consideration of honor and expediency," to pass a bill "providing for a substantial reduction in the tariff duties on Cuban imports into the United States." Such a measure was put before Congress, bitterly fought, and finally defeated. President Roosevelt, however, went to the country, or was understood to go to it, and said that the bill would be passed in the present session "sure as fate." But now he has quietly abandoned that whole plan. All that he says is that he "hopes" soon to submit a Cuban reciprocity treaty to that graveyard of reciprocity treaties, the Senate, and that he urges its ratification as a way of "stretching out a helping hand to a weak sister republic." Not a word about being bound by "honor"; above all, not a word about a reduction in the tariff duties for Cuba's benefit. No wonder that Senator Hoar is certain there will be no legislation in behalf of Cuba this winter. The President's Cuban sword has grown rusty and lost its edge.

We are bound to believe that Mr. Roosevelt's heart is in his policy of regulating Trusts, yet even here he is singularly vague and inconclusive. He does not specify a single definite evil or name one precise remedy. It is true, he refers Congress to the recommendations of his former message—which were, in a general way, publicity and national supervision—but they are pretty well forgotten by this time. Nor is the memory of them likely to be sharpened by the President's careful balancing now on both sides of the question, and his final recommendation—in language as futile and evasive as that which President McKinley used about the Trusts, and which they read and then went off chuckling—that Congress pass "a law *reasonable in its provisions and effective in its operations*." That will not frighten anybody. This entire part of the message will, in short, be taken as an effort to qualify and minimize the President's previous deliverances on the subject of Trusts. Attorney-General Knox's speech at Pittsburgh was worth a dozen of it for directness, lucidity, and vigor.

Our dislike of the sections of the message which refer to the tariff is not due to the fact that we do not agree with the President's opinions, but rather to the fact that it is so difficult to make out what those opinions are. He talks like a man who has had contradictory views strongly urged upon him, and has accepted them all in the most catholic spirit. His first proposition is that tariff reduction is no remedy for Trust monopoly. We regard this both as unsound and as a particularly unfortunate thing for a President to say who asserts that he is determined to curb monopoly. Removal of tariff duties on Trust-made articles is at least a remedy, and for the President to push it aside necessaril throws a cloud upon the sincerity of his whole position. But he goes on to argue that the tariff should not be meddled with, since it is so important to maintain "economic stability." So far we can understand him. He is on the ground occupied by high and dry protectionists like Senator Hale, who says it is sacrilege to touch the tariff at all. But what does the message do next but go on to suggest several ways in which the tariff might be and should be amended!

To bring out this inherent confusion, we arrange the President's propositions in order:

(1.) The tariff should not be changed.
(2.) One way in which it should be changed is by means of reciprocity treaties.
(3.) If the reciprocity idea does not apply, then there may be "a lowering of duties on a given product."
(4.) If a "given rate of duty does promote a monopoly which works ill, no protectionist would object to such reduction of the duty as would equalize competition."
(5.) "In my judgment, the tariff on anthracite coal should be removed."

If any man can detect an underlying philosophy, a clear grasp of the subject as a whole, in President Roosevelt's declarations about the tariff, he can do more than we, with the best will in the world, are able to. Our feeling, as we read, is like that of the man who listened to a plagiarized sermon, and commented on the various passages, "That's South. That's Taylor. That's Blair." In like manner we find ourselves involuntarily saying, as the President's conflicting proposals pass before us, "That's Hanna. That's Spooner. That's Cummins. That's Babcock." But nowhere do we find Roosevelt himself, nowhere the true leader with definite convictions and a settled policy. The President seems, in other words, to have listened amiably to various influential requests to "put in" things about the tariff, and to have put them in, whether they eat each other up or not. The sounding of such an uncertain trumpet cannot lead to any serious preparations for battle. A hesitant message points the way, we fear, to a wasted session.

### SECRETARY ROOT'S REPORT.

Secretary Root returns to the subject of a General Staff for the army undeterred by the prevailing impression in Washington that this Congress has no thought of accepting the plan. It may be his belief that Gen. Miles's absence from the country makes this an especially fitting time to nail his colors to the mast. He has, at least, done so with his usual ability. Were Congress to put aside the traditions of the War of the Rebellion and to judge of this matter in the light of modern experience and needs, the General Staff Bill would go through with a rush, despite the personal hostility of the superannuated chairman of the Senate Military Committee, and others like him.

It is a simple business proposition which Mr. Root is advocating. No head of any great enterprise would undertake an important mercantile operation, calling for the expenditure of large sums of money, without first surveying the field and making all possible preparations in advance of the hour set for the undertaking. Everything would be so arranged that the mere pressing of a button would set a corps of experts at work executing well-thought-out plans and policies. Secretary Root asks only that thirty-seven experts be given him to prepare for the event of hostilities. They are not to be permanently detached from the line, but to return at the end of four years. During their detail they are to "look, hear, and think" for the whole army. They are to "consider the military policy of the country, and prepare comprehensive plans for the national defence and for the mobilization of the military forces in time of war." They are to do this privately and quietly and without flourish of trumpets.

For Congress to refuse to provide this General Staff would be for it to vote in favor of the total lack of foresight, and the chaos and disorder, of the Spanish war, as a result of which large numbers of men perished unnecessarily. Without a General Staff, the important reforms already achieved by Mr. Root—the War College, the Service and Post Schools, the interchangeable staff and line, the promotion of distinguished officers—will lose much of their effectiveness. Save for the War College, the great educational system into which Secretary Root is transforming the army in accordance with European standards will be without a proper apex. But Secretary Root strives to allay a silly national prejudice by stating frankly that he desires neither a Ger-

man nor a French General Staff, but a body of men selected and organized in our own way. Provided the work can be done by efficient men, their title and their organization count for nothing. Mr. Root more than offsets Gen. Miles's opposition to the plan by a most effective quotation from Gen. Schofield. There is, indeed, nothing valid now to be said on the other side of this question.

Upon the necessity of an educational transformation, Secretary Root again dwells at length. Barring service in the Philippines, the army has returned to peace conditions. Nearly the entire body of lieutenants is made up of new and untrained men, many of whom are mentally and physically not up to the standards of 1898. If our future generals and colonels and staff officers are to be worth having, this new material must be digested and assimilated. In order to this, Mr. Root has sent nearly 140 officers to the service schools, and is concentrating the troops in as large posts as possible, having wisely decided that small posts make for increased cost and for military indolence. Doubtless Mr. Bryan will claim credit for the Secretary's determination, "so far as practicable, to get the army posts out of the cities and large towns." There are adequate enough reasons in Mr. Root's desire to move the men away from evil surroundings, and to obtain more room for drills, on a large scale, without turning to political motives and fear of the labor vote for an explanation. It is needless to say that the bulk of the troops will still be kept near railroad and strategic centres, in order that they may be moved quickly and efficiently in emergencies. In this connection, it is interesting to note that Secretary Root's annual appeal for the beer canteen, is, in short, an affirmation that the present law makes for the physical and moral deterioration of the men—although the law, as we have frequently pointed out, has had only a brief and unfair trial.

Turning to the militia, Secretary Root renews his advocacy of the Dick militia bill, which passed the House at its last session, and which is quite likely to become a law, despite the rush of business. Briefly stated, the fundamental idea of the bill is to recognize the value to the national Government of the militia. If passed by Congress, the military force of the United States will be as follows:

First. The regular army, capable of enlargement by the President, when he sees war coming, to 100,000.

Second. Such of the organized militia (already trained as a national guard, and just as valuable, when used in the manner hereinafter indicated, as any other troops) as the President shall see fit to call into the service of the United States for not exceeding nine months, to repel invasion.

Third. A first volunteer reserve, composed of such companies, troops, and regiments of the organized militia already trained as a national guard as volunteer by organizations with all their officers and men.

Fourth. A second volunteer reserve, composed of men previously enrolled and having previous military training in the National Guard, the regular army, or the volunteer army, and commanded by officers whose fitness has been previously ascertained by practical tests under the provisions of the militia act.

Fifth. Such further volunteers as it may be necessary to call forth from the States, according to their respective quotas, and commanded by regimental officers appointed by the Governors of the States.

Mr. Root estimates that there will be from 250,000 to 300,000 troops of some military training available under the first four classes—a number more than large enough to supply all the country's needs under any conceivable circumstances save civil war. The present antiquated organization makes for inefficiency even when the State troops are called out for State purposes, as was shown only too clearly in Pennsylvania during the coal strike. Moreover, the bill increases the military resources of the United States along historic and American lines by enlarging the citizen soldiery, as opposed to the standing army with its manifold evils. It will add no little to Mr. Root's prestige should this bill become law.

## *CURRENCY QUESTIONS FOR CONGRESS.*

Dispatches from Washington betoken a revival of interest among Congressmen in banking questions, and especially in the branch of it commonly called "assets currency." This renewed interest is perhaps a consequence of the recent action of the American Bankers' Association at New Orleans, providing for the appointment of a commission of seven representative citizens to report changes in our banknote system for the future consideration of the bankers themselves and of Congress. The action taken at New Orleans derives its chief importance from the fact that the bankers have generally been the most conservative class in the nation in the views which they have held on this subject. They have been the ones most opposed to change, and most steadfast to prevent any deterioration in the value of the money, whether metallic or paper, which passes from hand to hand and forms the basis of all credits and the key to all business transactions. As they are required to receive in payments to themselves all national bank notes issued, they have the strongest possible motive for keeping the currency in a sound condition. The risks which they run from an unsafe currency are greater than those incurred by any other class; their knowledge of what is unsafe is better than that of any other; and it may be affirmed that any system of note issues to which they give their assent may be safely accepted by other members of the body politic.

The capital of the national banks is now something more than $700,000,000, but their circulation is only $330,000,000, or less than one-half the amount authorized by law. In 1881, that is, twenty-one years ago, the volume of circulation was about the same as it is now. In 1890, midway between the two periods, it was as low as $122,000,000. Special inducements have been offered by successive Secretaries of the Treasury to the banks to increase their circulation, but with indifferent success. When Congress, in 1900, changed the law so as to authorize the issue of notes to the par value of the deposited bonds, there was an immediate and large increase of circulation, showing that whenever the banks could make a profit by issuing notes they were quick to do so.

The scarcity and increasing price of Government bonds is usually assigned as the reason why banknote circulation does not keep pace with the growth of bank capital, of business, and of population. That this is an influential factor in the case is quite evident, but if the bonds could always be obtained at par, the banker would still be obliged to invest $105 in order to get $100 of circulation—the extra $5 being in the redemption fund at Washington. Let us take the simple case of a bank with $100,000 capital, which invests $90,000 in bonds at par, by means of which it gets an equal amount of circulating notes. It deposits $4,500 in the redemption fund. It then has $95,500 to do business with, provided all the notes can be kept out all the time, but in point of fact they cannot all be kept out. More or less of them will be returned to the bank as deposits. More or less will be sent to Washington for redemption, and the express charges must be paid by the issuing bank. The bank must also pay the cost of printing the notes, and of replacing worn and mutilated ones with new ones.

Banks use their capital as a foundation for credits, which they advance to their customers in the form of loans, to the amount of three or four dollars of credit for one of cash. The capital and surplus of the national bank is about $1,000,000,000, and their investments in interest-bearing securities is three and one-half times as great, or $3,500,000,000. They get the same percentage of profit for the use of their credit as for the use of cash. The bank exchanges its well-known credit for the less known credit of its customers, and keeps a reserve proportioned to its liabilities, but the reserves cannot consist of banknotes, in whole or in part. In the case considered above, the bank has $5,000 less money to do business with than it would have had if it had refrained from issuing notes, and this $5,000 might be made the basis of $15,000 to $20,000 of loans. In other words, a bank not issuing notes would have an advantage of that amount over a note-issuing bank, which would be off-

set, however, by the interest on the security bonds in the Treasury, which is in turn offset in part by the tax on circulation and various incidental expenses. The highest rate of profit obtainable on $100,000 of circulation in excess of the amount obtainable from direct use of the same sum of money where the 2 per cent. bonds are used as the security, amounts to $796 only. This profit is too small to be attractive to banks of large size, even if bonds of this class were still available, as they are not.

The deadness of the national bank circulation, its tendency to diminish rather than to increase or keep pace with the growth of population and trade, has led to the proposal, now advanced at Washington, to accept State and municipal bonds as security for banknotes. This idea derives some support from the fact that the Secretary of the Treasury recently accepted such security for deposits of Government funds in national banks. As a tentative step toward liberalizing banknote issues, this change might be admissible, but it would not furnish any real relief from the hide-bound system which prevents banks from making use of their credit in the form of notes, as is done in nearly all civilized countries.

It is evident that the agitation in behalf of a more flexible currency has made a lodgment in the higher official circles at Washington. It is reported that the Secretary of the Treasury himself is among the number of those who are prepared to take a step in the direction of assets currency—a currency based upon securities in the control of the banks instead of the Government. If this rumor proves to be correct, it will at once bring on a discussion of methods for reaching that result. And thus the approaching session is likely to be a fruitful one, at least in the way of preparing the public mind for currency reform.

*THE STANDARDIZATION OF SPORT.*

Readers of a certain age will remember a book (which is still sought by collectors in the earliest, and read by children in the latest editions) entitled 'Science in Sport Makes Philosophy in Earnest.' In it children are led by a series of experiments and observations presented as games, to ponder upon the laws of the universe—that is, in the nomenclature of a pre-scientific era, to become adepts in "natural philosophy." This feeling, that sport should in some fashion serve the cause of philosophy, has led the radical golfers of England to approach Mr. Balfour on the matter of the codification and emendation of the rules of that ancient but ill-regulated game. As a lifelong golfer and a recognized philosopher, the Prime Minister could not fail to give the matter his careful attention, and the petitioners an explicit answer. He appears, in his reply, as the advocate of individualism and the opponent of standardization. He writes:

"I should view with great apprehension the introduction into golf of so great a novelty as that of the standardization of the implements to be used by the player. Such standardization cannot logically be restricted to the balls, and it would be a pity, I think, to destroy the practically unlimited freedom of selection, which, among all games, belongs, so far as I know, alone to golf."

The merriment of Opposition editors and non-golfing politicians over Mr. Balfour's dictum seems misplaced when it is remembered that his plea for individualism in his favorite sport falls in happily with Herbert Spencer's attack upon the general "regimentation" of society, in his latest volume of essays. But, of course, Mr. Balfour had primarily in mind the interests of sport. It is indeed anomalous that a man is never so bound by rule and custom as in his playtime. Nobody may force him to conduct his business correspondence in one way rather than another, or to keep a card catalogue rather than an address book; but so soon as he boards a yacht, mounts a horse, or handles a ball, he comes under a Draconian code which prescribes his goings and comings, the implements he uses, and the very clothes he wears. Where written rules do not bind him, a mysterious "good form" hampers his natural movements, and in many respects he becomes the slave of his recreations. The Virginia breeder who lately appeared at the Horse Show in such housings as he wears on his own farm, showed some deficiency in sense of the fitting, but he also showed a courage which his perfectly appointed associates in the Show might well envy.

Probably sport has never been more free from this formalizing tendency than society at large. We read in romance that the youthful Tristan once landed at Cornwall and came upon the end of a stag hunt. The nobles were quartering the carcass in some barbarous fashion. Tristan indignantly seized the knife and made the division according to the ancient rules of venerie, giving to each his part, from the chief of the hunt to the dogs, and thus good hunting customs were introduced into Britain. The process constantly repeats itself. In our own day we have seen old-fashioned "rounders" develop into baseball, with an elaborate legislative code and a body of diplomatic and judicial practice which covers every point of the eligibility, transfer, and even the sale of players. Football has gone very much the same way. Changes in the game and charges of false play are discussed with conciliar gravity. Even polo has renounced the advantages of its Oriental (consequently vague) origins, and the prominent clubs of England and America are considering a plan for abolishing the few distinctions that mark the play of the two nations. As for yachting, the dispute between Mr. Lawson and the New York Yacht Club is still a malodorous memory, and a signal instance of the dangers that attend the standardizing of manly sport.

So far as uniformity is in the interest of the sport itself, no sensible person will oppose his personal preference to the common utility. But very often the motives that lead to the adoption of the $x$-ball, the $y$-bat, or the $z$-target are by no means disinterested. Frequently the profit of a particular dealer rather than the convenience of the player guides the choice, while if the standardization of sporting "togs" were deeply probed, there can be no doubt that natural selection would vanish behind the bland and persistent terrorism of the tailors of our generation.

In fishing, shooting, and golf the individual still makes a certain stand against the game. An unwritten law tells him what is sportsmanlike, and for the rest—clothes, tackle, and minor matters of deportment—he does as he lists. In bespeaking this wholesome irregularity for the game of golf, Mr. Balfour has shown himself no less a sportsman than a philosopher. He remembers that favorable evolution depends upon the arising of favorable variations, and that an absolute rule of uniformity would first retard and finally stay the evolutionary process. This is true of games, and it is true of society at large. So, when the formalists fret over new balls of marvellous carrying qualities, and rage at those two-handed pneumatic engines which masquerade as golf clubs, and seek to reduce the game to rule and measure—the truly philosophical, golfers or otherwise, will welcome these uncouth contrivances as the sign that in one game at least the individual is free to face unterrified the overt tyranny of rules and the more subtle oppression of "good form." The golf-links of the land remain individualistic oases in an age of universal regimentation.

# Correspondence.

"LYNCH LAW."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The subject of lynching has a threefold interest—historical, etymological, and practical—and deserves to be treated at length; but the material already collected by the present writer is so extensive that only an outline can be given here. There are various conjectures as to the origin of the term, no one of which is wholly satisfactory. In *Niles's Register* for August 8, 1835, it was stated that the practice arose "many years ago" in Washington County, Pa., and that the party which held an impromptu trial of a poacher "proceeded to try him in due form, choosing one of their number, a farmer named *Lynch*, to be

judge" (xlviii. 402). Nothing further is known of this alleged farmer. Lynch law is also variously stated to have derived its name from James (or Walter) Lynch, Mayor (or Warden) of Galway in 1491; from a man named Lynch who is said to have been sent to America in 1687-88 to suppress piracy; from John Lynch, for whom Lynchburg, Va., was named, and from Charles Lynch of Virginia (a brother of John). Of these, the only one whose claims deserve serious consideration is Charles Lynch. For a fuller and more accurate account of him than can elsewhere be found, the reader is referred to an article on "The Real Judge Lynch," by T. W. Page, in the *Atlantic Monthly* for December, 1901 (lxxxviii. 731-743). Charles Lynch was born in 1736, he was a justice of the peace both before and after the outbreak of the Revolutionary war, in 1780 he illegally fined and imprisoned certain Tories, in 1782 an act passed the Virginia Assembly holding him and others indemnified for suits brought on account of such illegal acts *(Va. Statutes*, xi. 134-5), and he died in 1796. Unfortunately, Professor Page assumes but does not prove the connection between Charles Lynch and lynch law. Other derivations of the term have been suggested. Meanwhile, what are the facts in regard to the history of lynch law? The following extracts briefly indicate this history from the earliest known appearance of the term down to 1850:

"In the year 1792, there were many suits on the south side of James river, for inflicting Lynch's law." 1817, Judge S. Roane, in W. Wirt's *Life of P. Henry* (1818), p. 372. In a note (but whether written by Roane or by Wirt is uncertain) we read: "Thirty-nine lashes, inflicted without trial or law, on mere suspicion of guilt, which could not be regularly proven. This lawless practice, which, sometimes by the order of a magistrate, sometimes without, prevailed extensively in the upper counties on James river, took its name from the gentleman who set the first example of it."

"Two years ago, a young Yankee, of the name of Williams, became the object of a malicious prosecution here, on suspicion of robbing a store. Circumstantial evidence of the worst kind only could be adduced, and he was, as is common in this country, acquitted. The people of the place, however, prejudiced against him, as a Yankee, deputed four persons to inform him, that unless he quitted the town and state immediately, he should receive Lynch's law, that is, a whipping in the woods. He departed, with his wife and child, next day, on foot; but in the woods, four miles from Princeton [Indiana], they were overtaken by two men, armed with guns, dogs, and a whip, who said they came to whip him, unless he would confess and discover to them the stolen money, so that they might have it. He vainly expostulated with them; but, in consideration of his wife's entreaties and cries, they remitted his sentence to thirteen lashes. . . . This poor fellow was of respectable parents at Berlin, in the state of New York. . . . He quitted the state, and returning, soon after, to prosecute his executioners, died at Evansville, before he had effected so desirable an object." 1819, Nov. 29. W. Faux, *Memorable Days in America* (1823), pp. 304, 305. On Dec. 27 Faux met the widow of Williams (p. 326).

"Among the early settlers there was a way of trying causes, which may perhaps be new to you. No commentator has taken any notice of *Linch's Law*, which was once the *lex loci* of the frontiers. Its operation was as follows: when a horse thief, a counterfeiter, or any other desperate vagabond, infested a neighbourhood, evading justice by cunning, or by a strong arm, or by the number of his confederates, the citizens formed themselves into a '*regulating company*,' a kind of holy brotherhood, whose duty was to purge the community of its unruly members. Mounted, armed, and commanded by a leader, they proceeded to arrest such notorious offenders as were deemed fit subjects of exemplary justice; their operations were generally carried on in the night. Squire Birch, who was personated by one of the party, established his tribunal under a tree in the woods, and the culprit was brought before him, tried, and generally convicted; he was then tied to a tree, lashed without mercy, and ordered to leave the country within a given time, under pain of a second visitation. . . . Whenever a county became strong enough to enforce the laws, these high-handed doings ceased to be tolerated." 1828, Judge J. Hall, *Letters from the West*, pp. 291, 292.

"'Lynch's law.' We have heard, that capt. *Slick* summoned his corps the other night, and obtained possession of a man with whose misdeeds they had become familiar, carried him to the prairie near town, and administered 'Lynch's law' upon him in fine style. He received about fifty lashes—and was ordered to decamp. The offence consisted in cheating at the gambling table." 1833, Oct. 5, *Niles' Register*, xlv. 87. This was at St. Louis.

"He was, therefore, for tying the young Indian to a tree and giving him a sound lashing; and was quite surprised at the burst of indignation which this novel mode of requiting a service drew from us. Such, however, is too often the administration of law on the frontier, 'Lynch's law,' as it is technically termed, in which the plaintiff is apt to be witness, jury, judge, and executioner, and the defendant to be convicted and punished on mere presumption." 1835, W. Irving, *Tour on the Prairies*, pp. 41, 42.

"In Natchez, negro criminals only are thus honoured—a 'coat of tar and feathers' being applied to those white men who may require some sort of discipline not provided by the courts of justice. This last summary process of popular justice, or more properly excitement, termed 'Lynch's law,' I believe from its originator, is too much in vogue in this state." 1835, J. H. Ingraham, *The South-West*, ii. 185, 186.

"Warwick, the murderer of Mr. Fisk, . . . was tried this week at Fayette [Miss.]. On account of some technicalities of the law failing to be observed, the prisoner was discharged. He had no sooner, however, emerged from the court house, than he was stripped of his clothing, and a plentiful coat of *tar* and *feathers* applied to him. He was afterwards whipped until almost insensible to pain; and to restore his feeling senses, we understand, a large quantity of spirits of turpentine was poured upon him. . . . It is said that during the execution of judge Lynch's sentence, the culprit frequently begged to be shot, but was told that such a death was too easy for him." 1835, Aug. 8, *Niles' Register*, xlviii. 397.

"We mentioned above that P. C. Damewood had been discharged; but no sooner was he out of the view of the court, than apprehending judge Lynch's law, he put out in a hurry. He was pursued and caught, and received a very decent flagellation. . . . There was some defect in the indictment, which the high court of errors and appeals was compelled to regard, but which the advocates of judge Lynch's court thought proper to rectify, and Mr. Damewood's back bears evident marks of the supremacy of Lynch's law." 1835, Aug. 22, *ibid.*, xlviii. 436.

"I suppose you have heard of the presentation of a stout gallows to me, at 23 Brighton Street, Boston, by order of Judge Lynch. It was destroyed by the city authorities. . . . The slave States continue to be excessively agitated. They appear to have organized Vigilance Committees and Lynch Clubs in various places." 1835, Sept. 17, W. L. Garrison, in *Life* (1885), i. 519. Garrison refers to the erection before his house of a gallows on the night of Sept. 10, bearing "on the cross bar . . . an inscription, *Judge Lynch's Law.*"—(*Boston Advertiser*, Sept. 12, p. 2/4.)

"Our village [Kanawha Salines, W. Va.] was thrown into considerable commotion on Friday morning last in consequence of the arrival of judge Lynch among us. His business was soon ascertained, and by his authority four white men from Ohio, . . . were soon arrested and tried before 12 intelligent persons of our county, for endeavoring to persuade several slaves to leave their masters, for some free State. . . . These congenial spirits of Garrison, Tappan & Co. were arrested in the neighborhood of our village, tried, condemned, and received the sentence pronounced on them by the jury. That is to say, Joe Gill and the elder Drake to receive nine and thirty lashes each, and leave the county in 24 hours; the younger Drake, with Ross, to be discharged for want of evidence, but with a promise from them that they would also quit the county in 24 hours. The evidence . . . produced an unanimous verdict on the part of the jury, that two should be *Lynched* and the other two excused, provided they would leave this part of the country." 1835, Oct. 3, *Niles' Register*, xlix. 76, 77.

"*A tale of terror!* We learn from St. Louis that . . . the negro was then secured and committed to prison, but . . . he was delivered to the mob, who conveyed him to the outskirts of the city, placed a chain round his neck and a rope round his body, and fastened him to a tree a few feet from the ground, when they then placed fire round the tree and literally roasted him alive!" 1836, June 4, *ibid.*, l. 234.

This was the famous case, date of April 28, which the Rev. E. P. Lovejoy censured in his *Observer*, along with Judge Lawless's removing it from the grand jury on the ground that the law could take no cognizance of the acts of a frenzied multitude. In consequence, Lovejoy was forced to remove his paper to Alton, Ill., but not before the St. Louis mob gutted his printing-office. His subsequent mobbing to death in Alton is well known.

"On this night it appears that some personal friend of Mr. Brux, who had been killed by Giquel, in company with several other individuals, feeling exasperated at the release of Giquel, and the judge who had been the author of it, proceeded to the residence of judge BERMUDEZ, with a view *to Lynch him*, or to inflict *some severe punishment upon his person.*" 1836, Oct. 1, *ibid.*, li. 69.

"We have been informed that the slave *William*, who murdered his master . . . was taken by a party, a few days since, from the sheriff of Hot Spring [Ark.], and burned alive! yes, tied up to the limb of a tree, a fire built under him, and consumed in slow and lingering torture!" 1836, Dec. 31, *ibid.*, li. 275.

"At the same hour when the customary sins of the slave-market were being perpetrated, hundreds of the little people of Charleston were preparing for their childish pleasures, . . . ministers of the gospel were agreeing to deprive persons of colour of all religious education: a distant Lynch mob was outraging the person of a free and innocent citizen." 1838, H. Martineau, *Retrospect of Western Travel*, ii. 87.

"The Lynch law of the present day, as practised in the States of the West and South, may be divided into two different heads: the first is, the administration of it in cases in which the laws of the States are considered by the majority as not having awarded a punishment adequate, in their opinion, to the offence committed; and the other, when from excitement the majority will not wait for the law to act, but inflict the punishment with their own hands." 1839, F. Marryat, *Diary in America*, iii. 232, 233.

"Forty years ago, the practice of wreaking private vengeance, or of inflicting summary and illegal punishment for crimes, actual or pretended, which has been glossed over by the name of *Lynch's Law*, was hardly known except in sparse, frontier settlements, beyond the reach of courts and legal proceedings." 1839, *Southern Lit. Messenger*, v. 218.

"*Lynchers punished—A good example.*—In Yazoo, Miss. some time ago, a Mr. Harris, for some real or supposed offence, was severely lynched by H. W. Dunn, C. W. Bain, and others. He prosecuted those two individuals for the outrage, and the case was tried at the late session of the circuit court of Yazoo county. The jury returned a verdict for the plaintiff of $20,000." 1839, June 15, *Niles' Register*, lvi. 256.

"LYNCHING. A singular act of lynching was perpetrated recently at the Oberlin theological institute, of Ohio. Some of the members . . . secured the man's person, gagged and blindfolded him, and then inflicted 25 lashes on his bare back with a cowhide. They then directed him to leave

the town forthwith, without going to his room." 1841, Jan. 9, *ibid.*, lix. 304.

"The citizens of our border country have witnessed these men under the name of regulators and moderators, committing in the territory of Texas some of the most barbarous cruelties of the nineteenth century. . . . We are aware that . . . among the more wise and better informed, impressions are almost established permanently, that Arkansas is a place where no law is recognized but *Lynch law*, and no rights acknowledged unless maintained by brute force." 1841, Nov. 6, *ibid.*, lxi. 149, 150.

"It is reported that the two men named Redman, brothers, with five others, were recently arrested in the vicinity of Davenport, charged with the murder of Colonel Davenport. Suspicion was strong as to their guilt. We have heard rumors that Lynch law had been inflicted upon both the Redmans since their arrest—that they both were hung." 1845, Oct. 25, *ibid.*, lxix. 115.

"Yet outrages the most terrible succeed each other rapidly:—men are lynched and stabbed and shot with as little compunction as you would feel in spitting a goose! . . . The other class . . . were then either lynched and warned to leave the county in so many days, or else shot if they persisted in remaining!" 1845, *American Rev.*, i. 121, 122.

"I expressed my horror at these transactions, observing that Florida, if in so rude and barbarous a state, ought not to have been admitted into the Union. My companions agreed to this, but said they believed the man had fair play on his trial, and added, 'If you were a settler there, and had no other law to defend you, you would be glad of the protection of Judge Lynch.'" 1846, Sir C. Lyell, *Second Visit to the U. S.*, ii. 32.

"The system of 'regulators,' and their ever concomitant opponents, the 'moderators,' WILL NOT DO, and as soon as two regularly organized parties are found to exist, it is the part of every wise man —who has due regard for his life and peace—to move, at any sacrifice." 1850, *American Rev.*, xi. 462.

From this evidence and from other material in my possession, it appears that the original term was "Lynch's law"; that this was soon shortened to "Lynch (or lynch) law," and then to "lynch"; that originally lynch law was a whipping or other personal chastisement; that lynch law originally obtained only in the border settlements, where the administration of justice either was or was supposed to be uncertain; that in the early days of lynch law, innocent persons were sometimes punished, and suits for damages were by no means unknown; that, about 1830, writers regarded the practice as on the wane and likely soon to disappear altogether; that before about 1835 the victims of lynch law were generally whites, occasionally Indians, but never negroes; that soon after 1830 a revival of lynch law took place, due to the anti-slavery agitation, and the practice spread throughout the country; that between 1830 and 1840 the term lynch underwent a change in meaning, and "to lynch" acquired the sense of to put to death; that during the same period negroes were first lynched; that about 1835 we first hear of "Judge" Lynch; and that in recent years lynching has been confined largely, but by no means wholly, to negroes in the South and West. It further appears that there is a direct historical connection between the killing of a negro in a highly civilized community in 1902 and the whipping of a white man along the frontiers in 1817. Step by step, the illegal whippings of 1817 have led to the illegal burnings alive of 1902. In short, the more civilized the country has become, the more brutal has been the punishment meted out under lynch law.

It will be observed that in some of the extracts cited above, there is mention of lynchers under the name of "regulators." Now the words "regulating," "regulation," and "regulator" were first employed in this country, so far as I am aware, at the time when the so-called "Regulators" came into existence in the back settlements of the Carolinas in 1768. It has been asserted that lynch law derived its name from Lynch's Creek, S. C., because at that place the practice of lynching began. This derivation of the term has yet to be proved, but the following extracts show that there were at that period instances of lynch law, in its original meaning of a whipping, and that the Regulators held a meeting at Lynch's Creek.

"CHARLES-TOWN, SOUTH CAROLINA, . . . July 25. . . . The last Accounts from the Back Settlements, say, that the People called the REGULATORS were to have a Meeting at Lynch's Creek, on last Friday, where it was expected 1200 would be assembled." 1768, Aug. 22, *Boston Post Boy*, No. 575, p. 2/1.

"*Charlestown, (South-Carolina) Sept.* 12. The people called regulators have lately severely chastised one Lum, who is come to town; but we have not yet learnt the real cause of this severity to him." 1768, Sept. 26—Oct. 3. *Boston Chronicle*, No. 42, i. 381/2.

"*Charlestown South-Carolina, August* 16. The outrageous opposition lately offered to the civil authority near Marr's Bluff on Pedee river, being at present a general subject of conversation, and by many attributed to the people called Regulators it may not be amiss to lay before the public the following information, viz. That there are two parties so called, and the proceedings of the one is frequently confounded with those of the other. That the first (called the honest party) consists, in general, of people of good principles and property, who have assembled chiefly about the Cougarees, the Ridge, &c. professedly with the view of driving all horse thieves, with their harbourers, abetors and other vagabonds, from amongst them; and that the other (called the rogues party) are a gang of banditti, or a numerous collection of outcast mullatoes, mustees and free negroes, all horse-thieves, &c. from the borders of Virginia and other northern colonies (the very people whom the regulators would have expelled the province, or brought to justice) and have taken up arms to carry on their villainy with impunity. The last accounts we have received of both are, that the former, on the 11th past. took one Charles Sparks of infamous character, on Pedee, and order[ed] him to receive 500 lashes, and quit the province. And of the latter, that an armed company of them, headed by one Gideon Gibson, on the 25th past, near Marr's Bluff, surrounded a constable and twelve men, who were sent to bring one of the villains before a magistrate, and after a smart skirmish, wherein two of the constable's party were mortally wounded, and one shot through the shoulder, took the rest prisoners, whom he discharged, after ordering them 30 lashes each." 1768, Oct. 3—10, *ibid.*, No. 43, i. 388, 389.

Obviously, we here have the thing itself, though not our now familiar term; and references to lynch law between 1768 and 1817, under any name, are much to be desired.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, October 24, 1902.

## THE SPANISH NEGOTIATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As I read the correspondence between the United States and Spain (Foreign Relations of the United States, Dec. 5, 1898) relating to the period immediately preceding our latest war, I notice two letters that have a very strong bearing on the case, but to which, in your splendid article "At the Bar of History," of July 4, 1901, you do not refer. One, dated April 4, 1898, and written by Mr. Day to Mr. Woodford, reads (*omissis omittendis*):

"We have received to-day from the Spanish Minister a copy of the manifesto of the autonomy government. . . . It is not armistice. . . . It is simply an invitation to the insurgents to submit. . . . It need scarcely be pointed out that this is a very different thing from an offered armistice."

The other letter, written by Señor Polo de Bernabé to Mr. Sherman, reads, in part, thus:

" . . . that her Majesty the Queen Regent has given appropriate instructions to the general-in-chief of the army of Cuba, to the end that he shall concede an immediate suspension of hostilities for such a time as he shall deem prudential. General Blanco . . . reserves to himself to determine the duration and other details."

Your conclusion, drawn solely from the Queen's manifesto proclaiming "immediate and unconditional suspension of hostilities," would have been greatly modified had the contents of these two letters formed a part of your premises. But, though your conclusion was defective for want of some relevant premises, ethically it is the only just conclusion—a conclusion not dependent on the infantile technicalities of diplomatic correspondence.

Yet, in justice to those who, without tearful cant, openly advocate aggression, it should be admitted that, if by some unthinkable chance they can escape the "rebarbarizing" reaction of warfare, they will, in a measure, further evolution by killing off those whom they accuse of retarding it. The more scrupulous, however, who are not inclined to be the scavengers of evolution, ought to be glad that there is a sort of men who cheerfully do the dirty work of what they imagine to be progress.

JOSEPH DICK.

TOLEDO, O., November, 1902.

[The article referred to expressly restricted itself to *new* matter. The citations made by our correspondent are from documents long before made public; and, as he perceives, are in no real contradiction of the inferences which we drew from the later and suppressed dispatches.—ED. NATION.]

## THE FOOTBALL DEBAUCH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Would it not be well for the serious-minded American people who have ideals for higher education, to take a moment of meditation to ask themselves whether they propose, without protest and in despair, to permit the colleges and universities of the country to continue the annual football debauch? That it is a debauch we need only present as testimony the columns of the daily press for the past month, including the notes on betting. But there are inside facts which we may well doubt whether many good people who lend their approval to the game are aware of. The brutality of the game may easily be seen; but the secret dishonesty which the excited rivalry leads to is not perhaps known to many outside college walls. What this rivalry is, how presidents of the smaller colleges are coming to regard the football teams as advertising adjuncts in the competition of student-getting, only those who are on the

inside can know. I have myself heard a college president appeal to a football team, in an assembly of all the students, in terms that would lead one to believe that the future of the college almost depended on winning a certain game.

Now what all this leads to is a disgraceful winking at anything to win. It is bad enough for thoughtless students to fall into the temptation of playing men under false names without the knowledge of the college authorities—I have known this to be done—but the debauch has not stopped at this. By the connivance of college authorities men are played who have only a fictitious connection with the college; *and the students of the college know that the college authorities aid and abet such action.*

In another college than the one referred to above I know the following facts to be true. A student was matriculated at 4 P. M. one day to play the next morning, when there was no intention on the student's part of attending the college. He has other business. In this same game two other players had, by the college rules, absolutely forfeited their right to play. *This was known to the students,* and yet not a member of the faculty was brave enough to protest, so intense was the feeling about winning the game. I may add that the game was won, and mainly through the "great work" of the false student matriculated at 4 P. M. on the preceding day. The opposing team had consented to accept him because they themselves had been guilty of an irregularity.

I have before me a letter received by a friend from a correspondent living near another college. It is proper for me to say that the specific instances I cite refer to small colleges. I suppose the larger institutions have not the same temptation of playing false students. The college to which I now refer has hitherto prided itself on its high moral tone. Its new President has the reputation of being a hustler for athletics, and by personal appeal he secured the return of B. for the football season. B. had already made arrangements to attend a professional school. The letter says:

"B. did matriculate and take a class or two, and will be paid enough for playing to get his outfit for winter, and to take him to ——, and to give his mother a little; and she is satisfied provided he does not get hurt. He will go to —— as soon as the ball season is over, about the 25th, I believe.

"Many are quite disgusted with Dr. ——. Say he is doing so much about athletics, and letting down the dignity of the university in many ways, just to get a large number enrolled, and does not care whether they stay or not if he can make it appear in the catalogue that the number of students has increased under his presidency."

Unless I am greatly mistaken, this private note, which had no thought of publication, will touch many responsive chords.

In this communication I have spoken only of the moral side of the football debauch. I have said nothing of the neglect of work caused thereby. This is another story.

Very respectfully, MEDIUS.

November 27, 1902.

"LATTER-DAY SUPERSTITIONS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Assuming what is almost certainly the case, that your readers are misinformed respecting Theosophy, I hope it is not presumptuous in one who professes information on the subject to say that Mrs. Tingley is not a member of the Theosophical Society established by Mme. Blavatsky and Col. Olcott, and that she has repudiated all connection with it. Furthermore, by explicitly condemning one of the most prominent of Theosophical writers, she has thereby implicitly rejected the views of all other Theosophical authors of to-day. Mrs. Tingley, moreover, is called by her followers their "Leader," while the members of the Theosophical Society have never acknowledged any leader, and to them the possibility of leadership is wholly unintelligible. Theosophical students —while, of course, they are entirely indifferent to the opinion of those who are ignorant of their beliefs and pursuits—are nevertheless unwilling to be classed, by implication, with those who have long since seceded from the body known throughout the world as the Theosophical Society, the sole aim of which—I would alone add—is the study, by purely scientific methods, of the manifestation of the Divine Wisdom in the visible and invisible realms of nature.

FREDERIC WILLARD PARKE.

BOSTON, MASS., November 30, 1902.

# Notes.

Mr. S. S. Rider announces, in his Providence *Book Notes,* the near completion of his 'History of the Development of a Constitutional Government in Rhode Island.' This off his hands, he will resume the issue of his much-prized Rhode Island Historical Tracts.

Messrs. Scribner will publish next week Gen. De Wet's vigorous work on 'The Three Years' War.'

Little, Brown & Co. give notice that their three-volume trade edition of 'The Speeches and Other Writings of Daniel Webster, Hitherto Uncollected,' goes over till after the holidays. Nearer are 'The Last Days of Pekin,' translated from the French of Pierre Loti, by Myrta L. Jones, and 'First-Hand Bits of Stable-Lore,' by Francis M. Ware, finely illustrated.

In our favorable notice last year of the Blashfields' 'Italian Cities' (Scribners) we spoke of this work's capacity for interleaving with photographs by tourists whom it had served as an uncommonly trustworthy unconventional guide-book. Whether acting upon this hint or not, the publishers, who have purged the plates of some of the typographic infelicities pointed out by us, now offer the two volumes greatly enhanced in beauty and in value by forty-eight full-page illustrations from Alinari photographs. The selection has been admirably made and is remarkably unhackneyed; we cannot recall a better in a work of this character. Each subject is carefully described in the table. Here is a gift-book indeed.

A presentable one-volume edition of Burns's Poetical Works, annotated by William Wallace, LL.D (London: Chambers; New York: Dutton), is characterized by clear type and numerous illustrations from paintings, often of Scottish scenery. The notes are at the foot of the page.

John Lane extends his pocket "Lover's Library" with 'Love Poems of Herrick,' with the usual delicate colored borders and pretty binding.

A notable example of compression without illegibility and of comprehensiveness without bulk is offered by the latest volume in the "Oxford Miniature" series, viz., 'Aurora Leigh, and Other Poems, by Elizabeth Barrett Browning' (H. Frowde). The selections are from the early poems, together with a general miscellany and the Sonnets from the Portuguese. The Oxford India paper enables the 948 pages to occupy no more cubic space than 3 inches x 4½ x ¾. There are indexes by first lines and by titles.

While discoursing *de minimis,* we may mention a reprint of Thoreau's 'Life without Principle,' with Emerson's brief sketch of the author, published at the Sign of the Hop-pole, Eden Bridge, Kent, Eng. There is not much to say of it except that the Chiswick Press has done well by the typography of the oblong page.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have been well advised in going abroad for an illustrator of Kate Douglas Wiggin's 'Penelope's Irish Experiences' in a new edition. Mr. Charles E. Brock's deft hand has adorned Mrs. Wiggin's lively chapters amusingly and characteristically with pen sketches in the letterpress, with which they harmonize very successfully.

Alice Barber Stephens's designs for Little, Brown & Co.'s new edition of Miss Alcott's 'Little Women' are of a superior order. They are elaborate wash-drawings, clever in execution, full of detail, with a feminine mastery of female costume and a happy regard to the fashion of the day of the "little women." Each has a full page to itself, if we except the vignette of the title-page. Few classics are so well treated.

Messrs. Wainwright and Palmer's 'Harvard Alphabet' (Cambridge: Harvard Cooperative Society), is a favorable sample of the college humor that has sustained the *Lampoon* for so many years. The verse is bright, and the illustrations (by two unnamed designers) make a good match. It should be said that much of the jingle is collegiate rather than Havardiensian, so that at other institutions this handsomely made volume is capable of finding favor. Yale, we are sure, would take kindly to the letter G:

"G what a Game!
Why the deuce can't we score?
It is always the same,
Hully Gee! what a game!

The half-backs are lame
And the line men are sore.
Gee! what a game!
Why the deuce can't we score?"

With the letter H, embodying an old Jo, the case might be different.

'Recollections of Dublin Castle and of Dublin Society, by a Native' (Brentano's) is amusingly written, evidently by one who has had experience of Dublin life in the fifties and sixties. Perusal will bring up many recollections, both sweet and bitter, to those who have lived in the metropolis of Ireland within the period treated. The book is, however, more than less of a caricature, and is as likely to be acceptable to thoughtful Irishmen as must be "nigger" literature to persons of the colored race. The burlesque portraiture of the Earl of Carlisle (Lord Morpeth), one of the best of noblemen, is peculiarly ungracious. Books such as this and 'Ireland Sixty Years Ago,' which appeared in the forties, are seldom written concerning

phases of life among people who have the power to compel respect.

It is pleasant to welcome a genealogy in which moderate size and sufficient fulness are so well joined as in the 'Descendants of Richard Everett of Dedham, Mass.,' by the late Edward F. Everett of Cambridge (Boston: T. R. Marvin & Son). The family is not a very large one, and cannot be said to have been always prominent in the whole length of the annals of New England. In the last century, however, it had its full share of honor in the persons of the Rev. Oliver Everett and his gifted sons, Alexander H. and Edward, and grandson, William Everett; Horace Everett of Vermont; the Rev. Dr. Charles C. Everett of Harvard, and David Everett, author of "You'd scarce expect one of my age." The notices of all of these, while short as biographies, may perhaps be described as models for their place in a book of family genealogy. There are several portraits in the volume, among them two of the Hon. Edward Everett, one of the Hon. Horace Everett, which might almost be taken for a head of Rembrandt, and one of the author, Edward F. Everett, which, in the opinion of a classmate, is a wonderfully good likeness. The volume declares itself to be "privately printed," yet appears to be offered for sale. It comes to us by way of the above firm, but we understand that application for copies should be made to Mrs. Edward F. Everett, Cambridge, Mass.

Seventeen years ago we spoke of a work by Dr. Douglas Graham as "a valuable professional book for which, and for the subject to which it is devoted, we venture to predict distinguished success. But it will come slowly." The third edition of his 'Treatise on Massage' (Lippincott), illustrated and much enlarged, is evidence of this success. The treatise is a capital demonstration of the value of external treatment in many and serious conditions, and its considerable claims do not transcend the truth. One might wish the style more dignified at times; but facts are better than style, and these are perfectly satisfactory. We are glad to commend it again to our medical readers and to intelligent laymen.

The D. Van Nostrand Co. bring out an eighth edition, "carefully revised and enlarged," of Mackrow's well-known and indispensable 'Naval Architects' and Ship-builders' Pocket-Book.' More recent examples of ships might be cited than the obsolete *Agincourt*, *Bellerophon*, etc., while the persistent misspelling "Mesaure" (p. 615) suggests that the revision might be still more "careful."

Mrs. Candace Wheeler's 'How to Make Rugs' (Doubleday, Page & Co.) is an earnest plea for the resuscitation of the hand-loom of our foremothers, put to the use of producing rag, cotton, and woollen rugs and portières. She appeals for workers to the farmer's family and rural communities, and incidentally to any "kind and cultivated" folk who can act as go-betweens for the country supply of the loom and the city demand. The book is a practical one of direction as to details of coloring and weaving, with the true artistic feeling one would expect from the writer. May the ideas of such women as Mrs. Wheeler and Mrs. Albee bear abundant fruit in our *machine*-carpeted land!

Of Mr. H. W. Macdonald's essay entitled 'Electric Waves' (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan) we can only say here that it constitutes a highly important contribution to the mathematical theory of electricity, going down to the very bottom of the subject, and putting it in a much clearer light for the mathematician.

Part IX. of 'The Georgian Period,' the excellent publication of the American Architect and Building News Co., is at hand. In this number much attention is given to the neighborhood of Charleston, S. C. The text and plates may be considered as being in continuation of Part X., forming with it a study of the very interesting and characteristic "Old Colonial" architecture of the Sea Island district and of the upper country which depends upon it. Since the days when the exigencies of civil war carried some of us to the seacoast thereabouts, there has been little occasion to visit the somewhat out-of-the-way villages and places of summer resort in which these admirable houses and almost equally interesting churches are to be found. But the city of Charleston itself furnishes St. Michael's Church, to which several plates are given, and St. Philip's Church, which is almost as fully illustrated. There are also the unique and attractive village church at Santee and some admirable tombs, of the kind which were built on the plantation for the inhumation of successive generations, like the very well known instance at Mount Vernon. The text is furnished by C. R. S. Horton, E. Eldon Deane, and Olive F. Gunby.

The same firm announces 'The Seats of the Colonists and Other Furnishings.' The idea once entertained of including colonial furniture in 'The Georgian Period' has, it seems, been definitively abandoned; and the work just named will be undertaken if the subscriptions are sufficiently numerous. The cost of it is to be $20. Horace C. Dunham of Boston and W. Galsworthy Davy, a well-known English compiler of archæological books, will furnish measured drawings and photographs, and the book promises to be of very great interest and value.

Adelaide Keen's 'With a Saucepan Over the Sea' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is a compilation noticeable for wise selection and judicious condensation. Like many of its predecessors, however, its use will be confined to those who have more than elementary knowledge of cookery. The professional domestic cook, we fear, can hardly be induced to read it and follow faithfully its directions and suggestions. Nothing but praise can be bestowed upon this epitome of the more savory and piquant culinary concoctions of the various European nationalities. The author is to be congratulated upon the discrimination which leads her to include in her list garlic sauce (Provence). Unfortunately, she gives the formula in terms so general that it will not be intelligible to more than one in a thousand into whose hands the book may fall. The making of this sauce involves a great deal more than she indicates in the recipe. It is observable in almost all cooking compilations issued in this country that a *liaison* made of beaten yolks of eggs to combine or amalgamate the ingredients of a soup or sauce is rarely mentioned, whereas abroad this amalgam is strenuously insisted upon. In the recipe for garlic sauce, Miss Keen makes no mention of this important factor.

The sixteenth volume of the 'Collections of the Wisconsin Historical Society,' just issued, is eminently a source book of knowledge regarding Wisconsin under the French régime from 1634 to 1727. The editor, Secretary Thwaites, has here compactly stored multitudinous historic materials in part known only to himself, or not before translated, or accessible only in the archives of Canada or France. The work is distinctly annalistic, having topics ranged under more than a hundred dates. The seventy-three volumes of 'Jesuit Relations,' edited by Mr. Thwaites, and as many more other works, are laid under contribution, so that many subjects imperfectly treated in former volumes of the Society onward from 1855 are elucidated. The rise and progress of fur trade and missions, which walked hand in hand, are cleared of many obscurities. Indians are shown *in puris naturalibus*, just as they were when first encountered by whites. The difficulty or impossibility of benevolent assimilation between fur traders and natives is strikingly illustrated, each proving a curse to the other; the one becoming a hard master and the other a refractory slave. The corruption among French officials is a startling object-lesson that irresponsible power will be abused so long as man is man. A mission was established near the head of Lake Superior in 1660; how much had then been done in Massachusetts? In 1701 more than 30,000 pounds of copper ore were mined on Blue Earth River. This history will be doubly read, thanks to thirty-five pages of index by Miss Blair, who, by her wonderful labor in that line for the 'Jesuit Relations,' has won national laurels. Every page makes references we are eager to trace.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for November controverts the prevailing impression that Lake Erie is getting lower. The contrary is true, according to Prof. E. L. Mosely, who asserts that "the slow tilting of the earth's crust in the Great Lake region" is deepening the lake. The evidence on which he relies is mainly the existence of submerged stumps and stalagmites, the formation of marshes, the conversion of peninsulas into islands, and of islands into reefs. "At many places in northern Ohio roads and houses have been moved south on account of the encroachment of the water. Many orchards have fallen into the lake. The same is true of the Canadian shore. Nowhere is there any building up at all comparable with the amount of land lost. Since 1809, when the first survey was made, more than 500 acres have been lost in Erie County along the lake and in the eastern part of Sandusky Bay, while the enlargement of the western part of the bay probably amounts to several square miles." Considering its source, the article on the course of the retail coal trade by the Chief of Division of Mineral Resources is distinctly disappointing as a contribution to our knowledge of a subject of great importance. From a brief account of the work of the Signal Corps for the last fiscal year it appears that the telegraph system in the Philippines was increased by 2,600 miles, making the total 6,434 miles. In Alaska, 1,121 miles of land lines and submarine cables have been laid, and there were turned over to the Cuban Government 3,500 miles of wire and equipment which

had been put in during the American occupation.

In the *Geographical Journal* for November the Rev. George Grenfell describes the upper Congo as a waterway, its currents, floods, and the various obstacles to navigation. There is now on the river a fleet of more than a hundred steamers of all sizes, "from small launches up to crafts carrying between 200 and 300 tons." This is the growth of twenty-one years, the first steamer having been launched in November, 1881. It would be greater but for the difficulty of obtaining food. "After leaving the Pool, nothing or next to nothing is to be obtained for the first 180 miles. . . . After carefully counting the houses in the villages on the banks of the river, and allowing a very full average for the inhabitants of each house, it is perfectly clear that there are not more than 125,000 people in the villages and towns along the 980 miles of waterway." Though the author makes no comment on this fact, it would seem to be a strong confirmation of the charge that the Belgian method of treating the natives tends to depopulate the Free State. Major Rycroft, in telling of a trip along the Mediterranean coast of Egypt, calls attention to the archæological interest of the journey, as everywhere west of Alexandria "one comes across the well-preserved foundations of ancient towns, which should well repay careful investigation." Prof. E. Suess discusses the problems offered by hot springs and volcanic phenomena, especially the question, "whether the water of boiling springs is vadous [that is, of superficial origin] or hypogene." Other articles are a sketch of Capt. Sverdrup's explorations in the Arctic, by Sir Clements Markham, and a visit to the Hoggar Twaregs by W. J. Harding King.

*Petermann's Mitteilungen*, number ten, contains a summary, by Dr. G. Schott, of recent observations in respect to the distribution of the surface salinity of the oceans. From the accompanying chart it appears that in the Atlantic there are two large areas, north and south of the equator, with a very high percentage of salinity, but in the Pacific there is one comparatively small area with a like percentage south of the equator. W. Stavenhagen sketches the history and present condition of cartography in Russia, and the editor, Dr. Supan, sums up the scientific results of the German and English antarctic expeditions so far as they have been received.

The publishers of *McClure's Magazine* follow good examples in issuing a Complete Index from June, 1893, to April, 1902, inclusive. Authors and subjects together, it fills twenty-nine pages in double columns.

Prof. W. E. Mead of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., solicits answers to inquiries concerning "two distinct ideals of teaching composition" in schools as stated in Circular No. 3 put forth by the Pedagogical Section of the Modern Language Association of America. Those who may be desirous to aid in the investigation, which has a practical end, should send for this circular as soon as possible.

'The Cynic's Calendar of Revised Wisdom for 1903' (San Francisco: Paul Elder & Morgan Shepard) is well named. The division of parts between Oliver Herford, Ethel Watts Mumford, and Addison Mitzner is not wholly revealed. The calendar is in book form, and each monthly subdivision bears a perverted motto, like "Fools rush in—and win, where angels fear to tread." Red borders and red designs give a lurid attractiveness to the cynicism.

—Henry Loomis Nelson writes of 'The So-called Steel Trust' in the December *Century*, continuing that magazine's series of articles on the great business combinations of the present industrial era. Mr. Nelson is rigidly expository, not argumentative. Indeed, he has fought so shy of the argumentative phases of the subject that one feels some defect in the exposition. For the future he ventures only the conditional prophecy that "if the theory of the United States Steel Corporation is vindicated by the test of time, a great advance will have been made by it in the industrial world, which will inure to the welfare of labor and to the benefit of the consumer, as well as to the profit of those who have made the venture." The reader may add for himself the obvious conclusion from the facts presented, that such a universally beneficent outcome of the Trust movement must depend upon the ability of the people, through the national Government, to impose, and the readiness of the combinations in good faith to accept, such legal regulation of the movement as will hold in check the temptation to extortion which great financial power always tends to excite; and will give due assurance against the domination of Government agencies by corporate influences. Prof. W. T. Hewett of Cornell University contributes a very interesting and appreciative sketch of the work of F. W. Robertson, pointing out with keen perception the reasons why his influence must surpass in depth and permanency that of such men as Beecher, Spurgeon, Newman, Liddon, Caird and others, who attracted much wider attention in their time. Weir Mitchell makes a brief study of some seven hundred examples of personal heroism displayed in the attempt to save others from bodily harm. The instances were collected during a period of ten months by a clipping agency, as the result of a discussion over the question whether the civilized world is improving in the quality of altruism. Plenty of altruism in specific cases is developed, but the results are admitted to throw little light on the original question. It would be interesting to have Dr. Mitchell discuss the fact that these displays of altruism in great peril are often by men whose everyday life is, to outward appearances, altogether selfish.

—Richard Harding Davis opens the Christmas *Scribner's* with an article on "The Gentle Art of Bull-fighting." With the eye chiefly upon the profuse illustrations, one might well question the ethical utility of such matter in an American family magazine, but the text puts very effectively the essential brutality and cowardice of bull-baiting, its utter lack of that evenness of chances as between the two sides to the contest which is the foundation of all true sport, as well as its spectacular brilliancy and its power to appeal to a morbid taste for the sensational. Mrs. Lucy Derby Fuller contributes a few letters from Richard D. Blackmore, which she received at various dates from 1879 to the year of his death. Among the items of personal interest to be gleaned from them are his strong repugnance to photographic celebrity, his distrust of his own power as a judge of literature, his keen appreciation of the American interest in his books, and his love for the poetry of Paul Hamilton Hayne. The Editor moralizes upon the vast expansion of American wealth during the present generation, but without any definite conclusions. In "The Field of Art" Will H. Low mildly deprecates the announced intention of Columbia University to establish a department to include practical instruction in painting and sculpture. Aside from the features mentioned, and two short poems, the number is given up to fiction.

—The December *Harper's* is devoted chiefly to fiction and poetry in recognition of the Christmas season. Distinctively Christmas stories, however, are noticeable only by their absence. Margaret Deland draws upon the Old Chester folk for an excellent story, and shows that the resources of Dr. Lavender had by no means been exhausted by former efforts. Among the more serious contents of the number the first place belongs, without contest, to Mr. Swinburne's article on Goneril and Regan. His well-known tendency to superlatives is used without restraint. The one tragedy of "King Lear," he says, would prove its author the greatest poet that ever lived as clearly as does his entire work. The Hebrew prophets and the author of Job may surpass him in imaginative sublimity and passion, but are quite incomparably inferior in imaginative intelligence. Sophocles is his peer in nobility, beauty, and kindliness, "but the gentle Shakespeare could see farther and higher and wider and deeper at a glance than ever could the gentle Sophocles." Aristophanes, with all his infinitely joyous wit and infinitely inexhaustible humor, can set nothing against Falstaff or the Fool. All this from the first column; but it fairly represents any page of the four. In connection with Sophocles, Mr. Swinburne remarks that "Antigone herself—and with Antigone alone can we imagine the meeting of Cordelia in the heaven of heavens—is not so divinely human as Cordelia." This rather strikingly recalls two lines of Carducci's in his stanzas "Beside Shelley's Urn," a sort of *trionfo*, passing in review in pairs the inhabitants of "Fancy's resplendently lovely sea-girt island":

> "La pia Cordelia chiama—Deh, candida Antigone, vieni!
> Vieni, o greca sorella! Cantiam la pace a i padri."

John D. Champlin, jr., gives us the "True Captain Kidd," stripping the pirate hero of much of the wickedness that has made him popular. Booth Tarkington puts in a spirited plea for the Middle West against a certain condenscension in Easterners, and the Easy Chair drops literary criticism for a moralizing ramble over the grounds of a typical county fair.

—The visit of the Emperor William to his uncle at Sandringham has brought with it a visit to Oxford which will doubtless do much toward shaping the policy adopted at Berlin as to Rhodes scholars. Dr. G. R. Parkin, appointed by the Rhodes Trustees to frame a scheme for the appointment of the American and Colonial schol-

ars contemplated in the Rhodes will, has no sooner left Oxford than he is succeeded by two representatives of the German Emperor, bent upon a similar errand, and assisted by the experience already accumulated by Dr. Parkin's uncommonly successful plan for feeling the pulse of Oxford upon the general question of Rhodes scholarships and Rhodes scholars. Messrs. Kielhorn and Schmidt have, as Dr. Parkin had done before them, drawn up a list of questions which they have addressed to the several Oxford colleges. One of the plans under consideration seems to be the appointing of young men fresh from the German secondary schools. These youths would go to Oxford for a year, which would be counted as a part of their university career in much the same way as if it had been spent at a German university. The great argument in favor of this plan seems to be that a number of young Germans are in the habit even now of resorting to Oxford for a year. Against it is the consideration that the schoolboy age is one which is too impressionable; youths at this stage might easily learn to love English ways too much or to detest them unreasonably.

## NEW EDITIONS OF POE.

*The Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe.* Edited by James A. Harrison. 17 volumes. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1902.

*The Complete Works of Edgar Allan Poe.* With a critical introduction by Charles F. Richardson. 10 volumes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

At last Poe has come into his own. His text was long the most neglected in our native literature; it is now, if not the best, certainly the most edited of all. Our classics cannot be too often issued, and both these new editions have, each in its own way, novel points of excellence unshared by others. The coincidence of their publication strongly emphasizes the established place of Poe in our standard literature, and the care with which his fame is cherished. The Virginia edition is, indeed, an old-fashioned labor of love, the work of three gentlemen of the University of Virginia where Poe was educated, and sets him forth with local pride as a Virginia product. The more sumptuous "Arnheim Edition" of Messrs. Putnam, introduced by Professor Richardson of Dartmouth College, presents Poe exclusively as a "world-author." In other respects, the two editions are also opposed; and, if the former receives greater attention here, it is because of its unusual claims. The "Arnheim" is a careful standard reprint, in substance, and is content to take its place with others. The Virginia editors are of a different mind. They endeavor to reconstitute the text; they claim that they have freed it from the corruptions of other editors, and that it is now presented in its original integrity for the first time. Such a claim—the question being what is the standard text of one of our most distinguished authors—deserves scrutiny.

The first point made by the Virginia editors (and it is often reiterated) is, that they have gone to the original sources. A hasty reader might get the impression that they only had done so. Griswold, of course, had the original sources, as Poe's executor, for so much of Poe's work as he included in his edition. It is not the fact of going to the sources that counts, but rather the use one makes of them. Griswold attempted no more than a fairly good reprint of what seemed permanent or interesting in the miscellaneous papers of a writer, lately dead, whose place in literature was still to be judged. The edition so made served its purpose until, with the increase of Poe's fame and the lapse of time, something more seemed due him. Stedman and Woodberry then gave a new edition; they went to the original sources, rearranged the matter, modernized the mode of printing as regards spelling, punctuation, and so forth, corrected errors in dates, names, quotations, foreign terms, and the like, and, in a word, established a text such as any author desires of his own works. This was, in fact, a critical edition. There is another way of editing the sources, namely, to reproduce them in their original state. This the Virginia editors have adopted. They have retained the contemporary form in which Poe's writings appeared, in all the details of the printing, and have corrected errors only in the most necessary cases, and then with notice to the reader. It is a facsimile method of editing. Either method has advantages of its own, and both have been applied to many great authors; but, in general, the former is the best for the general public; the latter is the most useful to the special literary student. With this general statement as to the character of the editing, and with the remark that the arrangement is chronological, by divisions, the results may best be illustrated by taking the parts separately, and examining them with regard to the three prime virtues of editing—fulness, accuracy, and authority.

In the "Tales" and "Poems" there is no new matter, and the verbal text does not differ in any material point from that generally received, such variations as there are being in the nature of very minor corrections. The original sources, printed and manuscript, are the same used by other editors, except that the first publication of "The Angel of the Odd" in the *Columbian Magazine* has been found and collated. The identification had been previously made by the late W. M. Griswold. Further research by the editors might not have been fruitless, however; for example, the first publication of "The Sphinx," for the text of which Griswold has been the only authority, was in *Arthur's Magazine*, January, 1846, and an earlier text of "Mystification" than any collated may be found in the *American Monthly* for June, 1837. The novel feature of the edition, under "Tales" and "Poems," is a variorum, showing the state of the text in the different forms published by Poe. As is well known, Poe was accustomed to revise his work of all sorts, and print it over again whenever he had a chance. The extent of this revision is remarkable, and the illustration now afforded of it by this laborious compilation is complete for this section. Woodberry had already done the same thing for the "Poems," but the extension of this method to the "Tales" is the most peculiar and valuable trait of the Virginia edition.

To confine attention to the "Poems," "The Raven" may be regarded as a fair example by which to test the accuracy of the collation. "The Raven" was issued by Poe in the *American Whig Review*, corrected in the *Broadway Journal*, and revised in the edition of 1845; it now is given either in a fourth form, that of Griswold, or a fifth, that of the Lorimer-Graham copy (originally Griswold's) of the 1845 edition, with MS. corrections by Poe. There are thus five distinct forms of the poem. If the variorum of the Virginia editors be compared with these, the following results appear. In the account of the first form, two readings, *mortals* and *something*, are recorded, but do not occur; in that of the second, the same readings are recorded, but do not occur, a variant in stanza xi, 5 is omitted, and a misprint, *vied* for *tried*, should be noted; there is no account of the third form; there is no account of the fourth form, except a reference made to it in the account of the first, and the reference is incorrect; the fifth form is the one adopted in the text. The editors give, however, an account of the form in the *Southern Literary Messenger*, which is verbally the same as that in the *Whig Review*, but differs in punctuation. In describing this, they omit six readings, give in stanza xi. the *Broadway Journal* reading by mistake, and in stanza ii, 2 (as also in the *Broadway Journal* form in the same place) adduce a variation where none exists.

The raven is an ill-omened bird, and makes here a pretty nest of errors. It is not given to editors to be faultless, and this is a peculiarly trying kind of work; the rest of the editing is, on the whole, much more to be trusted, so far as we have examined it. A few other errors may be noted in passing, in case the work should be revised, as it needs to be: in "Al Aaraaf," 1831, lines 26-30, are omitted; in "Israfel," 1831, viii. 4, *so* for *as;* in "The City of Sin" (misprinted *Sea*), 1836, the omission of six lines from 1831 is not noted. The date of "To One in Paradise," in *Godey's*, should be 1834. Misprints are numerous throughout the notes; one in the body of the text, "The Valley of Unrest," line 22, *three* for *there*, may be worth correction. Apart from these matters of detail, we observe that the variant readings of the Philadelphia papers are entirely omitted, as well as those of the Wilmer manuscript and of the manuscript facsimile of the lines to Mrs. Shew.

To pass to the critical writings, it is here that the editors are most proud of what they have accomplished; and if enthusiasm for their author and laborious patience in his service were all there is to editing, they might well be satisfied. They have greatly increased the bulk of the section, partly by including reviews hitherto thought too valueless to be revived, and partly by printing the earlier forms of later critical writing in addition to the latter. The method followed is, in fact, the same as in the "Tales" and "Poems," only, instead of giving the variants in notes, the original articles are reprinted. It is better that there should be repetition, it is said in explanation, than that anything of Poe's should be lost. The results are occasionally surprising, owing to Poe's inveterate habit of using his old material over again. For example, a long review of Hall's 'Book of Gems,' from the *Southern Literary Messenger*,' August, 1836, was reprinted, very slightly revised, in the *Broadway Journal*, 1845; the editors, therefore, give it twice—once in volume ix. 91 as "early criticism," and again in volume xii. 139 as "later criticism." Some passages will be thus found

in at least three places. In these ways the amount of critical matter is enlarged by the reprinting of earlier forms of papers which have hitherto been taken only in their final forms, and by reviving a considerable portion of transitory and inferior criticism mainly from Poe's youthful period. The section "Marginalia" is much swelled in this way. In respect to fulness, nevertheless, nothing previously unknown has been found, nor is all that is known included.

The critical section, however, raises a much more important question than that of completeness—the question of the authority of Griswold's text in those portions where it differs from the magazine publication by Poe in his lifetime. The Virginia editors challenge it, and assail Griswold's character after the old manner of Poe's apologists. The subject is brought to a head in the text of the 'Literati.' In the "Editor's Preface" the chief editor says, without qualification: "Of the original thirty-eight papers printed by Poe, five found in the current editions are *Griswold's substitutes for Poe's original articles*. We have rejected the spurious papers and put Poe's back in their places." The italics are his own. In the special "Introduction" to the 'Literati,' he adds: " 'The Literati of New York City,' now for the first time printed under its own title, just as Poe wrote it, was 'edited' by Griswold, who substituted for Poe's papers on Thomas Dunn English, Mary E. Hewitt, James Lawson, C. F. Briggs and Mrs. F. S. Osgood, other papers in the Poe manner. These Griswold versions will be found in the Appendix." The charge is grave, and should not have been lightly made. It is that Griswold, being Poe's literary executor, tampered with the text, and "substituted," in fact, "spurious" papers "in the Poe manner" for Poe's own articles in these five cases; and elsewhere the position taken is that Griswold, unsupported by an independent text, is untrustworthy. Let us take the case of the paper on Mrs. F. S. Osgood. Griswold's text is printed in the Appendix (vol. xv, 271). If the reader will turn to volume xiii, 175, under the head of "Later Criticism," he will find a paper on Mrs. Osgood published under Poe's name during his life in the *Southern Literary Messenger* for August, 1849, and hence here included. It is identical with Griswold's paper, except for some slight variation in the extent of the quotations from Mrs. Osgood's poems, and also for the omission of some five lines at the end. In other words, the paper on Mrs. Osgood, described as "spurious," and written "in the Poe manner," is also printed as Poe's undoubted work. It is hardly credible that so stupid a blunder should have been made, especially when the editor was attacking the character of one of his predecessors; but there the two articles stare the reader in the face.

"We have carefully disentangled what might well be called the snarl of the 'Literati,' " says the editor, and this is the way he began to do it. What is "the snarl of the 'Literati' "? The truth about it is as follows: Poe contributed a series of papers, with this title, to *Godey's* in 1846. At a later time he formed a plan of gathering his critical writings on American authors into a book, and, as usual, he rewrote and rearranged the whole, using his old material. The work was advertised to appear in the spring of 1847, but it was never published. The manuscript of this work, with some parts missing, was found among the Griswold papers. The way in which Poe used it may be readily illustrated. The present writer has before him pp. 79, 80 of the MS. which contain a revised version of the paper on Laughton Osborn in the 'Literati.' Poe used a portion of this to make his introduction to his review of Lowell's "Fable for Critics" in the *Southern Literary Messenger* for March, 1849. The rest has never been printed. In the last-mentioned magazine for October, 1850, appeared "Poe on Headley and Channing," announced as "from advance sheets of 'The Literati,' a work in press by the late Edgar A. Poe." The existence of the work in question, then, namely, a revised 'Literati,' is clear; and from its pages Poe's later critical magazine writings were extracted. He was merely following his usual method when he sent the paper on Mrs. Osgood to the *Messenger* in 1849. From this same source, there can be no doubt Griswold obtained the half-dozen critical papers not previously published, as well as the four other "substituted" papers of the 'Literati,' and also the rearrangement of the papers on Hawthorne and other writers at which the Virginia editors are so indignant.

"Griswold," Professor Harrison says, "has taken the review of Hawthorne in *Godey's Lady's Book* for November, 1847, split it open, inserted another review of Hawthorne from *Graham's Magazine* for May, 1842, mutilated the latter, and then continued with the tail fragment of the 1847 review as colophon, thus dissecting Poe's later paper on the New England writer, and inserting scraps in fragments from one written five years earlier."

This was precisely Poe's way of treating his own work. Griswold would not have taken the trouble to do it. There is no ground to question for a moment that Griswold had manuscript authority for whatever he published differing from or in addition to Poe's printed texts. Even in the case of "The Raven" it must be held an open question whether his version or the Lorimer-Graham version, which he also owned, is of the higher authority. As to the 'Literati,' Griswold was in possession of a manuscript, more or less complete, in part a revision of old work, in part a first copy of MS. elsewhere used in other connections, and, in general, crossing Poe's published work in various ways. It is to be inferred that he used this manuscript, as was said above, for the final form for such papers as those on Hawthorne, and a revised form for the five 'Literati' papers, and the only source for a few pieces; and that he did not utilize it in cases where (as in Osborn's) it would have involved repetition of passages elsewhere appearing.

The truth is, that the editor's prejudice against Griswold has led him to reject Poe's own late and mature revision of his major critical writings in favor of these early, scattered, and fragmentary forms in which they appeared in the magazines in their original helter-skelter production. The same question, it should be observed, arose, though less importantly, in the "Tales." There the editor "straddled"; for example, Griswold's revision of "The Cask of Amontillado" is rejected, "as we have no positive evidence that these changes were made by Poe"; his "Hans Pfaall" and "Metzengerstein" are accepted, "as undoubtedly founded on a revised form of the text in the hands of the editor"; and his "Thousand and Second Tale" is also accepted, but without reason assigned. In conclusion, it must be held that Griswold's authority, so far from being impaired, is strengthened by the present attack on him, and that the edition itself suffers in just that proportion in which it departs from him in substance. In any discussion of the text of Poe the primary fact should never be lost sight of, namely, that Griswold had Poe's papers, as collected and prepared by Poe himself, who expected that he might die at any time and had taken care to ask Griswold to be his executor. Griswold's task was comparatively a light one; he had no motive to tamper with the text, and beyond the fact that he did not go much outside the collections he had received, and did not oversee the printing with great accuracy, there is no fault to be found with him.

We have left ourselves with short space for the remainder of the contents of the edition, *i. e.*, the Letters and the Biography. The idea of collecting the letters was an admirable one, for, taken together, they give, with all their triviality of subject and frequent meanness of spirit, the best personal impression of Poe. The collection is very complete, though a few have been missed, as, for example, the letter to Bryan, published April 16, 1892, in the *Critic*. The editor makes much of including the Griswold papers which were copied for him from the originals at Boston, or procured in other ways. We observe that he does not mention the publication of all the important letters to, from, or about Poe, in this collection, by Woodberry some years ago. The same lack of candor is even more noticeable in the fact that, while he has obtained several of the letters first collected in Woodberry's 'Life of Poe' from the original sources and owners, and has paraphrased such others in it as he could not so obtain, including those to Lowell, he does not mention that biography as the source. In his own biography of Poe there is very little that is new, and that little is discreditable to Poe. He revives the Richmond gossip about Poe's demanding money of a lady of the Allan family and smashing the windows of the house on being refused, and he is the first biographer to state the cause of Mr. Allan's rupture with Poe as being the latter's forgery of the former's name, though the fact has been strongly suspected. His authority is a niece of Mr. Allan, from whom he prints a letter. There is no attempt in the biography to conceal Poe's faults. Indeed, there has been no such collection of the evidence against Poe as is here gathered. The whole of the English episode, for example, is included, and the damaging letter of his friend Thompson—"no confidence could be placed in him in any relation of life"—with many others, revive nearly all the scandal connected with his name. It would hardly have been possible for any one except a professed Southern apologist of Poe to do this without offence; as it is, an unmeasured eulogy of Poe (these things excepted) makes the balance even.

A few incidental blemishes are to be regretted in this part of the work. The sneer at Longfellow's veracity might well have been omitted, and the attitude toward Lowell is an unpleasant one, while such things as the charge of lying brought against Briggs are, perhaps, though ground-

less, to be expected, since the apologists of Poe have always shown an incapacity to appreciate the fact that the character of others beside Poe is at stake in their statements. Altogether, the biography is a very curious mixture of derogatory facts and laudatory remarks. The other critical apparatus of the edition is of very slight value.

On the whole, notwithstanding its shortcomings and errors, its minimizing, obscuring, and undervaluing the labors of others in the same field, and especially its wrong-headed attitude toward Griswold, for which it pays so heavy a penalty in lessening its own authority, the edition is to be heartily welcomed: it gathers together much obscure matter for the student of Poe, and collects in an accessible form much that has hitherto been scattered in many places, and it will range with other editions, not swallowing them up like Aaron's rod, but reposing amicably beside them on library shelves.

## THE ELDER DUMAS.

*Alexandre Dumas (père): His Life and Works.* By Arthur F. Davidson. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902.

*The Life and Writings of Alexandre Dumas.* By Harry A. Spurr. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1902.

*The Speronara.* From the French of Alexandre Dumas. By Katharine Prescott Wormeley. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1902.

It was to be expected that the centenary of Dumas would be immediately attended with a fair crop of forced literary growths; both author and publisher find their accounts in the ready sale of the conventional "timely" volume. Miss Wormeley's tolerably fluent translation of Dumas's 'Le Speronare' merits a respectable place in the list of such books, and may be recommended to readers so unfortunate as to require the help of an English version in order to accompany that liveliest of travellers on his Sicilian tour. To look for the original buoyancy of style in the resultant transfer is to court disappointment.

The work of Mr. Spurr, while fulfilling the recognized requirements of an anniversary volume in the steady exaltation of its subject to a height which even the vanity of Dumas might have contemplated with misgiving, shows a far too obvious haste in compilation, and somewhat off-hand methods in accepting or rejecting biographical evidence. For instance, it is unprofitable (as Mr. Davidson says) to concern ourselves to-day as to whether the Marquis de la Pailleterie did or did not contract marriage with the woman from whom his descendants inherited their African quality of skin and hair; but opinion on one side or the other should certainly rest on stronger grounds than an assertion by M. Parigot in his insufficiently documented contribution to "Les Grand Écrivains Français." Mr. Spurr disposes in similar fashion of the difficult subject of Dumas's moral burdens in the matter of literary collaborations by summarily riding over the charge.

The volume that stands at the head of our list offers in every respect a striking contrast to its neighbors. If Dumas, during the period of his waning vogue and fortunes, had chosen to complete the 'Mémoires' of 1852-'54, which originally filled twenty volumes with the doings of only thirty years, Mr. Davidson would have been deprived of a rare opportunity and his English readers of an entertaining book. Fortunately also for both, no equally brilliant and rapid pen anticipated him; and we note that, notwithstanding his ample bibliography of French authorities, the present biographer passes by Fitzgerald's almost negligible attempt in discreet but significant silence. The spirit in which the task has been conducted appears in the grave irony of its first prefatory page. To any but the most literal reader, the suggestion that an adequate biographer of the swarthy giant of letters should combine in himself "the anecdotal facility of Suetonius or Saint-Simon with the loaded brevity of Tacitus and the judicial irony of Gibbon," clearly indicates the very pitfalls which the writer of this life has adroitly escaped. Nothing could be easier than to take too seriously an existence rich enough in fantastic episode or wayward adventure to rival D'Artagnan or Dantès. The Richardsonian moralist might look aghast on a private and professional record in some of its aspects as free from ethical nicety as Casanova's; though, unfortunately for the preacher, distinctly wanting in moral edification, seeing that there shone upon Dumas for fully thirty years the undimmed sun of popularity and success. All this part of a far from model career Mr. Davidson handles lightly, deftly, yet without waiving of deeper issues. He seems to understand better than many English critics the elastic adaptability of moral contexture in what might be called the temperamental outfit of the artist. Declining with equal judgment and taste to give in detail the voluminous *chronique scandaleuse* of private life, he enlivens his pages on this inevitable topic with truly un-Puritanical humor. In reply to a naïve comment by the "Comtesse Dash" on the unsatisfactory marriage of Dumas, he has a characteristic remark. To have been perfectly happy with such a man, says the "Comtesse," his wife should have had "tact enough to shut her eyes to his pranks, . . . she should have humored his love of mystery and intrigue, she should have been always on the point of discovering things and yet never have discovered them, and above all she should never have indulged in any scene of jealousy." Mr. Davidson has doubts as to the mortal possibility of such a paragon; and we may in our turn ask what Dumas ever did to justify the assumption that he might have been deservedly mated with a long-suffering angel (p. 207).

Dumas's methods of literary collaboration form another subject for sensible discrimination. The present volume devotes several pages (170-175, 244-256) to examination of the alleged facts, which undoubtedly show that in Dumas's mind the relations of debit and credit in a literary account might be handled in the liberal fashion of his lax financial bookkeeping. As to the real originality of his work and the slanderous malignity of envious De Mirecourts and others, we may well say of the fellow-members concerned in joint productions,

> " . . . vous leur fites, seigneur,
> En les croquant, beaucoup d'honneur."

Not one of the assistants showed more than mediocre creative talent when working independently. The referring of such questions to the law courts ends, as it recently did in our country, in making a laughing-stock of at least one of the litigants, and possibly of the judiciary as well.

The contrast between the two biographies is emphasized by noting their respective attitudes towards Dumas's efforts to reach the Academy, and their failure. Mr. Spurr, genuinely British in prejudice and expression, is incapable of seeing in that institution anything else than the "triumph of literary convention and snobbery" (p. 280). His competitor, with sounder knowledge and incomparably choicer language, says:

"As we foreigners have often to be reminded—the French Academy is a club with somewhat strict conditions of membership, and to these Dumas hardly conformed. . . . Personal considerations weighed . . . against one who had no certain banking account, who was indiscreet in word and deed, and undignified in demeanor, one, in short, who—with his Mélanies and Idas too much in evidence and too much talked about—lacked that outward respectability which is the chief of all Academic qualifications" (pp. 212-213).

Mr. Davidson is, nevertheless, fully disposed to do justice to the delightful qualities that endeared Dumas to his multitudes of friends, whether worthy or unworthy; the testimony comes both from the gravest sources and the "imperfect, undistilled biography" of gossip. Could the great Alexandre fail to win friends when showing such amiable irresponsibility as is recorded in the following episode? During the street fighting of 1830, Dumas, under a sudden impulse, headed a bob-tailed mob making for the Hôtel de Ville, but found the way blocked by a mass of soldiers:

"Prudence dictated a halt and a parley. As leader, Dumas stepped forward, and was met by a captain, from whom he requested permission for himself and his men to pass. In reply to the usual questions as to his destination and object, he declared that the one was the Hôtel de Ville, and the other to fight. The officer laughed outright. 'Really, M. Dumas, I didn't think you were quite as mad as all that.' If it was ruffling to be called *fou*, it was gratifying to find one's name known to the gallant captain, who explained that he had been to see 'Christine' one night when Dumas, who was in the house, had been pointed out to him as the author. 'That being so,' said Dumas, 'we can discuss this matter as friends.' 'Exactly what I am doing,' replied the officer, 'and as a friend I advise you to disband your men and get off quietly.' 'Well, I'll go back and talk to them about it. Many thanks for your kindness; good-bye, and, by the way, don't forget to come and see my next play; if you want tickets for the first night, send to me at 25 Rue de l'Université.'" (p. 117).

Dumas's literary achievement occupies its full share of space in this volume, though not much substantial weight is added to the vast bulk of critical literature on the subject; the author of 'La Tour de Nesle' and 'Monte Cristo' being one of the happy few whose permanency is settled by no body of critical doctrines ever yet devised. As Thackeray puts it in his first "Roundabout Paper": "Novels are sweets. All people with healthy literary appetites love them—almost all women; a vast number of clever, hard-headed men." In recognizing this, Mr. Davidson rarely drops his light-handed manner when treating of works whose vitality has never depended, can never depend, on the test of a serious critical analysis. It is surely futile, for instance, to debate gravely either the general ethical drift of "Antony," or the inferences to be drawn from the sensational wind-up of this play;

its author's own description of it as a drama of passion relieves us from the duty of looking for a "thèse." The "halo of false martyrdom" which Mr. Davidson would have us see in the fate of Adèle is not implied in the play itself, whether read or acted in the spirit of true interpretation. But the share of attention given in this volume to Dumas's dramatic work is, in the eye of an English reader, excessive; for, with us, contemporary drama holds by no means the exalted position which it occupies in France; nor, save for their marvellous rapidity of movement and the strong dramatic coloring of many of their scenes, do the plays of Dumas *père* seem to warrant anything more than the highest order of melodramatic success. The same qualities set off by sprightliness of dialogue keep some of his comedies alive. The chapters entitled "The Great Novels" and "The Monte Cristo Epoch" are in the nature of synopses, rather than of critical studies, which, indeed, those famous books would hardly justify. As for the fragmentary "Isaac Laquedem," representing Dumas's efforts in the direction of philosophical romance on a large scale, candid examination compels the conviction that its suppression by the Censor was an arbitrary kindness to the author's reputation. Who can doubt that Dumas was here slyly endeavoring to outdo Eugène Sue and Balzac together by uniting their totally divergent methods in a single gigantic incongruity?

The point specially emphasized in Mr. Davidson's treatment of the novels concerns not so much the vivid light with which Dumas could surround historic scenes and characters, as the fundamentally sound impression of history and important relations in the past which are generally to be found in his works:

> "What impression of the main characters and events of French history will these romances leave on a reader who knows French history only through them? Will such an one on the whole see right? Doubtless, yes. About the course of religious strife, of domestic intrigue, of foreign policy, he will gather little that 'serious history' will have him unlearn" (p. 222).

The same order of praise has often been bestowed with equal liberality on Dumas's acknowledged master in fiction. Should any writer of "serious history" feel constrained to dispute the claim of either, we may safely leave him to be dealt with by Mr. Davidson, whose undeniable capacity for brilliant biographical study has not been allowed to mislead his judicial sense.

## THREE NOVELS.

*Confessions of a Wife.* By Mary Adams. The Century Co. 1902.

*Doctor Bryson.* By Frank H. Spearman. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

*Out of Gloucester.* By James B. Connolly. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

With Mr. Laurence Housman in mind, and reflecting that what man has done with profit, man may do, we will not venture to say that no man could have written the 'Confessions of a Wife.' There is a type of fiction, the purely emotional, which has been found to sell all the better for an air of verisimilitude. The absence of a name from the title-page was one of the best advertisements of the 'Englishwoman's Love-Letters,' and in the present case "Mary Adams" is confessedly a nom de plume. But there is no doubt whatever that the book was written for women, and those who agree with Professor Münsterberg will see in it a fresh confirmation of their fears for an American literature which bears the *cachet* of feminine taste and standards. At the time of Mr. Housman's *succès de mystère* we were assured by more than one American woman that the situation described in the 'Love-Letters' was typically British, or, at any rate, European; that, in fact, no high-spirited American would have furnished that spectacle of sentimental slavery to an unresponsive object. But Marna Herwin is of a constancy beside which the "Englishwoman" appears flippant. We confess, for our part, that, in reading the "Book of the Heart," as the heroine prefers to call her diary, our sympathies were all on the side of Dana Herwin. What patience could support the emotional *gaucherie* of a woman who addresses her husband as "Thou Strongest," and signs herself "Your Wilderness Girl in Chains," in notes that meet his eye in unexpected places at the rate of three a day? "Darling," begins a "Second Note," "will you mind two notes from me? I will slip this one under your pillow, so you will find it later than the pincushion one" (p. 94). The Marna type of woman does not profit by experience. On page 152 she writes: "Will you be patient with one of my constitutional notes? It is a good while since I have written you any, for I see that they sometimes annoy you in these days." She goes on to ask her husband what he means by underlining an allusion to a "wearing woman" in a book that she was reading. We are already some months from the day when she wrote: "Thou Glorious! . . . here alone in my rose-colored room, my soul turns to thee as if thou wert a god upon a cloud." We are told later that it was about this time that Dana Herwin began to take morphine.

There are passages in the 'Confessions' that almost incline one to the theory that the book was written as a savage study of the disastrous results of sentimentalism uncontrolled by a sense of humor. The sentiment is always overdone, but it touches caricature when Marna writes, "To Ina in Heaven," "You would have been my bridesmaid, . . . you would have worn a robin's-egg-blue silk mull." We pass over the lyrical treatment of a certain ruby ring called "Heart of the Wife," and content ourselves with a mere mention of what may be called the "ruby gown" *motif*. On page 7 Marna "loves to get into a ruby gown and write like this"; a little later we are told that "my ruby gown, especially the velvet part of it, seems to understand me," and, in fact, for three years the appearance of the ruby gown marks a sentimental crisis. The writer probably intends the reading public to sympathize with Marna, "whom nobody understands," but a woman whose exacting sentiment drives her husband to Montevideo and morphine deserves the consequences. Dana Herwin's return and the stages of his cure from the morphine habit are not badly described. He returns, a broken-spirited man, to a series of reconciliation scenes, and we are left with a characteristic view of his wife: "I got into my ruby gown—the dear old faded thing. I wrote the note and slipped it into his hand, and evaded him and left him to read it."

The hero of 'Doctor Bryson' is a Chicago oculist, and the heroine and all the minor characters are his patients. Two-thirds of the book is taken up with minute descriptions of operations and illness. Two children are introduced in order that one may die of malignant croup and the other go through "Tonnesco's operation" and diphtheria. The hero barely recovers from pneumonia, while the heroine, who to our infinite relief seemed about to escape with simple astigmatism, ends as a star case of hysterical amblyopia. Mr. Spearman is so preoccupied with the pathological that he cannot mention a typewriter, who is of no further consequence to the story, without telling us that she has "lips that breed hemorrhages." The tale itself is a mere thread on which to hang descriptions of up-to-date surgery. It is not Mr. Spearman's realism to which we take exception; in the description of the horrors of disease he is easily surpassed by D'Annunzio. But we forgive D'Annunzio for certain passages, when we do forgive him, because of the undeniable beauty and power of the rest. 'Dr. Bryson' is not a work of art, and it does not fulfil one of the chief functions of a work of fiction, which is, surely, to entertain. It is, however, written with a certain force and power of description, and the picture of boarding-house life in Chicago is dreary enough to be true to life.

'Out of Gloucester' is the rather awkward title of six short stories of the adventures of fishermen of Gloucester and their like. They are written with great spirit, and can be recommended to all who enjoy thrilling tales of sea life. All the stories but one illustrate the racing powers and seaworthiness of the Gloucester fishing-boats, and the daring (not to say foolhardiness) of their skippers in eluding British cutters and poaching within the three-mile limit. "A Fisherman of Costla" is laid in Galway Bay, with which the author is evidently familiar. He is wise in not attempting to reproduce the native dialect; but he should not make an Irishman speak of an outside car as a "jaunting-car," a word never heard from Irish lips; nor is an Irishman likely to call a train "the cars" (p. 118). But these are slight slips in a realistic description of an extremely risky sail in a "hooker" to the Arran Islands from Galway. Mr. Connolly's stories often remind us of 'Captains Courageous,' though he is less interested in the fishing trade of the Gloucester men than in their ability to handle their boats and race them under full sail, regardless of rough weather.

*A Treatise on Title-Pages.* With Numerous Illustrations in Facsimile, and Some Observations on the Early and Recent Printing of Books. By Theodore Low De Vinne, A.M. The Century Co. 1902. 12mo, pp. xx, 486.

This third volume in the series entitled "The Practice of Typography" is built upon a last-year publication of the Grolier Club. Now, withdrawn from that exclusiveness, the essay is offered to the public with a change in proportion. The practical part has been greatly enlarged for the benefit of all who pursue the typographic calling, but also to the immediate advantage of authors and for the general cultivation of taste respecting the art of book-making.

The subject is limited in effect to title-

pages set with type, and their evolution is traced from the printer's colophon at the end of the book (the place still occupied in English usage) to the present time. The French were the first to shift the printer's device from rear to front, and this practice was revived in 1840 by the English Pickering. The German Ratdolt, practising his craft in Venice, first employed engraved borders. Title-pages engraved on copper were indigenous in Italy, which contributed very little to displayed title-pages. Some time before 1840 Didot in Paris contrived the condensed type for title-pages, and to this day Mr. De Vinne finds the average French title-page more attractive than the British or American; the Germans are out of the count, because their Gothic capital letters are intractable.

In part ii. the modern title-page is considered in all its bearings, with some citations of rules and more suggestion of the true principles of composition, with a rich array of actual examples in facsimile, faced now and again by critical resettings—in one case by six. Part iii. is specially designated "Critical," and, among other things, reviews the Kelmscott typography in the light of Morris's avowed aim to produce books not only having "a definite claim to beauty," but "easy to read." Mr. De Vinne cannot think this end to have been attained. He points out some of the difficulties which Morris encountered from his own fonts, and gives unqualified praise only to the presswork, which no fifteenth-century printer surpassed.

All this is illuminating without being dogmatic. We particularly call attention to what is said *passim* about the legibility of masses of lines set in capitals, and about amateur invention of letters in the name of decoration. It should be taken to heart by publishers of magazines who offend every canon of typographic taste by printing poems, not only smothered in futile ornament, pictorial or arabesque, but made absolutely unreadable by being lettered by hand. It passes our understanding how the poets themselves can tolerate such treatment—above all, as often happens, on a first appearance. With most of Mr. De Vinne's likes and dislikes we find ourselves in accord. He always has in mind the parallelogram which conditions the printer's liberties with symmetry; he is radically sound as regards spacing, and emphasis, and the mixture of fonts. His own compositions are irreproachable. Sometimes we could wish for a little more color, and we rather sympathize with the French habit of securing this, even when the stress has to fall on the less significant word. Nor do we feel averse to dashes, at least to the same extent as our author. In objecting *in toto* to the use of the ampersand, he appears to us to overlook its possible decorative function; and we answer his inquiry why should we suffer it in a title-page when we exclude it from the text, by alleging the exigency of space and balance, which is no concern of the ordinary letter-press. The ruled border, again, we have a soft side for, but with reserves: if Fitz-Gerald had in mind those which passed muster with his publisher, we cannot wonder that he invited Wright to "spew at Quaritch's ornamentation." The book closes with ten instructive variations on one theme by Mr. Jacobi of the Chiswick Press. The sixth, seventh, and eighth of these suggest an escape from the weakness too often shown in the regulation three-line publisher's imprint.

We commend once more the present volume, and the series, to all who take an interest in the history and the high maintenance of Gutenberg's gift to mankind. They are a mine of curious information and illustration.

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*Dante and the Animal Kingdom.* By Richard Thayer Holbrook. Macmillan (Columbia University Press).

The diversity of Dante's admirers furnishes perennial proof of the great Florentine's many-sidedness. A new illustration of this comprehensive charm appears in the above volume. Here we find an author who has nothing but contempt for mediæval science, who misses no opportunity to sneer at dogmatic theology, who repeatedly confesses a lack of interest in the essential features of the "Paradiso," who shows (in this work at least) no sympathy with allegory, but is nevertheless so fascinated by external beauties, the by-play of Dante's genius, that he is willing to devote himself, with "lungo studio" and presumably with "grande amore," to the production of a new Dante book. Let it be said at once that the book is an excellent one: as a collection of valuable material it will long be indispensable to the specialist, and as reading for the general public it ought to prove entertaining even to those entirely unacquainted with the 'Commedia.'

The author's "Animal Kingdom" includes not only man and the lower beasts, but also the devils and the angels. While these latter creatures cannot, by any extension, be called animals, they are in some ways so closely connected with the subject proper that the omission of them would have left a distinct gap. Dr. Holbrook's great merit is to have set clearly before us the mediæval attitude toward animals, and to have interpreted all the references that Dante makes to beasts in the light of the strange folk-lore that had gathered about them. He finds Dante more conventional, in his use of animal traits, than has generally been supposed; in many cases, however, he concedes to his poet direct personal observation. Even when imitating, Alighieri generally contrives to stamp the copy with his own mark. "Dante," says our author, "has known how to give to a mere literary reminiscence an energy that few writers can impart from the observation of real life." As far as we can ascertain his own preferences, the Florentine, according to Dr. Holbrook, would seem to have been indifferent to horses, to have disliked dogs, hated wolves, despised sheep, and admired falcons, which he described with great accuracy. Dr. Holbrook also excels in his chapter on "Falconry," where he succeeds in illuminating the episode of Alichino and Calcabrina.

In his endeavor to say something about every animal mentioned by Dante, the author occasionally (as in the chapter on the goat) fills in with irrelevant matter, or (as in the treatment of the ass) indulges in somewhat fantastic speculation. In general, however, the work is very substantial; and while no important contribution is made to the solution of any of the great problems, a clear and constant light is shed upon all of Dante's beast-shapes, making them appear in their true mediæval aspect. There are eighteen well-chosen illustrations, nearly all belonging to the Middle Ages; the three colored plates are decidedly attractive, but the most interesting, perhaps, are the "Christ of Salerno," the "Three-Headed Satan," and the "Generation of Vipers."

The chief defect of the book (in the eyes of a reader perhaps unduly serious) is its unsympathetic levity of tone. One is constantly jarred, and either amused or pained, by such flippant passages as these: "In thirteen hundred years the world above him has made some changes in divinities and demons, and Charon, son of Erebus, feels that he must obey the new régime. . . . After thirteen hundred years, Minos has grown a tail." A few small inaccuracies and omissions may be noted. On page 24 we read: "It is interesting to learn from what Dante says later [in 'De Vulgari Eloquentia'] that the serpent must have spoken Hebrew." But Dante corrects the statement in question in the "Paradiso," xxvi, 124. From the description on page 55 one would infer that the Minotaur was in immediate proximity to the Centaurs, instead of being separated from them by a mighty precipice. The "acqua" outside the City of Dis is called on page 211 a "marsh *of heretics*." On page 242 the tale of Aucassin is assigned without comment to the twelfth century. In several places one misses a reference to the 'Magnæ Derivationes' of Uguccione da Pisa, recently discussed by Paget Toynbee. In the note on Ciacco (pp. 177-8) might have been inserted the title of Scherillo's article in the *Nuova Antologia* (xciv, p. 427). The story of the whale mistaken for an island (p. 204) occurs in the first voyage of Sindbad the Sailor; it may be worth while to state that the same yarn is contained in the Provençal bestiary published by Appel in his 'Chrestomathie' (p. 204). Good evidence of the existence of fish-ponds in the gardens of rich Italians (p. 217) is to be found in the sixth story of the tenth day of the 'Decameron.' In connection with Bernart's poem, "Quant vei la lauzeta mover," reference might have been made to Smith's 'Troubadours at Home' (II., p. 162), where we find an English translation and the original music of this beautiful song.

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*The "Times" History of the War in South Africa.* Vol. II. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The second of the six handsome volumes which are to constitute this history is, like its predecessor, illustrated with excellent maps, and with fine photogravure portraits of notable persons on both sides of the contest. The series is edited by L. S. Amery, fellow of All Souls, while the narrative is written by several members of the *Times* staff of war correspondents.

The most distinctive feature of the present volume, aside from its use of much important material made especially available since the close of hostilities, is its searching criticism of the organization of the British army at the outbreak of the war, and of the conditions, both among responsible officials and in public opinion, which prepared the way for the deep humiliation of the British nation which attended most of the activities in the field, down, at least,

to the period at the end of 1899 when Roberts superseded Buller upon the heels of the disaster at Colenso. In many respects this criticism is profitable to the American patriot, as offering a parallel to the attitude of our political managers towards a scientific preparation for war in time of peace. Witness our mortification at the beginning of the war with Spain, when the only evidence our nation was able to present of its readiness for the belligerency into which the Jingoes precipitated us, was the resourceful body of regular troops who had been so long accustomed to fight under adverse conditions that no neglect of civil functionaries could prevent them from carrying off the only laurels won in our land operations.

The editor of this history recognizes that the British army had made a long stride towards reform of its ancient deficiencies when, after 1875, purchase of commissions was displaced by competitive examination, a bureau of military intelligence was established, and field manœuvres were systematically undertaken. But there improvement practically ended. The Staff Intelligence Department was limited to an entirely insufficient number of officers, with an annual appropriation for its maintenance of about £11,000 as contrasted with some £270,000 a year devoted by the German Empire. Little encouragement was given to officers to widen their professional knowledge and to fit themselves for emergencies. Most of their time was thrown away upon foolish ceremonies, petty accounting, and like routine bookkeeping.

The periods of service of the rank and file were so ill-suited to the taste and peculiarities of the British people, that the standard of recruiting had to be several times lowered to meet the impossibility of securing first-class material, and the ranks became a nursery for "lower-class wastrels." Under fairly good treatment, this inferior stuff was converted into a pretty well-disciplined force for show or for the old-time methods of attack in close column. But there was scarcely any drill in marksmanship, no spirit of personal initiative in critical moments, and so intimate a dependence upon the leadership of the officers that when these failed (and for the new warfare they were almost as ignorant as their men), the regiments were as flocks without a shepherd assailed by wolves. "Many of the generals were nothing more than aged regimental officers, with brains and will power atrophied by a long life spent in unmilitary routine; incapable alike of devising a plan or carrying it into execution."

On the other hand, the apparent disgrace of a necessity of putting into the field more than 200,000 British troops to bring to terms less than 60,000 Boers is reduced when it is considered that the latter were in truth trained warriors, habituated to all manner of self-reliance and courage by constant battle, not alone with wild men armed with bows and spears, but with organized natives equipped with modern firearms and often proving themselves a formidable adversary for any fighting troop of white soldiers. In short, the Boers were amply prepared for the sort of warfare which they were required to wage, with the added vigor always given to defenders of their own firesides; while the British carried to strange, unwonted situations the traditions of European highways and fortified towns, or of warfare with Asiatics whose prowess they not illegitimately held in contempt. Happily for their final fortune, the school of calamity was for the British an effective instructor.

The unmilitary student of such volumes as these may draw from their discussions the lesson, which Americans ought to have learned from dear-bought experience, that a democratic government, whether in England or the United States, is, of all political systems under the sun, the least suited to wage warfare, if economy and prompt efficiency are to be taken into reckoning.

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*Seven Roman Statesmen of the Later Republic.* By Charles Oman, M. A. With portraits and illustrations. Longmans, Green, & Co. 1902.

Midway between history and biography, Professor Oman has written one of the most readable books which have recently appeared on the subject of the later Roman Republic. Whether one can always agree with his estimates of the statesmen concerned or not, those estimates are definitely conceived and clearly presented. As a sample of his effective characterization, Tiberius Gracchus is described as having "enough brains to see that the times were out of joint, enough heart to feel for the misfortunes of his countrymen, enough conscience to refuse to leave things alone and take the easy path to success that lay before him, and enough self-confidence to think that he was foreordained to set all to rights." But he failed as a leader because of his emotional temperament, his impatience of opposition, and his utter inability to appreciate an opponent's point of view as well as his own. After all the honors which have fallen to the lot of Cornelia down through the centuries, it makes one gasp to hear her son described as "cursed with a mother who was always reminding him that he was the grandson of Scipio the elder." The various schemes for agrarian reform were doomed to failure, Professor Oman thinks, because the statesmen of the time were not sufficiently trained to see where the roots of economic distress really lay. After the Gracchi, are considered in turn Sulla, Crassus, Cato, Pompey, and Cæsar, and along with their personal fortunes one gets a fairly connected sketch of the development of Roman politics for the period covered. Joined with the gross personal vices of Sulla our author finds enough of the old Roman political virtues to bracket him with Cato as unselfish in aim, looking for no personal profit, and devoting his life to his party and his theory of the Constitution. His reformed Constitution failed in the end for lack of motive power, not from flaws in the mechanism. The clock could not go on ticking without the repairer's hand to give the pendulum an occasional push. Cato is energetically defended against Mommsen's ridicule. (Who does not dare an occasional hostile sally into Mommsen's territory now?) Cato was "a thoroughly successful minister of finance, and an excellent and practical soldier." But for the way in which he was foiled by mean and petty spirits, his efforts at reform might have had large and permanent results to their credit. Cæsar is lashed severely for his "Anti-Cato," a rather discreditable post-mortem revenge upon "the one man whom he could not bend" while living.

Mommsen's idealized Cæsar of course comes in for radical rectification. Pompey is held up as his superior, both directly and by implication, in many qualities of personal character which are rightly sought in a really great nature. The level of Pompey's life was above Cæsar's debauchery, above his cruelty, though he failed in the great crisis because he could not read the signs of the times, and did not quite know what it was that he was blindly groping after. Cæsar was a brilliant opportunist, cruel or clement as his policy might demand, dealing sanely and practically with problems as they arose, but without a single trace of real unselfishness or idealism. "Cæsar the altruist is a fiction of the nineteenth century." The Dictator of B. C. 45 "was but the debauched young demagogue of B. C. 70, grown older, riper, and more wary." Even at the age of fifty-four he was "ready to lapse into undignified amours with a clever and worthless little Egyptian princess." Here again one gasps. Surely the dignity of Horace's great ode, "Nunc est bibendum," is more in accord with the real significance of Cleopatra than this flippancy.

Professor Oman regards the Empire as the inevitable outcome of the Republic as it existed during its last century, but not at all an ideal solution of the problems which the decaying Republic had set. Cæsarism conferred countless practical benefits, especially in improving the hard lot of the provincials, but its gifts were purely material. To an age of lost ideals its founder could give no new moral impulse, for he had himself lived down, or had never possessed, any controlling enthusiasm save personal ambition. The Stoic philosophy was the only moral force in existence, and it influenced only the few choice spirits, not the mass. Even a vigorous national patriotism was impossible, despite the efforts to stimulate its growth. The conclusion of it all is that, but for the attacks from without and the new influence of Christian ideals within—both forces for which Cæsarism did not provide—the Empire must gradually have sunk into some such stagnant civilization as that of the Chinese.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, E. H. Religious Life in America: A Record of Personal Observation. The Outlook Co. $1.

Anti-Slavery Papers of James Russell Lowell. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Blashfield, E. H., and Blashfield, E. W. Italian Cities. 2 volumes. New edition. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Cervantes, Miguel. The Adventures of Don Quixote of La Mancha. London: J. M. Dent & Co.: New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.

Cesaresco, Evelyn M. Lombard Studies. Scribners. $3.50.

Collie, J. N. Climbing on the Himalaya and Other Mountain Ranges. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: Scribners. $5.

Creighton, Mandell. Historical Essays and Reviews. (Edited by Louise Creighton.) Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

Davidson, A. B. The Called of God. (Edited by J. A. Paterson.) Edinburgh: T. & T. Clark; New York: Scribners. $2.

Day, L. F. Windows: A Book about Stained and Painted Glass. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $10.50.

Dobson, Austin. William Hogarth. With an Introduction on Hogarth's Workmanship by Sir Walter Armstrong. London: William Heinemann; New York: McClure, Phillips & Co.

Earle, Alice M. Sundials and Roses of Yesterday. Macmillan. $2.50.

Janvier, T. A. The Christmas Kalends of Provence, and Some Other Provence Festivals. Harper & Bros.

Jiriczek, D. L. Northern Hero Legends. (Temple Primers.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40c.

Johnson, Rossiter. Morning Lights and Evening Shadows. The Marion Press.
Kropotkin, P. Mutual Aid a Factor of Evolution. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Le Gallienne, Richard. An Old Country House. Harpers. $2.40.
Letters of Daniel Webster. Edited by C. H. Van Tyne. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Letters of Dorothea, Princess Lieven, during her Residence in London, 1812-1834. Edited by L. G. Robinson. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
MacColl, D. S. Nineteenth Century Art. With a Chapter on Early Art Objects by Sir T. D. Gibson-Carmichael. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $16.
Marriott, Charles. Love with Honour. John Lane.
Morse, Frances C. Furniture of the Olden Time. Macmillan.
Pancoast, Henry S. Standard English Prose. Henry Holt & Co.
Paton, James. Scottish History and Life. Glasgow: James MacLehose; New York: The Macmillan Co. $14.
Phelps, Elizabeth Stuart. Avery. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Pitman, Benn. Life and Letters of Sir Isaac Pitman. Cincinnati: Phonographic Institute. $1.00.
Podmore, Frank. Modern Spiritualism: A History and a Criticism. 2 vols. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Scribners. $5.
Pollard, A. F. Henry VIII. London and Paris: Goupil & Co.; New York: Scribners. $25.00.
Prettyman, C. W. Der Dreissigjährige Krieg. Drittes Buch. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Remington, Frederic. John Ermine of the Yellowstone. The Macmillan Co.
Rennie, Elizabeth W. A Fiery Sword. The Abbey Press. $1.50.
Savage, Rev. Minot J. Men and Women. Boston: American Unitarian Association.
Schierbrand, Wolf von. Germany. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.40.
Schmidt, Alexander. Shakespeare-Lexicon: A Complete Dictionary of all the English Words, Phrases, and Constructions in the Works of the Poet. New ed. 2 vols. Berlin: George Reimer; New York: G. E. Stechert; also, Lemcke & Buechner. $8.
Scott, Sir Walter. Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border. Edited by T. F. Henderson. 4 vols. London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribners.
Sing a Song of Sixpence: Another Lost Legend. With 8 illustrations by Edward Lear. Boston: George H. Ellis & Co.
Singleton, Esther. Social New York under the Georges, 1714-1776. D. Appleton & Co.
Stone, W., and Cram, W. E. American Animals: A Popular Guide to the Mammals of North America North of Mexico, with Intimate Biographies of the More Familiar Species. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.00.
Thiselton-Dyer, T. F. Royalty in All Ages. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Scribners. $3.
Thoreau, Henry D. Life Without Principle. New edition. Crockham Hill, Kent: The Sign of the Hop-Pole.
Thwaites, Reuben G. Daniel Boone. D. Appleton & Co.
Triggs, H. I. Formal Gardens in England and Scotland, Part III. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners.
Vacarescu, Hélène. The Bard of the Dimbovitza: Rumanian Folk-Songs, Collected from the Peasants. (Translated by Carmen Sylva and Alma Strettel.) Scribners. $1.50.
Van Pelt, John V. A Discussion of Composition as Applied to Art. The Macmillan Co.
Van Tyne, Claude Halstead. The Loyalists in the American Revolution. The Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Waterman, Nixon. In Merry Mood. Boston: Forbes & Co.
Waters, Robert. Career and Conversation of John Swinton. Charles H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Webster, H. K. Roger Drake, Captain of Industry. Macmillan. $1.50.
Wells, A. R. Rollicking Rhymes for Youngsters. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Wells, Carolyn. A Nonsense Anthology. Scribners.
Wetmore, Claude H. Incaland. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co.
What is Worth While Series. If I were a College Student, by President C. F. Thwing.—In Perfect Peace, by J. R. Miller.—Ways of Well Doing, by H. J. Desmond.—Daily Maxims from Amiel's Journal, by Orline Gates.—The Cardinal Virtues, by President W. DeW. Hyde. "Light, ho, Sir!" by F. T. Bullen. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 28 cents each.
Willett, Herbert Lockwood. The Ruling Quality. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Williams, Jesse Lynch. New York Sketches. Charles Scribner's Sons.


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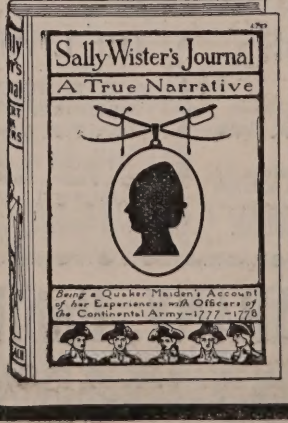
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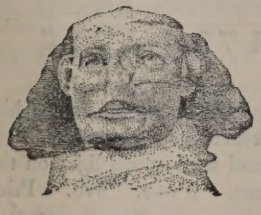

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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER* 11, 1902.

## The Week.

Senator Lodge has introduced a bill to establish the gold standard in the Philippines. By refusing at the last session to concur in the House bill on this subject, he and his colleagues in the Senate have made themselves morally responsible for the loss of a very large sum (estimated at upwards of $1,000,000) by the Philippine Government, not to mention the losses incurred by private individuals through the decline in silver. Mr. Lodge and his colleagues are quoted as saying that the decline in silver was wholly unexpected by them. Of course, it was. Nobody supposes that they intended to deprive Gov. Taft of any part of the revenue of the islands. They thought they understood the subject on which they were legislating, but they failed to take account of the fact that silver has been on the down grade, with very slight interruption, ever since 1873. Or, perhaps, they thought that it could not possibly fall below the price it bore last July, when they were passing the Philippine Government bill. They left out of their reckoning the possible action of countries still on the silver standard—the Straits Settlements, Siam, China, and Mexico. But it is the unexpected which happens. In 1893 silver declined fifteen cents per ounce within three days after the announcement that India had demonetized it. What took place then might occur at any time when any country of equal importance should take similar action. The only country of equal magnitude still on the silver basis is China, and her attitude is uncertain. That of Mexico is uncertain also, for it is hardly credible that she should continue to do business on the principles of the blind pool as outlined in the decree of President Diaz of November 25. The reasons why she has not sooner abandoned the silver standard are that she is again the largest silver-producing country in the world, as she was in the time of the Spanish occupation, and also that the adoption of the single gold standard would involve an advance of the wages of the wretched peons.

---

Senator Cullom, by calling up the French reciprocity treaty on Monday, made a striking demonstration of the difference between reciprocity *in posse (i. e.*, in the President's message) and reciprocity *in esse (i. e.*, in the Senate). Everybody is willing to assent to the principle in the abstract, or "when conditions shall permit," or "whenever it may seem expedient"; but the moment you suggest an actual, a negotiated reciprocity treaty you have Depew protesting for the glovers, Hoar vociferous for the pinchbeck-jewelry industry, Lodge and Aldrich variously darkening counsel and making the worse the better reason. The scene was instructive. It showed that the Republicans of the Senate are unwilling even to discuss any matter that involves tariff reduction, and it proves to the many Republicans who have voted for serious reconsideration of the tariff schedules that they have been swindled out of their votes. It buries one spadeful deeper that hoary fraud, "the tariff revised by its friends." Senator Cullom says he will call up the French treaty next week. We sincerely hope he will do so. Every time the ultra-protectionists rise to that lure they will look more selfish as men and more ridiculous as statesmen.

---

Congressman Littlefield's so-called anti-Trust bill is free from Constitutional objections, and it offers the chance of taking one step towards the control of corporations engaged in interstate commerce which are large enough to be dangerous. All economists of note who have dealt with the Trust question in public discussion are agreed that the first step to be taken is to secure publicity of the affairs of Trusts, and that the proper method of controlling them is by the taxing power. In order to obtain data for the exercise of the latter power the former is a needed preliminary. Mr. Littlefield's bill provides that every corporation doing an interstate business and having more than $500,000 capital shall file with the Interstate Commerce Commission each year a statement of its capital stock and debt, with all particulars, the value of the property represented by the same, and the market value, together with the earnings, expenses, interest, dividends, taxes, permanent improvements, salaries, and wages paid. The Interstate Commerce Commission is to have power also to examine the officers of the corporation under oath touching these matters. In short, the same powers are to be exercised in obtaining facts as are now exercised in obtaining the facts from railroads engaged in interstate commerce, and by most of the States in dealing with local railroads. A tax of 1 per cent. per annum is to be imposed on so much of the capital stock of such corporations as consists of water. There is no reason why this bill should be called an anti-Trust bill, except that the Trust promoters are very much opposed to it, as the railroad men were to the Interstate Commerce bill when that was first proposed. Mr. Littlefield's bill has been reported favorably by the sub-committee of the House Judiciary Committee, and will no doubt be agreed to by the whole committee. It will then become the leading measure of the present session.

---

We trust that Governor-elect Pennypacker of Pennsylvania will hasten to explain away the latest painful aspersions on Senator Quay. It is a task for which Mr. Pennypacker alone, we think, is fitted, for he was the one who first discovered in Quay a greater statesmanship than that of Webster or Clay. Quay favors the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as States. He so yearns to number these Territories among the Federal sisterhood that it appears he wrote a letter advising that Democratic victories be arranged in each. This was in order to attract Democratic votes to the Statehood project. Quay's Republican associates opposed the admission of these Territories, but Quay stood firm as a rock. It caused comment, but what cared he? Now he is to join with the Democrats in a minority report, for the committee has reported a bill granting Statehood to Oklahoma alone. Somebody at Washington has suggested that Quay had some other motive than that founded upon his exalted statesmanship. Testimony before a Senate committee has even been raked up, indicating that the value of a mine in Arizona owned by a brother of Senator Penrose of Pennsylvania would be largely increased by the enactment of the omnibus Statehood bill, with the unkindly inference that perhaps other great men in Pennsylvania have a finger in the pie. These are the cruel rumors which we trust Mr. Pennypacker, Quay's official defender, will hasten to explain away.

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Secretary Hitchcock's warning against the palpable land frauds in the West, together with the discoveries made in the investigations of the Federal grand jury now in session at Omaha, serves to attract attention to a disgraceful state of wholesale swindling in the disposition of the public domain. The actual settler, the man who would turn the sod and plant the seed, has been forced out of the open range by the covetous owners of cattle and sheep. The frauds by which they have sought control have been glaring and unconcealed. At first they attempted to scare the settlers by means of hostile demonstrations. His crops were destroyed, his stock driven off, and he was threatened with personal violence. But where one settler was forced out of the contest another took his place. There was always a settler looking over the barbed-wire fence, and eager for the cattleman's domain. It has been a common thing for the stockman of the

West to fence up thousands of acres that ddi not belong to him.

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An end to this sort of robbery was inevitable. The cattlemen and their rivals, the sheepmen, sought to obtain a quasi-title to their land by a species of entry in which they were assisted by the cowboys in their employ. Every herder has entered his name as a homesteader, and he has an assurance that his claim of "residence" will be sworn to by some other cowboy, who will expect the same service in return. This is trifling compared with the swindling of the Government that has gone on under the "widow's claim" provisions. A widow of a soldier of the civil war may take up a claim without actual residence, obtaining a deed from the Government at the expiration of five years. On this basis rest many of the most patent frauds. Agents have secured the signatures of widows all over the Middle West who, in good faith, have made formal entry, and have agreed to prove up their claims five years hence. They have received or are to receive about $150 for their service. The cattle companies and the syndicates operating for them are to be the beneficiaries; and in the end will obtain, unless the deals are frustrated, vast areas at a merely nominal sum. It is estimated that during the past year in Nebraska alone, where the movement has been discovered as being most noticeable, the fraudulent entries have amounted to 1,000,000 acres. Congress should act, and make it impossible for a single acre of the public domain to go to individual owners except through the actual residence of a homesteader on 160 acres for five years, and his improvement of the land.

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It is something of a shock to learn that "the President's friends" at Washington are a little worried about the delegates to the Republican National Convention to be held in 1904. We had supposed that the President and his friends felt as serene and comfortable about these delegates as if they were all elected and pledged and safely corralled in the Presidential headquarters, munching sandwiches, and figuring out the patronage to be distributed in the beautiful spring days of 1905. But we know now that the contrary is true, for our information is as nearly official as information about delegates ever is. Mr. L. T. Michener, formerly of Indiana, and still a political power in that State though now a resident of Washington, has let the cat out of the bag. A few days ago he wrote about thirty letters to knowing persons in Indiana asking their views. "It is believed," he said, "that Senator Hanna will try to get the Presidential nomination in 1904. Some of the President's friends are a little uneasy about it. Do you think Hanna could take Indiana away from Roosevelt—or Fairbanks?" And the worst of it is, the replies thus far received do not especially tend to quiet that little uneasiness of the President's friends. If Fairbanks is a candidate, he can have the delegates, the replies declare with striking unanimity. If not, Roosevelt and Hanna will have to fight it out. But there is a crumb of comfort—Hanna says he does not "want the job"; so perhaps it makes no difference about the Indiana delegates.

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The announcement that Major Edwin F. Glenn, Fifth Infantry, of water-cure fame, is to be tried once more, proves in a gratifying way that the War Department has again been stung into action by those advocates of humanity who have been termed calumniators of the army. It is all the more apropos in view of President Roosevelt's inclusion in his message of his stump-speech defence of the army. Major Glenn's first trial for administering the water cure resulted in his conviction, and punishment by the ridiculous fine of $50. His second trial, it is reported, is the result of his having casually chronicled the fact that he had had several natives killed for misleading an American column. Apparently the circumstances of this killing were too much even for Secretary Root to stomach. Hence, Gen. Davis is to formulate charges and try the gallant Major. As we pointed out at the time of his first trial, Major Glenn's case is a particularly flagrant one, because he went to the Philippines in 1900, after the hard fighting was over. His offences could not, therefore, be charged to nervous exhaustion, due to campaigning with an insidious foe, or explained in any other way than as committed in cold blood. Two of the officers, by the way, who were accused at the same time with Major Glenn, Lieut. Conger and Surgeon Cook, have never been tried, despite the promise of the President that every incriminated officer should be put on trial.

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The Baltimore *News* has been testing some of the valuable information sent to the press from the Bureau of Statistics at Washington. The particular line of investigation followed by the *News* relates to our trade with China, the remarkable growth of which is set forth in the statistics. Thus, it is shown that the imports into China from the United States, as computed by Chinese authorities themselves, have grown from 5,093,182 taels in 1895 to 23,529,606 taels in 1901, an increase of 350 per cent. in six years. According to the same authority, the increase of imports from Great Britain during the same time was only 25 per cent., and that of Russia only 60 per cent. This exhibit, showing the advantage of having a neighboring trading-station, was calculated to encourage everybody who had favored the taking of the Philippines for commercial rather than humanitarian purposes. But the editor of the *News* thought that it would be well to look a little farther into the subject, and, being of a suspicious nature, he inquired, first, why the year 1895 had been selected as a starter. The reason was, that the exports from the United States to China in that year were exceptionally small, being only $3,603,840. They were nearly twice as great in the following year, 1896, and three times as great in 1897, or $11,924,433. Of the great gain of 350 per cent. in trade with China since 1895, 230 per cent. had taken place before we had even dreamed of taking the Philippines. But by going back to the eighties other facts of considerable pertinence were discovered. In 1886 our exports to China were twice as great, and in 1891 two and a half times as great, as they were in 1895, the year selected as the datum line by the statistician at Washington. His suspicions being confirmed thus far, the editor took up the published statistics of our own Bureau, and there he found that in the four years from June 30, 1897, to June 30, 1901, our exports to China actually decreased from $12,000,000 to $10,500,000. This fact, if it has any bearing at all on the Philippines question, should teach us to rely more upon humanitarian than upon commercial results to justify us for what we have done, and to look to an approving conscience rather than to our pockets for our final reward.

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Gov. Odell's voluntary statement that the Legislature will not be allowed any direct interference in the matter of the Pennsylvania tunnel franchise is of great interest for more reasons than one. It places him in the unusual position of speaking for that body—a place hitherto occupied by that peerless statesman, Mr. Thomas Collier Platt. That gentleman, by the way, recently declared that the Legislature *should* interfere, and punish the recalcitrant Aldermen by taking their power away or by abolishing them altogether. Apparently, therefore, the Legislature has two dictators. We say, apparently, for as a matter of fact Benjamin B. Odell is the real boss, and not the feeble, broken-down politician from Owego. If this is so evidently the case, what is the necessity for reëlecting Platt to the Senate simply in order that he may keep up the pretence that he and he alone still owns the Legislature?

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The Schenectady militiaman who was expelled from the Painters' Union for serving with his company has secured an injunction from the Supreme Court at Albany, restraining the union from depriving him of his rights as a member. His suit carries also a collateral claim for wages during the time he has been

idle because of his expulsion, and for other damages. The suit, unfortunately, does not touch the main issue—whether a labor union may put itself in an attitude deliberately hostile to the power of the State to protect itself. The complaint appears to assume that a union may make its own rules. It could, for example, refuse to admit all men under or over a certain height, or put a clause in its constitution forever barring left-handed men, or members of the Seventh-day Baptist Church. All the injunction in the case of Militiaman Potter assumes is that a labor union is bound to administer its own rules fairly, and not to change them without due notice, and then only by regular process. It is held that Potter was expelled contrary to the constitution and laws of the union. The broad question of the legal responsibility of labor unions is hardly opened by this suit. The next step would be to test the complaint of a non-member who has made a contract in view of union rules. An award of damages to Potter would advance the day when labor organizations will be held to the responsibility that binds all other bodies doing a collective business.

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The recent report on national finance presented to the Chamber of Commerce by Mr. J. Harsen Rhoades embraced three subjects of the highest importance. The first deals with the maintenance of parity of all kinds of money, and recommends that the Secretary of the Treasury be empowered to make gold and silver dollars interchangeable at the Treasury. The present law requires the Secretary to maintain parity, but does not indicate any method or provide any means of doing so. The recommendation of the Chamber of Commerce (which ratified the report) is that the simplest of all methods for maintaining parity be adopted—by giving the holders of silver dollars the option of exchanging them for gold ones if they desire. They have this option now as regards the subsidiary coins. The halves, quarters, and nickels thus hold a preferred place over the "standard silver dollar," so called because it is not a standard—*lucus a non lucendo*. This is one of the oddities of our patchwork monetary system. Congressman Hill of Connecticut has been working hard to have the solecism corrected. His original bill for that purpose is now a part of the Fowler bill. It would, no doubt, pass by a good majority if it were placed before the House distinct from other measures. Connected with this are two minor suggestions, which need not to be particularly discussed now—one calling for more subsidiary coins, and the other opposing any further coinage of silver dollars from the bullion in the Treasury.

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Another feature of the report of prime importance is the recommendation that the Secretary be authorized to use his own discretion as to depositing the money of the general fund in banks, and that he be authorized to accept State and municipal bonds as security therefor. Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, one of the signers of the Committee's report, dissented briefly from this recommendation, not because he thought that the Government's money would be unsafe in such cases, but because the public deposits might be used to serve political ends. But this objection lies against the law as it now stands. The accusation of depositing money in favorite banks, and for party purposes, has been repeatedly brought against the head of the Treasury in times past. Secretaries Sherman, Folger, Fairchild, Windom, and Gage were thus accused by political opponents, and without any foundation for the charges. Our system being what it is, this evil, if it be an evil, will continue, whether the special security required for the deposits be one thing or another, and whether interest be paid by the banks or not. A change in the existing Sub-Treasury law seems to be impending, and it cannot come too soon.

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Just as Vermont is leaving the prohibition ranks and New Hampshire seems likely to do the same, the great Canadian province of Ontario has passed what may be called a resolution in favor of the suppression of the saloon. The effect of Thursday's vote is moral only, for the referendum was held under conditions which made impossible a technical victory for the Prohibitionists. It was required that they should poll 212,700 votes for the measure—a majority of the votes actually cast in the general election of 1898. When it is remembered that the vote on any abstract measure is always far less than the vote for a man, it will be seen that for the Prohibitionists to vote at all was in the nature of a forlorn hope. Provided those opposed to prohibition, plus the stay-at-homes, were a majority of the vote of 1898, they might view with equanimity the largest plurality for prohibition. It is estimated that the Prohibitionists had a majority of 50,000 of the votes cast last week, but the polling was comparatively light, and the Prohibitionist vote fell short of the arbitrary figure set for it. Out of fifteen cities nine, including Toronto, voted for prohibition, so that it must be admitted that the anti-saloon people made a gallant fight. One cannot help seeing a certain Machiavellian cunning in Minister Ross's handling of the whole matter. He has ingeniously contrived that his province shall have the moral satisfaction of voting against the saloon, without the practical inconvenience of being deprived of it.

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The passage of the Education bill in nearly its original form is a personal triumph for Mr. Balfour. The measure will be little modified in the Lords, and England will for the first time have a uniform system of primary education, and an organization which is empowered to deal with the pressing matter of public secondary education. The system, considered as a system, seems workable, and even the Liberals will feel that it is better than the former condition. That the Balfour scheme can last long in its present form we much doubt. There is a fundamental unfairness in the bargain by which the voluntary (chiefly Church of England) schools offer their buildings as an equivalent for support from the taxpayers, meanwhile retaining control of the schools. These buildings, though nominally private, are in large part already public property. The voluntary subscriptions by which they were built were in large part credited against the tax levy, and the Government, where it needed the school buildings, would be quite justified in expropriating them at a low valuation. As it is, the thousands of Church schools become public because the public pays for their maintenance, but remain private because the old managers retain a majority of the local committees, and the bill provides for respecting the sectarian "atmosphere" of each school. We doubt if the English people will long abide by so bad a bargain, and we confidently expect to see the people put in full control of the denominational schools. Meanwhile a rather bad educational measure stands as a monument to Mr. Balfour's parliamentary tact.

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In rebuking German workingmen for voting as Social Democrats, Emperor William necessarily assumes to know better than they do where their true political interest lies. That, of course, does not embarrass him. He frankly takes all knowledge for his province. Yet even his easy air of infallible wisdom does not go well with the fact that the party which he denounces for its complete folly has a larger voting strength than any other political group in Germany. The steady rise of the Social Democratic vote, in the successive elections to the Reichstag, has been the most significant phenomenon in modern German politics. There can be little doubt that the party will show itself still stronger numerically at the election next June, despite the Emperor's protests. Indeed, the present drift of legislation in Germany, with the surrender of the Government to the Agrarians, is finely calculated to make Socialist votes. Nor should it be forgotten that German Socialism, politically considered, is by no means the wholly evil thing the Kaiser would have us believe it. Thousands of Germans are in the Social Democratic ranks simply because they think they can there more effectively register their dissent from sheer absolutism in government.

### *SPEAKER REED.*

It has long been and long will be impossible to refer to the late Mr. Reed without calling him the Speaker. As Seward was always Governor to Lincoln, so the masterful Speaker of 1889-'91 forever linked his name to the office. The fierce controversies which raged about his innovations on old practice have now abated, and we can calmly weigh his action with something of the serene impartiality of history. Looking back upon his break with the ancient law and tradition of the House, we do not see to-day, any more than we could see at the time, how it can be denied that his audacity was revolutionary. The particular vice of his attitude was that, in order to obtain authority regularly, he assumed it irregularly; in order to enable his party to make a new rule, he himself made it off-hand. In other words, he counted a quorum in order to make it lawful to count a quorum. That was essentially a revolution in parliamentary practice, and its subsequent legalization by Congress does not alter the character of Speaker Reed's original act.

Nor does the later record of Congress, under the "Reed rules," satisfactorily bear out the exaggerated claims made in his behalf. He himself, in characteristic but dangerously sarcastic phrase, thanked God that the House of Representatives had "ceased to be a deliberative assembly." What he meant was, that a weapon had been forged to force Congress to vastly greater expedition in a vastly greater amount of business. But an inspection of the *Congressional Record* will put a quietus on the pretension. As a matter of fact, the House sees as many bills sink into the grave as before, wastes as much time, and has as meagre a product to show for the labors of a session. We have always to bear in mind the simple truth that Congress is one of those bodies of which it can be said that, the more you change it, the more it remains the same thing. It is not in the rules of the House, but in its inherent nature, that the obstacles to rapid and inconsiderate legislation lie.

"You think," said Congressman Cannon once, in a burst of angry candor, "that because I am Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, it is my business to make appropriations. But my duty really is to prevent them from being made." Somewhat the same may be said of the House as a whole. Perhaps its most important function is to put a hook in the nose of impetuous legislators. If every heady and hurrying Representative could drop a crude bill in the slot and draw out an enacted law, there would be an end of a stable social order. Congress has to deliberate in spite of itself. It has to compel individual or sectional interests to submit to the consensus of the whole country. That is a thing which could not be done by a Congressional machine turning out statutes as a press throws off printed sheets. Speaker Reed did not really create such a machine, despite the loud assertions of the time; and it is just as well that he did not. No doubt he facilitated the majority's having its way sharply and decisively when it knew what it really wanted; but in the matter of sheer "efficiency," judged by the amount of work done and the time consumed in doing it, he left the House very much where he found it.

It was, after all, the personal quality of the man, more than his actual public service, which gave him a place apart. He was that rare phenomenon among ambitious politicians in a democracy—a man with positive convictions and a tongue that spared neither friend nor foe. He seemed, in his reckless use of biting speech, to have taken to heart the advice which Talleyrand gave to Thiers: "You wish to rise; make enemies." It was partly, no doubt, the temptation of his own incisive wit. He could puncture absurdity and inflated humbug as quickly as he perceived them, and he never found it in his heart to refrain. Almost at the very beginning of his Congressional career, he mortally offended some of his constituents, who had applied to him to secure them some condemned cannon, by endorsing on their letter of application, "I am not in the old junk business." He could not stay his hand, on such fit occasion. From that moment until the day when, scorning to "flatter crime where it sits throned in brief omnipotence," he levelled his sarcasms at a flaunting Imperialism, he was typically the American in public life who had a mind of his own and spoke it pungently.

The political success which Mr. Reed won is really the best proof of an unusual ability, beyond that of a mere master of flouts and gibes. A democracy does not readily warm to a public man who ridicules its follies. One whose words "crystallize into epigrams as they touch the air," must be able to convince men that he has weight as well as wit if he rises by the suffrages of a people who so like to be flattered, and whom it is so easy to flatter—as easy as lying. Seldom does a politician with a cynic turn, like Mr. Reed, go far; and he has a title to distinction in the fact that his supporters saw more in him than the sharp tongue which made them wince even while they voted for him. Almost equally remarkable is it for a public man to retire voluntarily, as he did, without moroseness or bitterness. He never concealed his opinion of President McKinley or of the methods by which the nomination of that gentleman was secured in 1896; yet it was not with the sourness of a disappointed man, but with the proud sense of an intellect and character superior to base time-serving, that he spoke of the men who had risen to power through sedulously consulting the tastes of the "strong beast" under which Plato figured the populace, and declaring that whatever it wanted was the deepest wisdom and the highest morality. Some one asked Mr. Reed not long ago if he had not greatly missed the fascinations of public life. He replied frankly that he had feared he should do so, and did not know but he might yet come to do so, but that thus far "the Lord had been good" to him, and had preserved him from that misfortune. Such a cheerful temper, in retirement from great power, is as infrequent as it is admirable.

There was undoubtedly in the man a strain of shrewd and sturdy Americanism, of the old-fashioned sort. This it was which made it impossible to trick him with the glamour of our latter-day Imperialism. He was too solidly based to be swept away by the rush of new-fangled doctrines which came with the Spanish war. He laughed at them; he parodied them; he poured out his irony upon them; he turned them to ridicule, and transfixed their champions with the darts of his sarcasm; but deep down in his heart he was filled with a sincere and patriotic grief that his countrymen should seem for a time to be running after those tawdry glories. A sinewy Yankee, smacking of the soil, he took his place beside that other racy product of our native earth, Mark Twain, in employing the arsenal of his wit against the false and fleeting impulses of the hour which would introduce the new Empire into old Americanism. It is his unyielding opposition to that folly, and the calm confidence with which he looked to see it fall in ruin, that made his later years the most truly serviceable of all his life, and that deepen the regret we feel that such a man—so ill spared—should have been taken away before filling the measure of his days.

### *THE TREASURY REPORT.*

The first leading feature of the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury is the one relating to income and expenditure. The receipts for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1902, were $684,326,280, and the expenditures $593,038,904, leaving a surplus of $91,287,376. The receipts from internal revenue for the year were $271,880,000. The repeal of war taxes did not take effect until the end of the fiscal year. For the next fiscal year the estimates from internal revenue are $222,000,000, and the estimated surplus from all sources is $48,000,000. This depends, however, upon the continuance of good times. If there should be a commercial reaction, the balance might be on the other side of the ledger. The expenditures do not include anything for the sinking fund. Under existing laws it is presumed that all, or most, of the surplus will be applied to

the purchase and cancellation of United States bonds. Purchases for the last fiscal year reached the large sum of $70,410,000, with which $56,071,000 of bonds at par value were bought, the remainder being paid for premiums.

This large slice taken out of the public debt lessens the aggregate security available for the national banknote system, and brings us nearer to the time when other means must be found for keeping any kind of paper currency going other than Government issues. Secretary Shaw anticipates the approaching dilemma by suggestions concerning the issue of banknotes based upon the general assets of the banks. This is much the most important part of the report and has evidently been the subject of Cabinet consideration, since it is directly in line with the President's message. The latter referred to "the recurrence of financial stringencies which injuriously affect legitimate business," and dwelt upon the need of an element of elasticity in our monetary system. The Secretary holds the same views and goes more into detail. He thinks that the time has already arrived when it will be necessary to adopt one of two policies. "Either the Government debt must be perpetuated as a basis for national-bank circulation, and additional bonds issued as occasion may require, or some other system must be provided."

Some discretion is given to the Secretary to extend a portion of the existing debt by converting short-time bonds into others running thirty years at 2 per cent., and thus putting off the day when the Government must adopt some other system; but he has no discretion to put out additional bonds. Therefore, the currency must remain inelastic, even if it does not shrink by reason of the rising market price of the bonds, which makes it more profitable for the banks to sell these securities than to hold them for the small profit that can be derived from note issues. Not only is no substantial relief to be obtained by extending the short-time bonds, but such extension disables the Government from using its surplus to pay off at par the bonds maturing within a brief period. In short, there is no use in further delaying the consideration of means for issuing a circulation based upon the general credits of the banks.

The Secretary thinks that a very small tax upon circulation to provide a common redemption fund for the notes of failed banks would suffice, and he does not favor the policy of making notes a first lien on the assets. Probably a little further reflection will lead him to change his mind in this particular, seeing that our present system not only gives the note-holders a first lien on assets, but gives also the Government's guarantee that this first lien shall be sufficient for the purpose of redemption of the notes on demand. Both the Scotch and the Canadian systems give note-holders the first lien, and it is a fact to be remembered also that our own banking systems before the civil war were all tending toward the same conclusion.

An analysis of bank failures under the national system shows that a tax of one-eighth of 1 per cent. would have covered all loss to noteholders, even if there had been no bond security for note issues. This tax, the Secretary thinks, should be considered a "premium of insurance" and the Government the "underwriter." This is a very weighty suggestion, since it implies that the Government is to guarantee the goodness of the notes, as it can well afford to do, since it has the power to impose the tax or fix the premium of insurance. All opposition to assets currency ought to cease when the Government guarantees its goodness.

There is no recommendation for branch banks. One thing at a time is a good rule. The principal mistake of the Fowler bill lies in the attempt to do too many things at once, thus combining in the common opposition everybody who objects to any single feature of it. The Secretary has no doubt taken a lesson from the failure of that measure to command the assent of the Republican caucus at the last session. By putting himself in line with the best thought of the day in the matter of banking reform, the Secretary has rendered a good service to the country, and one which may not improbably bear fruit in practical legislation during his term of office.

The Secretary makes another excellent recommendation—that he be allowed to deposit the Treasury surplus in banks without specific security, and that the Government receive interest therefor, such deposits to be made after special examination of the banks so chosen. He would abolish the useless distinction which the law makes between receipts from customs and other receipts, so that the deposits may be made direct from the Treasury instead of from the internal-revenue offices. When we consider the trouble that has beset successive Secretaries in their attempts to avoid a disastrous accumulation of idle funds in the Treasury, and the public agitation thereon, we can only wonder that Congress has permitted the present senseless and antiquated system to continue so long. A bill of ten lines on the plan suggested by the Secretary would cure this evil completely, and with entire safety to the Government, besides realizing a considerable income from interest on deposits. It would also give the Secretary more discretion than he now enjoys as to the payment of premium on bonds purchased. He would not be forced to buy bonds to reduce the surplus. He would be free to take them or not, according to the price asked.

### *VENEZUELA THEN AND NOW.*

The astonishment of a traveller from Venezuela who had been in this country in 1895, and should return here to-day, would surely rival that of any assumed visitant from Mars. His melancholy might equal even that of Macaulay's naked New Zealander sitting on the ruins of London Bridge. For what an amazing transformation would not our Venezuelan have to note! Seven years ago he and his fellow-countrymen and his native land were as the apple of our eye. On their behalf we were ready to go to war with the greatest naval power on earth. To prevent our "sister republic" from having an inch of territory taken from her, we were as ready as Hotspur to shed our dear blood drop by drop. There was, in fact, a most effusive, not to say maudlin, swearing of eternal Pan-American friendship, and let the rest of the world come on if it dared!

But now, to Venezuelan eyes, we must seem to have suffered a sea-change. It is a question to-day, not of a dispute over a boundary line in the swamps and tangled forests of a semi-tropical country, but of very hard cash demanded at the cannon's mouth. Great Britain never proposed to delimit her claimed Venezuelan territory by force; but her war-ships are now insulting American waters by their presence, and, side by side with German cruisers, are preparing to move upon unhappy Venezuela just as if she were Abyssinia or Persia, with no big brother to protect her. "Where," the Venezuelan traveller might well ask, "is the noble ardor of 1895? Where is America for the Americans? Where the immortal Monroe?" Where, indeed! The Venezuelans are treated by the American press and public to-day as if they were nothing but a nuisance. "Good enough for the miserable Dagoes," is the common remark about the news that Germany and England are to seize Venezuelan ports and collect a long-overdue debt. To leave out no drop of bitterness from the cup pressed to the lips of the Venezuelan traveller, he would have to read solemn and very dull newspaper editorials, telling him that he never did understand the Monroe Doctrine anyway.

The thing which Americans ought to bend their minds to understand, however, is that the temper in which such affairs are handled makes all the difference in the world. We are convinced that it would have been just as easy to set the country aflame against Germany this year over Venezuelan wrongs as it was against England in 1895. The madness of that time was wholly without good reason. A distinguished American, long resident in England, then wrote from London to a friend in this country, "We can see that you are very angry, but we haven't the faintest idea what about." The only explanation was

that the Administration managed to give the impression that England was contemplating a great outrage, and the people were ready to fly to arms without stopping to ask what it was all about. A similar belligerent note from Washington to-day against Germany would undoubtedly lead to a similar result. It would be easy to make out a plausible case. "The scheming foreigners *say* that they only want to collect money justly due them, but how do we know that the debt is a just one? Is it not an example of the land going with the money? How do we know that, once in possession of the sacred soil of republican America, these monarchists will ever give it up? We must resist the very beginnings of aggression. The Monroe Doctrine is in peril, and we must awake, arise, or be for ever fallen!"

But President Roosevelt has met the situation with such calm good sense that the country is as quiet and indifferent as it would have been in 1895 had a similar course been followed then. The correct attitude was indicated unmistakably in the President's latest message. "No independent nation in America need have the slightest fear of aggression from the United States." So much for that side; then for the other—"It behooves each one to maintain order within its own borders, and to *discharge its just obligations to foreigners*." That tells the whole story. The language used is perhaps a little harsh; it will no doubt grate on some South American ears; it is in a tone which we should never think of using towards Italy, for example, or of tolerating for an instant if used by Italy towards us. But it states the true position accurately. No stretch of the Monroe Doctrine or of American big-brotherhood will enable the South Americans to assume the part of spoiled children. If they are naughty they will be whipped and sent off to bed. If they play fast and loose with their international obligations, they will have to take the consequences. No ægis of Monroeism will be held over them. We shall neither pay nor guarantee their debts nor prevent their creditors from forcing them to settle. They are always welcome to our good offices, but just at present our good offices consist in telling them bluntly to be decent and meet their obligations to foreigners. It is a great point gained. The firm and sound position taken by President Roosevelt in all this business contributes not only to the peace of the world, but to our public peace of mind. We shall not begin to see horrid visions and to talk of war every time a South American country takes to playing its tricks, and shall look upon the sailing of a foreign warship to enforce justice in South America as calmly as we should upon a deputy sheriff going out to make a levy.

## *OUR SULU TREATY.*

The announcement in the fall of 1899 that Gen. J. C. Bates had negotiated a treaty with the Sultan of Sulu which forever bound him to our service as a loyal vassal, at a cost of only $760 monthly in "salaries," was received with joy by the Imperialists and by the McKinley Administration. It was possible, its organs said, that we had made a mistake in not working through or buying up Aguinaldo, but that was then a dead issue. In this Sulu matter we had taken a leaf out of England's book and had improved upon it. It established, as every one could tell at a glance, a political order similar to that among the minor principalities in India and in the Malay states. It was bound to work well, for the *Tribune* described it as the "happiest omen" for the future good government of the Philippines, and regretted that similar arrangements could not be made with all the other "grand divisions" of the archipelago. With that wise foresight which ever distinguished him, Gen. Otis saw in this treaty a "happy adjustment of all apprehended pending difficulties." A serious observer in Manila even wrote that "the foundation which has been so admirably laid by Gen. Bates may well stand for years as the basis of the work of the others who may come after him."

Of course, there was a fly in the pot of ointment. The pesky Anti-Imperialists could not refrain from pointing out that this treaty was practically dictated by the Sultan of Sulu. Gen. Otis had no troops to spare from Luzon at that time, so the Sultan decided that our tribute to his majesty should be $760, and not $599.99, or $699.99, or any other bargain-counter figure. Then the Anti-Imperialists insisted that the "party of moral ideas," which had once freed a race at home, stultified itself by becoming a party to the slavery practised in the Sultanate. Assistant Secretary of State Hill at once came to the Administration's defence and "indignantly denied" these aspersions. We were no more responsible for the customs of the Moros, he explained, than we were for the scalping propensities of the Sioux. The fact that the Sultan acknowledged our sovereignty had nothing to do with the matter. The Constitutional provision forbidding slavery under the United States brought up a nice point in Constitutional law, "about which there will be wide difference of opinion." But, any way, he said, in dealing with such questions we must use "practical means," and, as Mr. Roosevelt had even then taught us, we must all bow low before the god Practicality. In any case, Mr. Hill said, "the spirit and genius of our American institutions" would not long permit slavery and polygamy to continue under our flag. But the *Tribune* scorned such a qualified defence. "To not one of the conditions is exception to be taken on any ground of equity or reason" was its whole-souled declaration.

Well, three years of the Empire have passed since then and the "foundations so admirably laid by Gen. Bates" have begun to tremble and shake. The Sultan is content, for when he failed to get his money the other day he telegraphed to Manila and "ordered it hurried along." The Philippine Commission "immediately held a meeting" (according to the *Sun's* dispatches), and appropriated the money out of the Philippine revenues. Naturally, the good Sultan is pleased at this prompt recognition of his powers. Not so Gen. Davis, the new commanding general in the Philippines, one of the "others" who have "come after" Bates and Otis. Gen. Davis demands "that the Bates agreement be abrogated and set aside; that no sultan or king over all the Moros of any region or over other dattos be recognized"; and—wicked as it may seem when viewed in the light of 1899—insists that "no pension or subsidy be allowed to any sultan or heir apparent, or to any other chief, and that government over the Moros be military." There, be it observed, speaks the true soldier. No diplomacy or filthy lucre for him. He knows his policy means war, for he calls upon Congress to act, because "the Moros surely will never willingly give up the rights they now enjoy."

But what of that? There has been comparatively little American blood spilled of late. "When these born pirates," Gen. Davis says, "feel the weight of our power, they will believe we are in earnest and respect us, but until then they will despise and hate us." So he would have our new policy of blood and iron "announced at once and enforced at every cost." But this bull in the china shop is not willing to stop there, for he continues to demolish the arguments of 1899 in the following plain and satisfactory way:

> "If we pursued the English or Netherland plan, governing native races through native kings, sultans, rajahs, and dattos, then this sultan would fit into the scheme, but it seems to the writer quite out of the question for us to quote to the Moros the Declaration of Independence, and particularly the clause which asserts that all men were born free and equal, and at the same time concede to certain persons living under our flag the inherited legal right to tax, enslave, and even behead their fellowmen."

What in the world are Secretary Root and President Roosevelt about, to allow a general to "let daylight" into their policy in this way?

As for ourselves, we think Gen. Davis entitled to a vote of thanks from every lover of his country for his plain speaking. The hypocrisy and hollowness of our attitude towards the Moros are now as evident as is our wrongdoing in Samoa since King Oscar's rigid investigation. But Gen. Davis has rendered a greater public service than that. He

has laid bare the exact nature of our rule by force—by rifle and cannon—in the archipelago. "I see in all this," writes an army officer of rank now in Manila, referring to the general outlook in the islands, "the manifestation of the well-known inclination of humans to rule arbitrarily unless held in check by a determined public. Our very Presidents, our Secretaries of War, and our generals here and in Cuba have shown an ill-concealed desire to rule despotically, even when reared in a republic. And our army officers—well, you should hear some of their ideas as to how we should handle these people."

Gen. Davis has ventilated these ideas in advocating fire and slaughter among the Sulu Moros. Considering the news they are getting from Luzon of the cessation of agriculture, of the destruction of 90 per cent. of the field animals, of a debased currency, of pestilence, famine, and starvation—all as a result of our benevolent assimilation by force—no one can blame them if they should resist Gen. Davis to the last gasp, in case Congress approves of his un-Christian policy of conquest.

## *EDUCATIONAL DIVERSITY.*

At the last Oxford Convocation the traditional requirement of Greek at responsions (a qualifying examination which follows matriculation by only a few months) escaped repeal by a narrow majority. The Oxford discussion has found a wide echo in the press, and England is going over the pros and cons which with us, some twenty years ago, followed the publication of Mr. Charles Francis Adams's "A College Fetish." Curiously, the most valuable aid to an apparently lost cause has come from the ranks of the enemy. Sir Philip Magnus of the City and Guilds of London Institute (a technical and industrial institution) writes in the *Spectator* of November 22 a plea for the retention of Greek at Oxford, on the ground of maintaining a wholesome diversity in higher studies:

> "Education would lose in width and variety if all universities were to adopt the same conditions for the admission of students; and we may be certain that if Greek be no longer required as a necessary subject of examination in responsions at Oxford, the *language will gradually cease to be studied in nearly all schools*, and exact scholarship in this country will seriously suffer. It is because I desire to see our new universities *stamped each with its own individuality* that I should be sorry if the University of Oxford took any step that would dissociate it from its great traditions, and indirectly tend to introduce undesirable uniformity into the teaching of our secondary schools."

The educational drift to-day is unquestionably towards uniformity of institutions and diversity of studies within each institution. The elective and group systems which perhaps make for the individualizing of the student, as surely make for the reduction of institutions to a common category. It is no longer possible to say "alle we studie the same Latyne," but it is coming to be the case that all our students at about the same period make their choices from about the same list of subjects with numerical coefficients. The colleges, as far and as quickly as they may, are trying to turn out A. B.s "equally as good as" those of Harvard or Johns Hopkins. It is highly significant that no American university has asserted a distinct preeminence, or even a distinctive character, such as the traditional reputation of Oxford for classics, of Cambridge for mathematics. Why one goes, say, to Columbia rather than to Princeton, or to Harvard rather than to Yale, could hardly be expressed in terms of intelligent academic preference, and the small colleges retain their prestige on wholly valid but also completely unacademic grounds. Much of this uniformity is the inevitable result of simultaneous reforms in the colleges, much of it is wholesome and in the direction of thoroughness as against display. The remarkable thing is that institution after institution should be so willing to give up the tradition under which it has achieved a distinctive success, to assume that there is no dignity and scarcely safety except in following at a respectful interval the leading universities, finally to prefer frankly utilitarian ideals of education. We hear much talk of the peculiar advantages and special function of the small college, but where is this faith proved in works? Which are the small colleges that are not, as fast as their means permit, trying to become simply a large college in miniature? Few but the Roman Catholic colleges.

Now the value of the elective system may be regarded as settled, and the fact that Greek is only most desirable, not indispensable, in a liberal curriculum may also be considered as proved. What is not proved is that all the colleges should, therefore, renounce Greek, or put it in the category of elementary histology, contemporary fiction, and experimental psychology. The precept, "Hold fast that which is good," is by no means obsolete. The newest theories of education become fads unless the conservatives offer a sturdy opposition. Too ready and too universal assent seems likely to deprive higher education of any concurrent testing of various theories. Colleges, like men, are afraid of "getting left," and the result is that we have insufficient data to determine the value of any educational system. If only for the sake of experiment and the advance of educational science (if such a science there be), we need a few backward institutions—a few Oxfords to train our practical youth in impractical lore, and to show confidence in the generally disciplined as against the specifically trained spirit. This is why an officer of the newest kind of English technical school wishes Oxford to retain the traditional requirements that assure every graduate a certain acquaintance with the historians, poets, and dramatists of Hellas.

This discussion might have more than an abstract bearing. If a few of our American colleges would stand firm upon the traditional course in Greek, Latin, mathematics, and philosophy, teaching each student the elements of one natural science and of two at least of the modern languages; assuming that he who knew the Attic dramatists intimately would need no ambassador to Shakspere, Corneille, Molière, and Goethe, we believe that what might seem a wholly reactionary experiment would be fully justified by its practical results. Because it seems best for the average American student to browse at random through an elective schedule, it by no means follows that it is not good for *some* American students to follow an austerer way. And this is better done in a college where the *genius loci* is steadfastly favorable, than attempted amid the confusion of tongues of a modern university. The small colleges should look well to it before they sacrifice the strength of the traditional curriculum and engage in the hopeless competition with the "American-plan" menu now offered by the universities.

## ANDRÉ CHÉNIER.

PARIS, November 19, 1902.

M. Émile Faguet is a distinguished critic, whose feuilletons in the *Journal des Débats* are always read with much pleasure. The volumes he has published on French literature are very interesting, and it is almost a pity that he should take time every week for the analysis of plays which are almost always without merit. He has just added a volume to the series of "Les Grands Écrivains Français," and undertaken to inform us very thoroughly about the great poet André Chénier, one of the victims of the French Revolution.

André-Marie Chénier was born at Galata, a suburb of Constantinople, on October 30, 1762, in the house of his father, who was French Consul, Louis Chénier, agent of a commercial house at Marseilles. In Constantinople he was the "deputy" of his nation—that is to say, the representative of French commerce at the French Embassy. Louis Chénier married in 1755 Elisabeth Santi-Lomaca, belonging to a family which pretended to be allied to the hospodars of Wallachia and Moldavia. He was afterwards appointed Consul-General in Morocco. Madame Chénier remained in Paris for the education of her children. Her husband resigned in 1782, and returned to France. When the Revolution broke out the family was divided in sentiment. The ex-diplomat was very conservative; Madame Chénier, who was semi-literary and had associated with many writers and artists, was a "démagogue," to use her husband's expression, and imparted her principles to her son Marie-Joseph, whom she preferred to André, the future poet.

André had for his spiritual fathers Lebrun, the poet; David, the painter; and

Brunck, an archæologist. "The first objects set before his eyes," says M. Faguet, "were antique medals, engravings, and scenes from the Iliad." The first serious conversations which he heard were intermixed with verses, with tales of travel, citations from Winckelmann, from the Greek Anthology. In 1773 the boy was placed in the Collège de Navarre with his brother Marie-Joseph. He there excelled in his studies, and became acquainted with the brothers De Pange and the brothers Trudaine, whose names often appear in his writings. In 1782 he was attached, as gentleman-cadet, to the Angoumois regiment, which had Strasbourg for its garrison. His rank was intermediate between the officers and the non-commissioned officers. The life in the regiment did not suit him; his health was delicate. He returned to Paris after a short time, and gave himself entirely up to letters and to society. He was not handsome; we have a portrait of him, painted by Suvée in the prison of Saint-Lazare, on the 29th Messidor, An II.; it shows him with a very large head and forehead, out of proportion to his body; already bald, with flowing hair, wide eyes, a very sinuous mouth. The expression of the face is refined and agreeable. He read immensely and made comments on his readings; these notes will probably soon be published in their entirety. He made himself familiar with all the Greek and Latin authors. He was very eclectic, and did not neglect English and Italian literature. M. Faguet tells us that he became an enemy of the Christian doctrine. "As to this idea that Christian morality is not superior to that of the ancients, he is very explicit. Against the authenticity of the history of Jesus, against the resurrection of Christ, he has vigorous and passionate pages. He is an anti-Christian radical." But we must not infer from this that he was a friend or admirer of the philosophers of the eighteenth century. He had great contempt for Helvetius, a moderate admiration and no esteem for Voltaire (which showed a rare independence of mind at the time when Voltaire was the idol of society). The pages on Voltaire cited by M. Faguet are a very eloquent though sometimes very unjust satire.

The typical man of the eighteenth century, an infidel through ignorance, fashion, vanity, was not at all of Chénier's type. His portfolios, so long closed, and opened only lately, show him to have been a sort of moralist, like La Bruyère or Vauvenargues. He was observant, and traced good portraits in the manner of La Bruyère, without giving the names of his models. Before everything, he loved the Greek writers, and his poetical genius found its aliment in their writings. He was not a fervent admirer of our writers of the seventeenth century, but he knew them well, and he may be considered as the last of our classic poets. "He does not wish," says M. Faguet, "to be a Neo-antique; he means to be antique. He does not wish to be *racinisant*, nor *ronsardisant*." His genius was really original, and all independent minds are more or less isolated. His ambition was to give to France another Ronsard, better and more intimately aquainted with the ancients.

In 1782 he made a journey for his health to Switzerland and Italy, intending also to go to Greece; but he found himself too ill at Naples, and returned to France by short stages. He composed verses all the way, and compared himself on his return to Ulysses coming back to Ithaca. After this he was for several years to be inspired by the recollections of Italy and Sicily.

"This first manner of Chénier," says M. Faguet, "is exquisite, and has been universally regarded as the very characteristic of his genius, though we must take care not to confine it wholly within those two narrow limits. . . . The Ionian Sea and the light winds of Sicily sing in the verse of André Chénier as they do in those of Homer, Callimachus, and Theocritus." "He really sees like the ancients, not, as do most modern writers, with a mixture of abstract ideas interposed between the object and the writer; not, as do many others, through a light mist, very poetical also, but which makes the lines uncertain; but with the clearness, the precision of the lines of a bas-relief. For, as his master Winckelmann well said, if the modern genius is picturesque, the genius of the ancients is sculpturesque."

The model of this first manner of Chénier, its masterpiece, if I may say so, is in all French memories; there is not a schoolgirl, not a well-educated young man, who does not know by heart "La Jeune Tarentine," and does not sometimes recite it, I ought to say, sing it, as the verses are as melodious as the most melodious music.

"Elle a vécu, Myrto, la jeune Tarentine!
Un vaisseau la portait aux bords de Camarine."

This "Jeune Tarentine" will be forever found in French anthologies; it has an indescribable freshness, as well as pathos, that preserves all the purity, the nobility of the ancient pathos, which never was melodramatic, convulsive, and horrible.

Chénier became acquainted with the Countess Alfieri, who continued to be called the Countess of Albany, as she had long been known under that name before marrying the great Italian poet. His health had very much improved, and he led a worldly life, a life of gaiety, the kind of life which made Talleyrand say afterwards that those who had not lived in Paris from 1780 to 1789 did not know "la douceur de vivre." Chénier entered at that time, as a poet, upon what M. Faguet chooses to call his second manner. The "Élégies" differ from the antique poems; they are more Roman than Greek, and are sometimes Romantic. "They are complex at the same time and unique; they proceed from a lascivious ardor which reminds us of Catullus, to the deep and tender melancholy which reminds us of La Fontaine and announces Lamartine; they show us the eternal follies of the poet who laments, frets himself, despairs, who reconquers himself, abandons himself, or laughs at himself."

"Ah! que ceux qui, plaignant l'amoureuse souffrance,
N'ont connu qu'une oisive et morne indifférence,
En bonheur, en plaisir pensent m'avoir vaincu,
Ils n'ont fait qu'exister; l'amant seul a vécu."

These four verses are not a bad specimen of the spirit which is found in the "Élégies." The most characteristic and personal of these poems is an elegy which begins with the words: "Souvent le malheureux songe à quitter la vie," and which has become classic, like "La Jeune Tarentine."

Chénier was appointed Secretary of Embassy in 1787, attached to M. de la Luzerne. He left Paris with much regret, almost in despair; he consoled himself by studying English literature. He wrote a didactic poem, "L'Invention," which was a sort of preface to a philosophical poem, "Hermès," that much occupied his mind. We find him in Paris in 1790, and a member of the "Society of the Friends of the Constitution" with his friends Trudaine and De Pange. This society was formed by the most eminent men who were to make a mark in the Revolution. His first political work was an "Advice to the French People on its True Enemies," published in the *Journal of the Society of 1789*, on the 28th of August, 1790. It was a sort of manifesto of the Society, already alarmed by passing events. Speaking of the summary executions which were taking place in the streets of Paris, "Surely," says he ironically, "it cannot be denied that since all power emanates from the people, the power of hanging also belongs to it; but it is painful to think that it is the only one which the people's representatives don't wish to exercise themselves." Chénier's political programme will be found not only in this pamphlet, but also in the poem called "Le Jeu de Paume." Chénier published several other political poems—the "Hymn on the Triumphal Entry of the Revolted Swiss of the Châteauvieux Regiment" (April 15, 1793); an Ode to Charlotte Corday, in which he said:

"Ta douceur, ton langage et simple et magnanime,
Leur apprit qu'en effet, tout puissant qu'est le crime,
Qui renonce à la vie est plus puissant que lui."

He fiercely denounced the Jacobins, he protested against the excesses of the Revolution, he wrote four pamphlets in order to save the life of Louis XVI.

After the death of the King he ceased to write, and retired in despair to Versailles, and tried to console himself by writing fragments of his philosophical poem "Hermès," which was to remain unfinished. Chénier returned to Paris in the worst hour of the Terror. He thought himself safe in the house of his parents, but he was almost immediately arrested. He remained four months and thirteen days in the prison of Saint-Lazare, finding there some friends and making some acquaintances. Among these was one, Aimée de Coigny, whom he has made immortal by the beautiful and touching poem "La Jeune Captive." He wrote in prison some "Iambes," in which his indignation found vent against the monsters in power:

"Souffre, o corps gros de haine, affamé de justice!
Toi, Vertu, pleurs si je meurs."

He appeared before the Revolutionary tribunal on the 7th Thermidor, and was on the same day executed in the Place de la Révolution. Nothing is known of his last moments. Forty-five hours afterwards Robespierre was hurled from power; and the reaction of Thermidor against the Terror began.

# Notes.

The New Amsterdam Co. will republish immediately Harmon's 'Journal of Voyages and Travels in the Interior of North America,' from the Andover edition of 1820. It will form part of their "Commonwealth Library" of tales of explorers.

*Poet-Lore* this month undergoes a transformation into the *American Quarterly*, which is to "stand for the literary movement of the present time in all countries, and for the social ideals and tendencies now

shaping progress in thought and life." It will add to *Poet-Lore's* scope "a department distinctly sociological," for which George Willis Cooke allies himself with Charlotte Porter and Helen A. Clarke. The place of publication is 16 Ashburton Place, Boston.

We continue our list of new editions for the gift season with mention first of 'Sir Walter Scott's Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border,' edited by T. F. Henderson, and published in four volumes by Blackwoods in London and Scribners in New York. Mr. Henderson's competence for the task of improving the latest revised issue of this monumental work (some seventy years since) will be felt by any one who reads his preface, in which he mingles praise of Professor Child and his great ballad collection with some criticism when discussing, as with Andrew Lang also, the origin of the ballad. So voluminous a work could not dispense with small type, but the impression is clear, on excellent paper, with broad margins. The binding is cheerful, and nothing is wanting to make these volumes a possession to be highly prized.

One must go almost as far back as to Mr. Henderson's predecessor for the first edition (1847) of Miss Pardoe's 'Louis the Fourteenth and the Court of France in the Seventeenth Century.' It comes to us now, as readable as ever, in three volumes, from James Pott & Co. The get-up is sufficiently attractive in all particulars. The endurance of this work is a tribute to the author's command of a style popular in the best sense and worthy of emulation.

The fresh appearance of the 'Ingoldsby Legends' (John Lane)—for the first we must revert to 1840—has for occasion the illustrations of Mr. Herbert Cole, whose face, we take it, in cap and bells, looks out at us from the headpiece to the list of his designs. They are spirited pen-and-ink sketches of considerable range and not infrequent decorative quality, and cooperate valiantly with the bright covers to make the volume attractive to all who plunge again or newly into the time-honored humor of the Legends.

The Dent-Macmillan reproduction of Thackeray's Prose Works, under Walter Jerrold's supervision, proceeds with 'The Virginians,' which require three of the modest olive-green volumes. Mr. Brock's illustrations, some in sanguine, are effective, and there is a photoprint after Marochetti's bust of the author in Westminster Abbey.

Companionable to the feel and not dissimilar in outward appearance, with flexible green leather covers, are Carlyle's 'Sartor Resartus: Heroes: Past and Present' (Scribners), and Tennyson's Poetical Works (Thomas Nelson & Sons), each again with its portrait, but Carlyle's early, after Lawrence's portrait, and the photograph of Tennyson in his latter days. The Carlyle is more condensed in the letter-press, and if the paper is thin in both cases it does not affect the legibility, and does make for the comfort of the hand in holding.

'The Social Comedy' (*Life* Publishing Company) is one more collection from that paper's inexhaustible store of social pictorial satire. Cynical much of it is; little of it that is not bright; occasionally a dash of coarseness. The average drawing is high, and as the majority of the designs are in wash, a more harmonious if a thinner quarto would have resulted from excluding most if not all of the pen sketches.

Volumes xix. and xx. of Prof. de Sumichrast's translation of Théophile Gautier (George D. Sproul), concluding 'Le Capitaine Fracasse,' and adding 'Tableaux de Siège,' show the same care as their predecessors in the collection. In the case of the latter we would recommend to our readers the introduction explaining the circumstances that called forth its striking pictures. Both volumes are, as before, pleasingly illustrated. The almost simultaneous publication of a new translation of Gautier's 'Voyage en Italie,' by Mr. D. B. Vermilye (Brentano's), affords the opportunity for an interesting comparison with one of Prof. de Sumichrast's earlier volumes. On the ground of literalness there is little to choose between these two versions; differences or omissions in either case may possibly be accounted for by referring to divergences in original editions; but Prof. de Sumichrast certainly shows, in a number of important passages, a much more idiomatic precision in regard to equivalences of diction and construction. His translation moves with easier and lighter speed.

Mr. Henry H. Bonnell's cumbrously titled 'Charlotte Brontë, George Eliot, Jane Austen: Studies in their Works' (Longmans) is a pedestrian but not uninforming work. There is nothing notably new between its covers; the style is uneven, and at best lacks distinction; the original criticism is disjointed, and quite devoid of the vital, discriminative insight which is the chief source of pleasure and profit in critical writing. Yet Mr. Bonnell has read widely and with enthusiastic sympathy. He has contrived to weave a web of quotations from the three woman novelists and their critics, held in form by a binding of personal comment, which is likely to prove instructive to readers who are beginning to take their fiction seriously. The author is disposed to think that the order of names on his title-page represents a descending order of merit. He makes the astonishing remark that his consideration of Jane Austen is "offered as a dessert after the more solid courses which have preceded."

'How to Attract the Birds,' by Neltje Blanchan (Doubleday, Page & Co.), contains much information about our common Eastern birds, and gives an interesting presentation of certain conclusions of investigators who are seeking the philosophy of some of the ordinary phenomena of bird life. It is in the main an excellent compilation and will be valuable to the general student, for it has freshness of treatment, yet is free from the burdensome details of first-hand knowledge. It would be pleasanter reading, however, if the author had coördinated her matter a little more carefully, leaving out the sub-headings that confront one at the beginning of paragraph groups. The first chapter tells how to invite birds to live near our homes by offering nesting sites, water, and attractive food-plants. Other chapters treat of nest-building, rearing the young, migration, the philosophy of coloration, and the value of the birds' work as destroyers of harmful plants and insects. There is also a good account of some naturalized foreign birds. The author has made careful use of the literature of her subject, especially of Mr. Thayer's articles on coloration, Mr. Olds's on bird songs, and the publications from the Department of Agriculture on economic ornithology. If Professor Cook's forthcoming work on migration had been available, the chapter on that subject might have been enriched.

One may not learn anatomy from text-books alone, but the printed and illustrated page retains for study what the scalpel reveals. The latest and perhaps the best of these aids is a 'Text-Book of Anatomy,' edited by D. J. Cunningham, F.R.S., and of many academic degrees (Macmillan). It is very copiously illustrated from original drawings, many colored, 824 in all. A large number of these represent soft tissues hardened by the formalin process, and are more accurate than those in the older style. The text rests on the doctrine that "a more or less close or remote blood-relationship links together all the members of the animal kingdom," and represents the very latest teaching in embryology and ontogeny, which lightens the dry details of anatomy proper.

The ninth volume of Cohen's 'System of Physiologic Therapeutics' (Philadelphia: Blakiston) is devoted to the therapeutic influences of heat, natural and artificial light, and water—or, more properly, waters—administered within and without, by Drs. Winternitz of Vienna and Kisch of Prague, with complementary chapters by competent Americans. It is eminently practical, is excellently written, and is a complete and trustworthy treatise. Dr. Eshner's translation is most acceptable, the American chapters are well written, and the whole book is heartily to be commended as readable and serviceable.

The twelfth annual issue of indispensable *Minerva* (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is much enlarged, as one may see by comparing solely the table of contents for the United States as compared with last year's measure. Especially to be remarked are the exhibition of the Senate of the University of London, with the new affiliation of Westfield College; and the constitution of the new British Academy, with list of members. In the table of student statistics, the University of New York ranks nine in point of attendance, with 4,499, standing next after Moscow. The frontispiece is an etched portrait of Léopold Delisle, General Director of the National Library in Paris, whose half-century of service with that institution has just been celebrated.

The *National Geographic Magazine* for December opens with a study, by Prof. I. C. Russell, of the various observations of the volcanic eruptions on Martinique and St. Vincent. Among the topics treated are the number of active craters, the variation in the eruptions, their products, the causes of death and the downward volcanic blasts. Some idea of the enormity of the mass ejected may be obtained from the statement that "during each hour that Mont Pelée or La Soufrière was in full blast, something like 48,000,000,000 cubic feet of dust- and stone-laden steam were driven out." Prof. Russell's conclusion is that "perhaps the chief lesson taught by the recent volcanic eruptions in the Antilles is the meagreness of our knowledge concerning the interior of the earth"; and in order to make a substantial addition to this knowledge he advocates the maintenance at Washington of a magnetic and seismo-

graphic observatory. Dr. E. O. Hovey describes the eruptions of La Soufrière as observed by him in May. Mr. W. A. Miller tells how to obtain a copyright of a map or chart. To the note chronicling the recent placing of the remains of Columbus in the mausoleum in the cathedral at Seville should have been added, that there is almost conclusive evidence that the sarcophagus which the Spaniards carried to Havana from Santo Domingo in 1795, and from thence to Spain at the close of the late war, contained, not the remains of the great discoverer, but of his son Diego.

Calendars for 1903 are now almost at the flood. That denominated "The Child," in six sheets strung together, each with a color design of generous size (Philadelphia: Charles W. Beck, jr.), need not fear rivalry. It is hard to say whether Jessie Willcox Smith or Elizabeth Shippen Green, who collaborate artistically, bears away the palm; let the nursery decide. Miss Green furnishes the one humorous plate, assimilating a little tot to the toadstools about her. Miss Mildred Howells's "Whist Calendar," in twelve sheets (Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.), is, for the text, a collection of rules and witty sayings about whist, in which Miss Howells finds the suggestion for a colored picture in the old style, as in the case of Talleyrand, Napoleon, Pickwick. This calendar will amuse and instruct. From E. P. Dutton & Co. we receive a "Book-Plate Zodiac Calendar," in black and white, designed by Elizabeth R. Finley, not very happily; "Three Little Girl Sketches," drawn on stone by Sewell Collins; and sundry English specimens in the well-known styles of the London house of Ernest Nister, such as the "Fra Angelico Calendar," illuminated after the master; the "Venetian Calendar," six colored scenes; the little "Dutch Tile Calendar," very dainty in blue; "Wise Saws," also for children (proverbs illustrated); "Roses," "Gems of the Season" (floral), "Sweet Memories" (for lovers), these of large size, and finally the Madonna della Sedia, flanked by Fra Angelico's angels, with the calendar proper suspended by ribbon. These make a good average of excellence.

In connection with the foregoing we may fitly mention the volume of nearly 450 pages entitled 'Every Day in the Year: A Poetical Epitome of the World's History,' edited by James L. and Mary K. Ford (Dodd, Mead & Co.)—not a mere anthology, we are warned in the preface. To sample at random, we select January 21 (Thackeray's "Execution of Louis XVI."), noting by the way an error of "January 2" for "21" in the event item; January 22 (Theodosia Garrison's "God Save the King," on Edward VII.'s accession; Edward Lear's and George T. Lanigan's humorous "Akond of Swat"; Ben Jonson's "On Lord Bacon's Birthday"; and Byron's "On My Thirty-seventh Birthday"). February 22 gives us two poems on Washington's birthday, and one on Bill Nye's. So we might proceed to demonstrate the queer juxtapositions. The collection, in spite of this and of some padding with trivial events and verse, will have its use and its admirers. There is an index of first lines, another of titles, and a third of poets; we miss one of the persons celebrated.

—Francis H. Nichols, the author of 'Through Hidden Shensi,' contributes to the December *Atlantic* a strong paper on the Chinese dislike of Christianity. This is not, he shows, merely one phase of a national repugnance towards foreign religion as foreign. Buddhism and, later, Mohammedanism made their way to widespread favor in China, though both of foreign origin. The real reason for the discrimination lies in the failure of the advocates of Christianity to understand and appreciate the Chinese point of view. The missionary wrongly condemns Chinese life *in toto* as heathenish and bad, and practically demands the denationalization of the Chinaman as a condition of his acceptance in the Christian fold. Mr. Nichols criticises merely the mistakes of method, not the fundamental aim of the missionaries, and holds that the great need of China to-day is the general acceptance of Christianity. "Less talk about a missionary spirit and more of the spirit of Christ in mission work" is the best ground of hope for such a result. Ambrose P. Winston writes of the Trade Union and the Superior Workman, combating without entire success the idea that unionism harms the cause of labor by its efforts to limit the amount of work done by the individual laborer, and to prevent any system of pay by which the superior workman may increase his earnings through his superiority. George Chamberlain describes present conditions in Brazil, calling particular attention to the feeling against the United States aroused by the Spanish-American war and our insignificant share in Brazilian trade. Woodrow Wilson's address on the "Ideals of America," delivered on the one hundred and twenty-fifth anniversary of the battle of Trenton, is published in full.

—The appearance of Lowell's anti-slavery papers calls forth from a writer in the *Atlantic* some remarks on Lowell as a man of temperament. While due credit is given for a great variety of separate literary virtues, such as fervor, vivacity, gaiety, flash of epigram, opulence of interests and sympathies, range of illustration, abundance of allusion, and fecundity of ideas, the quality of moral unity in his nature is specifically denied. Such a denial can hardly be maintained on a comprehensive view of the man and his work. It may be admitted that his writing does not show "the weighty advance of massed forces, the surging movement that seems inevitable, the flow, unstudied and irresistible, of great prose, such as Raleigh's and Bunyan's, or Milton's and Burke's, at their height"; but credit for moral unity of nature can scarcely be withheld on the ground of failure to rise to the grand movement of a Burke or a Milton. The real test for moral unity is not in the choice of the light or the heavy missile, but in the constancy of aim; and, judged by an intelligent application of this test, Lowell will hardly be found wanting. Epigrams are no doubt a dangerous temptation to irrelevancy, self-contradiction, mere smartness, and many other evils, but Quintilian tells us that they are useful "dum rem contineant"; and it is not often that the flashes from Lowell's pen fail to throw light upon the point at issue. Formal philosophical reasoning was not in his line, but a study of his life-work, literary and otherwise, shows that it was grounded upon definitely conceived principles. The ups and downs were but ripples upon the surface; the stream went steadily on in its appointed way, and the careful eye need never be at a loss to determine its direction.

—One of the most stately publications of the present season is the seven-volume 'Variorum and Definitive Edition of the Poetical and Prose Writings of Edward FitzGerald, including a Complete Bibliography and interesting Personal and Literary Notes: the whole collected and arranged by George Bentham, with a Preface by Edmund Gosse' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Only the first three volumes have come to hand; and while they do not wholly disclose the richness of the contents, they sufficiently illustrate the method of this compilation. From the "prose writings," it must be said at once, the Letters, which far outweigh in value all FitzGerald's other prose, are excluded, save that permission has been obtained to make extracts from them bearing upon the successive works here reproduced edition after edition. In place of the scholarly mode of variorum exhibition in parallel columns, we have here in volume i., for example, the 'Rubáiyát' of Omar Khayyám, first edition; in volume ii., the same, second edition; in volume iii., the same, fourth edition, and fifth edition (so nearly identical with the third that the latter is not reproduced textually). *Pari passu* with the Quatrains we have the several issues of 'Saláman and Absál,' of 'Euphranor' and 'Agamemnon.' The Spanish transfusions will fill the next two volumes, with 'Polonius' thrown in; the sixth comprises 'Sea Words and Phrases along the Suffolk Coast,' 'The Bird-Parliament,' and the 'Oedipus,' while the seventh is filled with a miscellany embracing a translation from Petrarch, the introduction to 'Readings in Crabbe,' the Memoir of Bernard Barton, etc. The original title-pages are given in facsimile. The variorum and bibliographical notes are accommodated at the foot of the page. The original pagination is indicated in the margin. In short, with a few accessories, what is aimed at here is to endow the purchaser of the set with FitzGerald's publications in their several stages. The sumptuousness of the form, however, adds something to the manual labor of comparison, which must still be (for contents of the first three) volume by volume.

—Little remains to be said except in praise of the typography, presswork, and handmade paper, which have the clear and generous quality of the De Vinne Press, beginning with the well-designed, rubricated title-page. Flaws like the inconsistency of accents on pp. xvii., xviii. of volume i. (Attar, Attár) are rare; but in our copy of volume iii. there is an unaccountable mixture after page 108. This page is followed by two leaves containing prefatory extracts relating to 'Euphranor' (folio xi., though how related to any previous Roman enumeration is not perceptible), breaking off unfinished and not continued on the verso, which duplicates page 102 of the preceding 'Saláman'; the third page likewise duplicates page 103; the fourth page of this insert is blank. Mr. Gosse's brief introduction exemplifies the difficulty of saying anything new about FitzGerald, and, in fact, the only novelty we have observed in it is the sample of the Latin translation in which FitzGerald first showed the influence of Omar; but this cannot be novel to the wor-

shippers of Old Fitz. They will need no further account of this edition, *simplex munditiis*, to be moved to procure it straightway. They may re-read, with what reflections seem pertinent, the author's modest words to Cowell nearly half a century ago: "I hardly know why I print any of these things, which nobody buys; and I scarce now see the few I give them to. But when one has done one's best, and is sure that best is better than so many will take pains to do, though far from the best that *might* be done, one likes to make an end of the matter by Print."

—Mr. Gustav Kruell's Beethoven might have seemed to any engraver an accounting in full for a year's labor; but this artist's facility is bounded only by his interest in his theme, and he has followed directly on the heels of that masterpiece with another, a head of Jefferson. This is the third of our Presidents (reckoning already Lincoln, in two phases, and Grant) whom Mr. Kruell has celebrated in his grand manner, and, as usual, a comparison of the technique of these classical examples, from one hand, of the highest attainment in wood-engraving offers a most interesting study. A growth in free handling is manifest, but always the treatment is subdued to the character illustrated. The basis of the present work is Gilbert Stuart's portrait of Jefferson in the possession of Bowdoin College, but with the customary divination which our engraver has the secret of applying to his models. In color and in brushlike quality this plate belongs with his later productions, and for the first time he has introduced an accessory, in the shape of a column in the background, which both balances the composition and connotes the statesman. The print, on Japan paper, is to be seen at Wunderlich's, in this city, and may be had of Mr. Kruell, at No. 331 Main Street, East Orange, N. J.

## POLLARD'S HENRY THE EIGHTH.

*Henry VIII.* By A. F. Pollard, M.A. London: Goupil & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

"Fine feathers make fine birds," but Mr. Pollard's 'Henry VIII' has other titles to favor besides the brilliancy of its plumage. Like the previous volumes of this series which the Messrs. Goupil are devoting to the sovereigns of England, it is magnificently printed, and abounds with well-executed photogravures of quarto size. At the same time it is the work of a sound historian and an accomplished essayist. Although Mr. Pollard has for his predecessors Mr. Andrew Lang, the late S. R. Gardiner, and Dr. Osmund Airy, he is by no means eclipsed. He gives us history and not letterpress, a striking portrait and not a miscellany of facts.

Before coming to the text, we shall say a word or two about the illustrations. What Vandyck was to the court of Charles I., that, and in our opinion more, Holbein was to the court of Henry VIII. There is therefore no dearth of subjects, and the galleries of England have been thrown open freely to Mr. Pollard. Out of forty-four illustrations, eleven are reproduced through permission of the King, while the treasures of ducal collections are disclosed with equal liberality. Every one who has had the good fortune to go through the private apartments at Windsor will remember how rich they are in the best examples of Holbein's brush and pencil. From such sources as this and the Duke of Norfolk's gallery, Mr. Pollard has been able to draw, apparently at will. Indeed, the wealth of artistic material which England affords has placed a certain restriction upon his choice of subjects. The Leo X. of Raphael, the Charles V. of Titian, the Erasmus of Holbein himself, are excluded from a work into which they might easily have been brought but for excess of riches. In their place we get such native types as Henry, Sir Thomas More, Thomas Cromwell, Thomas Howard, and the young Edward VI., all by Holbein; and where recourse is had to the Continent, it is simply for the sake of depicting some one, like Cristina of Denmark, who might have become an English Queen, and of whom there is also a very fine portrait. We do not see how Mr. Pollard's selections could be improved; nevertheless, one cause of regret suggests itself. Holbein did not paint all the people who must be represented in an illustrated life of Henry VIII., and some of those whom he did paint best, fall below the due standard of historical importance. For this reason we get a bevy of Queens by inferior artists, and are not led to realize how many of Holbein's masterpieces were done in England.

A new life of Henry VIII. at once recalls Froude's 'History,' Brewer's prefaces to the first four volumes of the 'Letters and Papers of the Reign of Henry VIII.,' and Mr. James Gairdner's article in the 'Dictionary of National Biography.' In point of opportunity, Mr. Pollard has the advantage of all these predecessors. Not only does he stand upon their shoulders, but the scope and design of his book favor a more direct appeal to the average reader. Froude's glorification of Henry is simply one ingredient, however important, in a long and anti-sacerdotal history. Brewer's prefaces are attached to a series of original documents which none but professional students open. Mr. Gairdner's admirable and learned sketch is conformed to the strict requirements of a biographical encyclopædia which embraces seventy-three volumes. On the other hand, Mr. Pollard writes for an audience that is well educated but does not care to wade through an ocean of technical details. To have explored the latest sources is with him a preliminary and not a final step. His proper function he finds in the delineation of character and in the statement of broad results. Unlike Froude, he does not thrive on paradox; unlike Brewer and Gairdner, he is not handicapped by erudition. He has a fine theme, and he knows how to treat it within reasonable compass.

Most of us have been led by our constitutional studies to look upon Edward the First as the greatest of English kings, but Mr. Pollard does not hesitate to style Henry VIII. "the most remarkable man who ever sat on the English throne." It may be urged with some force that "remarkable" is a vague and colorless word which commits the writer to no verdict regarding virtue or capacity. However this may be, the careful reader will soon perceive that Mr. Pollard feels deep admiration for Henry's power and strength of purpose. He is not a worshipper of brute force, nor does he seek to ferret out extenuating circumstances whenever a queen, a cardinal, or a minister is sent to the block. He leaves Henry a supreme but astute egotist, whose vigorous despotism carried England through the crisis of the Reformation with much success. And furthermore he makes the English nation the ready accomplice, not the passive victim, of its king.

To explain the cheerfulness with which the masses followed in the steps of their sovereign, even though the path led them to the foot of many a scaffold, Mr. Pollard adduces several reasons. In the first place, it was well recognized that Henry's life was the only safeguard against civil war. The crude alternative of despotism or anarchy was presented to a generation that had not yet forgotten the Wars of the Roses. The King's legitimate offspring, and they alone, could wear the crown of England without involving the realm in another series of bloody campaigns and ruthless proscriptions. Hence arose the national anxiety over the question of royal wedlock. Secondly, Henry was a ruler of magnificent strength and presence, proficient in all sports and manly exercises. Here Mr. Pollard can use an illustration which is so modern and so apropos that it almost sounds like an *argumentum ad hominem:*

"In archery, in wrestling, in joust, and in tourney, as well as in the tennis court or on the hunting-field, Henry was a match for the best in his kingdom. None could draw a bow, tame a steed, or shiver a lance more deftly than he, and his single-handed tournaments on horse and foot with his brother-in-law, the Duke of Suffolk, are likened by one who watched them to the combats of Achilles and Hector. These are no mere trifles below the dignity of history: they help to explain the extraordinary hold Henry obtained over popular imagination. Suppose there ascended the throne to-day a young prince, the hero of the athletic world, the finest oar, the best bat, the crack marksman of his day, it is easy to imagine the enthusiastic support he would receive from thousands of his people who care much for sport and nothing at all for politics. Suppose, also, that that prince were endowed with the iron will, the instinctive insight into the hearts of his people, the profound aptitude for government that Henry VIII. displayed, he would be a rash man who would guarantee even now the integrity of parliamentary power or the continuance of cabinet rule."

Finally, Mr. Pollard asks us to remember when we are considering the relations of Henry VIII. and his subjects, that the English of the sixteenth century were both hard-hearted and mercenary:

"Their prevailing characteristics," he says, "were a passion for material prosperity, and an absolute indifference to human suffering. . . . There is no sign that the hideous tortures inflicted on men condemned for treason, or the equally horrible sufferings of heretics burnt at the stake, excited the least qualm of compassion in the breast of the multitude: the Act of Six Articles seems to have been a highly popular measure, and the multiplication of treasons evoked no national protest."

Once more, as in the days of Henry I., we see a tacit alliance between king and people against those who would disturb the public peace by their intrigues and opposition to the crown. How, indeed, could any one talk of tyranny when every measure of the least importance received the express sanction of Parliament?

In his analysis of Henry's career and

policy Mr. Pollard evolves a very interesting formula:

"His reign, like his character, seems to be divided into two inconsistent halves. In 1519 his rule is pronounced more suave and gentle than the greatest liberty anywhere else: twenty years later, terror is said to reign supreme. It is tempting to sum up his life in one sweeping generalization, and to say that it exhibits a continuous development of Henry's intellect and deterioration of his character."

The chief thing which can be urged against this neat and antithetical epitome is the improvement of the King's morals in his last years, and his corresponding profession of higher aims. During the middle part of his life he was at no pains to make such general professions of good intent as are contained in the royal speech of 1545, yet his power had not declined, nor did he need to conciliate popular favor. Mr. Pollard is free from the prejudices of a partisan, and his estimate of Henry's character will carry weight. An intelligent egotist may possess many political virtues, and with a fair share of these Henry VIII. must needs be credited. As to one point, at least, we have little doubt. Mr. Pollard's book is likely to strengthen the general belief in Henry's ability. No politician was ever less a doctrinaire at the outset, but in the end he proved himself able to grasp the bearings of a general principle. His insight deepened with his years, and experience begot clarity of view. No one after Wolsey's fall became in a true sense his minister. Cromwell and Norfolk were useful assistants, but they were hardly more. Among other political accomplishments the King learned how to keep his own counsel. When Sir Henry Wotton went to Italy, Alberto Scipione, an old Roman courtier, gave him for counsel the saying, *Pensieri stretti ed il viso sciolto*. This Machiavellian proverb Henry VIII. had learned before him. From a boy he had been known for his hearty manner. In later years he seemed open, but remained close. He became one who would burn his cap rather than it should know his secrets. The development of such a trait may not be a sign of increasing amiability, but it bears witness to a growing interest in statecraft.

Mr. Pollard, when depicting Henry's attitude towards those ecclesiastical questions which were the chief problem of his time, portrays him as the great Erastian of the Reformation, as an Erastian before Erastus. The truth of this opinion is, we should think, indisputable, for the Act of Supremacy can bear no other interpretation. Accordingly, we shall not discuss the point, but there is one matter connected with it which we must pause to notice. During the sixteenth century two motives were conspicuously strong in the public life of Western Europe. The one was the love of religious truth (or, perhaps, we should say, of dogmatic orthodoxy); the other was worship of the state. It happened inevitably that these two forces were brought into the most acute conflict. The contest of Church and State assumed a new form, but it was no less acute than it had been in the eleventh and twelfth centuries. As a result of this antagonism, more than one country wavered and was lost. At the best it settled a doubtful issue only by the horrors of civil war.

Where others suffered, England obviously escaped. According to the view of all but Catholics, she took the right side, and the breach with Rome cost her no more than the price of individual executions, which were, on the whole, so few as to be called inconsiderable. England, likewise, appears to have been the most Machiavellian of European states at this crisis. As Mr. Pollard says, Englishmen in the reign of Henry VIII. "were dominated by the idea that the State was the be-all and end-all of human existence. It supplied an excuse to despots and an inspiration to noble minds." Under such conditions, "the devotion paid to the State made expediency, and not justice or morality, the supreme test of public acts. . . . Traitors were not executed because they were immoral, but because they were dangerous." And as a result, "the nation purchased political salvation at the price of moral debasement: the individual was sacrificed on the altar of the State."

Here, at last, we come to Mr. Pollard's estimate of Henry VIII. and to the conclusion of a most able book. The King who carried England through the crisis of the Reformation and thus shaped her destinies to the present day, was above all else a self-seeker. He perceived the popular indifference to politics and the popular craving for a commercial success that could be secured only by domestic peace. With this as his main source of strength he made himself a tyrant, "and despotic power developed in him features, the repulsiveness of which cannot be concealed by the most exquisite art appealing to the most deep-rooted prejudice." He sought the greatness of England, and labored for it earnestly, but with no ethical purpose, and simply because he himself wished to be great. This is not altogether a pleasing picture; "yet it is probable that Henry's personal influence and personal action averted greater evils than those they provoked." He saved England from such a calamity as the French wars of religion, and, unless the history of the nation has all been a mistake since 1529, he did well to take the side of Protestantism.

Why the good deeds of St. Louis worked out badly and the bad deeds of Henry VIII. worked out well, we shall leave it for the theologians to determine.

## WOODBERRY'S HAWTHORNE.

*Nathaniel Hawthorne.* By George E. Woodberry. (American Men of Letters.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

There is something of the marvellous about a man distinguished from the common by a rare and beautiful imagination. People are always wanting to have the wonderful faculty explained by establishment of relationship between it and the man's character, with a probable theory of its development through the conditions and circumstances of his life. No man more than Hawthorne has excited this sort of curiosity, and by none has it been more completely baffled. His personality was so vague, so almost imponderable, and his imagination so resplendent, that any attempt to explain the greater by the less is foredoomed to failure. His latest biographer, Mr. Woodberry, has not made the attempt, but, on the contrary, has emphasized a disparity between the man and his genius, and has rather taken the view that his imaginative faculty was not developed, or indeed perceptibly affected, by the actual living of life. Most biographers have looked at Hawthorne through a film; but, before beginning his work, Mr. Woodberry appears to have brushed the cobwebs from his brain and so regarded his subject in the cool light of reason—intellectually, not imaginatively. The result is a readable and valuable book, admirably arranged, and infused with a critical spirit which seems to us rather severe as regards the man, and clear, firm, yet not dogmatic, as regards his work.

The author is largely permitted to tell his own story, to reveal himself through his letters, note-books, and those passages of his tales that are unquestionably autobiographical. This is the best, indeed the only, way to give the personality of Hawthorne solidity or even tangibility. His external life was so slight in outline, so free from human complications, so scantily involved with the work, the pleasure or the pain of other men, that it offers no help for the incarnation of his exquisite genius. And, left so liberally in his own hands, the union of flesh and spirit is not seen to be quite perfect. There is always a shy, unpretentious, honest man separated from his kind by no fault or desire of his own, but by the will of an inexorable genius, from whose thraldom he could never long escape, and to which, after every period of liberty, he was doomed to return.

Mr. Woodberry is so conscious of this separation that he dwells upon the detachment of Hawthorne's imagination from his life and character, and says that he "left himself out of his work as much as any man can." It is true that he left out the self of the Boston wharves, of the Salem Custom House, of the Liverpool consulship, even of Brook Farm. These incongruous practical activities, this living of life, had indeed no sort of effect on his imagination, almost no reflection in his imaginative work. But the self—not simply his own individuality, the self compounded of two centuries of Puritan ancestors—enters largely into his work. He had, as Mr. Woodberry shows, so small a claim to individuality independent of antecedents that he was as a bond-slave to the Puritan idea, the Puritan principle of being. To quote Mr. Woodberry:

"He took practically no interest in life except as seen under its moral aspects as a life of the soul, and this absorption in the moral sphere was due to his being a child of New England. It was his inheritance from Puritanism. What distinguished Puritan life and the people who grew up under its influences was an intense self-consciousness of life in the soul—in a word, spirituality of life; and Hawthorne, as he came to find himself in his growth, disclosed one form of this spirituality both reflectively and imaginatively in his writings, the form that lived in him."

Approaching him imaginatively (as Mr. Woodberry does not), it is quite easy to believe that from his birth he was under what Spiritualists call the "control" of his "grave, bearded, sable-cloaked, and steeple-crowned progenitors." Hawthorne thought these gentry would have disapproved of him and his id vocation of tale-telling; on the contrary, one can believe that they came in force to his christening, dowering him with their all-important conscience, their poverty of human sympathy, and substituting for

their impulse towards physical adventure an imagination perfectly fitted to celebrate them and ensure their earthly immortality. Without hinting at the fascinating notion of direct ancestral intervention, Hawthorne is often dimly aware and resentful of some controlling influence obstructing freedom of action. Referring, in a letter to Longfellow, to his long "accursed solitude" in the chamber under the eaves, he deplores having been carried apart from the main current of life by "some witchcraft or other." It was during these years of almost involuntary self-immolation that the ancestors identified him with themselves, that he became more intimately at home with them, their history, manners, customs, beliefs and thoughts, than he ever did with living men.

During that period the work he was to do and the way it was to be done were determined. He was to immortalize the Puritan, to express his great preoccupation with sin, especially secret sin implacably ravaging the soul; and also his superstitions, his strange childish concern about witches and dooms and hereditary curses wreaking vengeance for wrong upon innocent generations. This was to be done in a form of romantic fiction in which the outward and visible are but signs of the inward and invisible, and the particular person, incident, or object a concrete symbol of a universal, abstract, moral condition.

In the chapter entitled "The Old Manse" Mr. Woodberry's analysis of his author's temperament and art is an admirable bit of criticism. His reflections on racial and local influences are especially suggestive Admitting, for instance, the provinciality of many of the tales, he limits it to the manner, for the following interesting reasons:

"He escapes from provincialism in the substance because he was a New Englander, not in spite of that fact; for the spirituality which is the central fact of New England life itself escapes from provincialism, being a pure expression of that Christianity in which alone true cosmopolitanism is found, of that faith which presents mankind as one and indivisible. Hence arises in Hawthorne a second distinctly Puritan trait, his democracy. He looks only at the soul; all outward distinctions of rank and place, fortune, pride, poverty, disappear as unconcerning things; he sees all men in the light of the judgment day."

Besides being true as regards Hawthorne, this passage is almost exciting as a declaration of faith from a son of New England. But Mr. Woodberry is consistently loyal, and all he says about Hawthorne as a New Englander and about the special appeal of his work to New Englanders is sympathetic and affectionate. No one, we think, who is not deeply concerned about the fair fame of New England can quite agree with his remarks on 'The Scarlet Letter.' Hawthorne, he says, has not here given an historical view of New England; though the tale has its roots in Puritanism, it is only incidentally a New England tale; also, it is a relentless tale, without mercy or hope, without Christ, and therefore describing only a half-truth about Puritanism, and that the darker half. To believe that there was much light, love, and mercy in the Puritans is perhaps a triumph of family pride over evidence. To the moral universality of Hawthorne's great romance ample justice is done, but there is not, we think, adequate toll paid to its extraordinary beauty and the perfection of its execution. "The Scarlet Letter," says Mr. Henry James "has the beauty and harmony of all original and complete conceptions, and its weaker spots, whatever they are, are not of its essence. One can often return to it; it supports familiarity, and has the inexhaustible charm and mystery of all great works of art." Great works of art inevitably suggest enduring existence; to us 'The Scarlet Letter' seems absolutely imperishable.

Some amend for this coolness towards 'The Scarlet Letter' is made in the appreciation of the romance known both as 'Transformation' and as 'The Marble Faun,' which, Mr. Woodberry thinks, has "greater breadth, finer beauty, and more profound mystery than the American tales." Grace and beauty we perceive in it, but to us it is not comparable with "The Scarlet Letter' for unity of design, for force of impression, for dignity and simplicity. In fact, it never seems to us a masterpiece. In spite of his admiration, however, Mr. Woodberry detects the central weakness. His concluding remarks on the romance are worth quoting, both for the substance and the expression:

"One wishes that if he [Donatello] were to have a soul, he might have come into it in some way of natural kindness dissociated from a moral theory. The theory—and here is the one discord—is, after all, felt to be an exotic in the Italian air. . . . It is the same wherever the story is taken up; it is charming as an artistic work, but when we begin to think about it, the method of approach is proved to be wrong, because it solves nothing and ends in futility. It is throughout a Puritan romance which has wandered about and clothed itself in strange masquerade in the Italian air. Hawthorne's personality pervades it, like life in a sensitive hand. It is the best and fullest and most intimate expression of his temperament, of the man he had come to be, and takes the imprint of his soul with minute delicacy and truth. It is a meditation on sin, but so made gracious with beauty as to lose the deformity of its theme; and it suffers a metamorphosis into a thing of loveliness. To us it is in boyhood our dreams of Italy, and in after years the best companion of memory; it is also a romance of nature and art, and of the mystery of evil, shot through with such sunshine gleams, with the presence of pure color and divine forms, as to seem like the creations of the old mythic Mediterranean world, which, though it hold shapes of terror, was the most beautiful land that the imagination has ever known."

## RECENT POETRY.

One of the most curious revivals in recent literary history has been that of the short-lived fame of the late William Ellery Channing, commonly known as Ellery Channing to distinguish him from his more famous uncle of the same name; the nephew being Emerson's friend and Hawthorne's biographer, who has lately died in Concord, Mass., at the age of eighty-three. An admirably printed volume (Philadelphia and Concord: James H. Bentley), bears on the title-page 'Poems of Sixty-five Years, by Ellery Channing, selected and edited by F. B. Sanborn.' The editor speaks simply and touchingly, on the first page, of "the short biography which so secluded a poet must need in coming before the grandchildren of those who first welcomed his verses in the year 1840." Those grandchildren who assume, like other young people, that fame comes at once or never, will be amazed in turning these pages at the strength, the beauty, the grace, the keen sympathy with nature and with the human heart that will be found in the poems of this last of the Transcendentalists. Thoreau's rare qualities long escaped observation, and Channing is too closely linked and allied with Thoreau for him not to share, perhaps, in the same tardy recognition. How many living American poets at any rate could put into fifteen lines such depths and such cadences as in these (p. 168)?

TO-MORROW AND TO-MORROW AND TO-MORROW.

To-morrow comes? dost say, my Friend, "To-morrow?"
Far down below those pines the sunset flings,
Long arching o'er, its lines of ruddy light;
And the wind murmurs little harmonies,
And underneath their wings the tender birds
Droop their averted heads—silent their songs.

But not a word whispers the moaning wind—
Nor when in faint array the primal stars
Trail with the banners of the unfurled Night;
Nor even when the low-hung moon just glints,
And faintly, with few touches, sears the wood;
Not there, not then, doth Nature idly say,
Nor whisper idly of another day;
That other morn itself its morrow is;
That other day shall see no shade of this.

In 'Captain Craig: A Book of Poems,' by Edwin Arlington Robinson (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), we have the latest work of one of the most promising of our younger poets—one who, like so many persons gifted in the same way, has not yet mastered his own powers and has to follow his muse for a time, not direct it. His very singleness of mind sometimes defeats itself and leaves his meaning unconveyed. Obscure he may be and has a right to be, for his thoughts are always worth consideration, but it must be frankly owned that he sometimes draws near the unintelligible. He brings marvellous color and music into his verse when at his highest point; yet, like Browning, he loses himself and his readers in regions of abstract thought. But he has a nature innately candid, has no desire to pose, and has been perhaps mainly embarrassed by working too much alone. It may be well for him that his surface has not suavity enough. If he said things with more uniform melody, he might be more easily flattered and perverted. A young poet needs some inaccessible domain of even rudeness to which he may retreat to assert himself. This book is likely to be passed unnoticed by all indolent readers, and with impatience by those a little more careful; but those more careful still will revert to it again and again, and wish health, fortune, and encouragement and still farther development to one who could write it. There is not a trivial or meaningless thing in it; and when there is obscurity, it is often like that of Emily Dickinson when she piques your curiosity through half a dozen readings and suddenly makes all clear. Such a song ends at last, as this volume does, with a note of triumph (p. 169):

TWILIGHT SONG.

Through the shine, through the rain
We have shared the day's load;
To the old march again
We have tramped the long road;
We have laughed, we have cried,
And we've tossed the King's crown;
We have fought, we have died,
And we've trod the day down.
So it's lift the old song
Ere the night flies again,
Where the road leads along
Through the shine, through the rain.

. . . . . .

Through the shine, through the rain,
We have wrought the day's quest;
To the old march again
We have earned the day's rest;
We have laughed, we have cried,
And we've heard the King's groans;
We have fought, we have died,
And we've burned the King's bones,
And we lift the old song
Ere the night flies again,
Where the road leads along
Through the shine, through the rain.

We have long since called attention to

the meditative and eminently original poems of "Owen Innsley" (Miss Lucy W. Jennison), and it is pleasant to meet again her name on a title-page; the book in this case being 'Love Songs and Other Poems' (The Grafton Press). This volume contains, not merely thoughtful and melodious English poems, but also songs in German, French, and Italian, besides many translations ranging from the Spanish to the Russian and modern Greek. We extract this inscription of the book to the mother of the poet:

DEDICATION.

Mov'st thou, perchance, in strange and starry spheres
Afar, beyond the impenetrable night
That shrouds the tomb, smiling at the old fears
Of death, encircled by all-conquering light?
Or dost thou sleep where thy last bed was made,
Beneath the violets and the scented grass,
Careless alike of sunshine and of shade,
Of morns that linger and of eves that pass?

Ah! who shall say? No eye can pierce the dark,
No strained ear tidings catch of weal or woe
Out of the silence; and no single spark
Illumes that portal through which all must go.
Yet this we know: Death is a kind of birth,
And brings one sacred immortality;
Thou livest in thy traces left on earth;
Thou livest in thy children's memory.

'The Call of the Sea, and Other Poems,' by L. Frank Tooker (The Century Co.), is one of the many volumes justly dedicated to Mr. Stedman by grateful young poets, and is one of those few, moreover, in which the very finest poem is judiciously placed first (p. 3):

THE CALL OF THE SEA.

Day and night I have heard it: "Arise and come
to thine own!
The surf is loud on the shore, and the spume
is white in the gale,
This is the rapture of living. Oh, how can the
land atone
For the loss of the vibrant shrouds and the
joy of the slanting sail?

"Follow, then, follow the free wind over the waste
of gray!
The sweep of the billows shall rock thee, the
scent of the brine shall allure;
Though Death and Oblivion mock thee, thou shalt
joy in thy master's sway;
His scouring shall arm thee in might, make
thee strong in thine hour to endure.
. . . . . .
"Over the rim of the world make thy uncertain
quest;
Starlight shall mark thy course, fog and the
spindrift bar;
Thou shalt exult in the storm, in the calm of the
sea thou shalt rest;
Seek danger, and find it not; seek peace, and
miss it afar.

"It will lift thee on wings as an eagle; it will
be both singer and song;
A lamp to thy soul in need, a snare to thy
wandering feet;
Blind to thy love or hate, it will save thee alone
of a throng;
True to its own untruth, it will make thy
ruin complete."
. . . . . .
Day and night I have heard it: "Arise and come
to thine own!
The spume is like smoke in the blast, and the
flaws are black on the lee.
Thou who art thrall to the winds that over the
world are blown,
Rejoice in the harping gale, rejoice in the
rolling sea!"

This is the high-water mark of the volume; the low-water mark is to be found in the following unfortunate stanza from the poem "The Messenger" (p. 127):

"The sprawling legs and drooping head
Of his tired steed enraged him so,
That, all his pity being dead,
He struck him many a cruel blow.
As well expect song from dead lark,
Or color from the rose at dark."

'Poems and Verses,' by Edward Sandford Martin, the genial author of 'A Little Brother of the Rich,' will have most interest for many readers by reason of the author's tribute to a classmate, well known as Governor of Massachusetts. The poem (p. 19) was read at the dinner of the Harvard Class of 1877, in Boston, June 29, 1897, the year following Gov. Russell's untimely death:

WILLIAM EUSTIS RUSSELL.

Hard hit? Ah, yes! denial's vain—
Far from our thoughts and wishes too.
Stripped of our best, we meet again
To share a cup that's tinged with rue.
Dear man, how proud he made us all!
Our honest statesman, patriot, mate,
Whose very rivals lived to call
His death a mischief to the State!

With shining eyes we watched his course
Impetuous to an early goal;
A man of an inspiring force,
Whose pockets could not hold his soul!
Who strove without surcease or fear,
Nor from his task withdrew his hand
Until the fame of his career
Edged the far corners of the land.

His head was clear, his heart was good,
His speech was plain without pretence;
Men trusted him as one who stood
For honesty and common-sense.
Ah! not unshared is our distress,
Nor here alone is missed his face;
A million freemen, leaderless,
Still wonder who shall take his place.

When one reads the 'Book of Joyous Children' (Scribners), by James Whitcomb Riley, one feels that such an author has spent the last few non-publishing years to some advantage. The dialect is, of course, that Western child-dialect (*ist* for *just*, for instance) which has been found exasperating to the author's Eastern readers. But the familiar portion of the dialect is always effective, and one envies the "little tads" for whom it is designed, even if he does not know from experience what a "tad" is. The illustrations, but that only one source is mentioned, would seem to come from two—the one set almost too much idealized, the other too little. The zest and the animal spirits of these verses are inexhaustible, rising to the climax of vocal vigor in the following (p. 60):

BILLY AND HIS DRUM.

Ho! it's come, kids, come!
With a bim! bam! bum!
Here's little Billy bangin' on his big brass drum!
He's a-marchin' round the room,
With his feather-duster plume
A-noddin' an' a-bobbin' with his bim! bom! boom!

Looky, little Jane an' Jim!
Will you only look at him,
A-humpin' an' a-thumpin' with his bam! bom! bim!
Has the Day o' Juugment come
Er the New Mi-len-nee-um?
Er is it only Billy with his bim! bam! bum!

I'm a-comin'; yes, I am—
Jim an' Sis, an' Jane an' Sam!
We'll all march off with Billy an' his bom! bim!
bam!
Come hurr*awin*' as you come,
Er they'll think you're deef-an'-dumb
Ef you don't hear little Billy an' his big brass
drum!

Of the various Christmas books for children we should select 'A Pocketful of Posies,' by Abbie Farwell Brown (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), in which, however, the running border in scarlet seems rather to overpower the rhymed stanzas on the page; and the 'Great Procession and Other Verses for and about Children,' by Harriet Prescott Spofford (Boston: Badger), which has more charming tales and more felicitous word pictures. The opening words, for instance, on "The Great Procession" prepare for this (p. 9):

"Did you ever happen to think, when dark
Lights up the lamps outside the pane,
And you look through the glass on that wonderland
Where the witches are making their tea in the
rain,
Of the great procession that says its prayers
All the world over, and climbs the stairs,
And goes to a wonderland of dreams,
Where nothing at all is just what it seems?

"All the world over at eight o'clock,
Sad and sorrowful, glad and gay,
These with their eyes as bright as dawn,
Those almost asleep on the way,
This one capering, that one cross,
Plaited tresses, or curling floss,
Slowly the long procession streams
Up to the wonderland of dreams.

"Far in the islands of the sea
The great procession takes up its way,
Where, throwing their faded flower-wreaths down,
Little savages tire of play;
Though they have no stairs to climb at all,
And go to sleep wherever they fall,
By the sea's soft song and the star's soft gleams
They are off to the wonderland of dreams."

The volume 'Up from Georgia,' by Frank L. Stanton (Appleton), is one of the healthiest Southern books. It accepts the past as inevitable, at least, if not fortunate, and, among other things, it presents negro life in as cheery a light as before the war, though the following song (p. 27) may or may not represent that:

WHEN THE FALL TIME COMES.

There's somethin' like a jingle an' a tingle in the
air,
Fer the honey's jest a-drippin' from the hives;
The fields are lookin' frosty with the white that
blossoms there,
An' the corn crap's jest the biggest of our lives!

Summer's a-goin'—
Needn't beat the drums;
We're bound to have a showin'
When the fall time comes!

There's somethin' like a jingle an' a tingle every-
where,
An' the blue smoke has a meanin' as it curls;
They're tunin' of the fiddle, an' there's music in
the air,
An' we'll soon be swinging corners with the girls!

Summer's a-goin'—
Needn't beat the drums;
We're bound to have a showin'
When the fall time comes!

It is pleasant to see a volume of poems from Minneapolis, where Mr. Arthur Upson's 'Westwind Songs' is printed (Brooks). These pages do not, like the same author's 'Octaves in an Oxford Garden,' show the imprint of one atmosphere only, but range from the Avon to Mackinaw, and even include the Bodleian Library and "The Flying Cranes" at Crane Island, as well as the wheat elevators of the West and a letter of approbation from Carmen Sylva in Rumania. In another book partly by the same author, 'Poems,' by Arthur Upson and George Norton Northrop (Minneapolis: Brooks), we have varied music, with many suggestions of great composers. It is beautifully printed, apparently for "members of the Samovar Club," but shows an unhappy whim or mannerism by which all compounding hyphens are abandoned, and we read not only of "redgold" and "terrace-stair," but of "blossomchalices" and "tea-rosetrees."

There comes from San Francisco an attractive volume, 'Songs of the Press and Other Adventures in Verse,' by Bailey Millard (Elder & Shepard). The author has that private fault, commonest in journalism, of unexpectedly complaining of his "own sad unworth" in a dedication to his mother; but his strictly professional poems are sometimes full of vigor, like that of the "Lamore Scoop," a railway tribute to a girl reporter (p. 18). The book has sonnets also to "Thoreau of Walden" (p. 111), who is called "Lycurgus of the pen, austere and dread"; and "to Edward Carpenter in England" (p. 101); and to one of the most heroic figures of the nineteenth century, John Muir, the explorer (p. 48):

MUIR OF THE MOUNTAINS.

A lean, wild-haired, wild-bearded, craggy man,
Wild as a Modoc, and as unafraid,
A man to go his way with no man's aid,
Yet sweet and soft of heart as any maid.

Sky-loving, stalwart as the sugar-pine,
Clean, simple, fragrant as that noble tree,
A mountain man, and free as they are free
Who tread the heights and know tranquillity.

A man whose speech hints of no studied art,
But careless straying as the stream that flows,
And full of grace, poetic as the rose
Which to the wind its pure song-petals throws.

A relish of the larger life is his,
And reverence rapt and wonder and deep awe
For any beauty Nature's brush may draw;
A man of faith who keeps each primal law.

Another curious outcome of California life is seen in the occasional books of almost international poetry which come through the Golden Gate, the fruit of foreign travel thither, sometimes Japanese,

then Spanish and then again English. We find such, for instance, in 'Moods and Outdoor Verses' (San Francisco: Elder & Shepard), by Richard Askham, with a word of introduction by Edwin Markham. This book was apparently written mostly in California; the "Envoi" is dated at San Francisco, its place of publication; but the printing was done in London, and the introduction written in New York. There is an agreeable flavor of genuineness and sympathy in the verses; and Mr. Markham has something to learn from his English friends as respects entire simplicity of manner. In one of the poems, apparently written across the water, one finds an agreeable mingling of the two atmospheres—or hemispheres (p. 86).

IN ENGLAND—MAY.
(To —— at the piano.)

If mine could write it as your fingers play,
Across the village and its white highway,
Across the park and palings, you should feel
The sea-breeze blowing through the Golden Gate
Among the many-shouldered hills.
The Bay
Would bid us out again on holiday,
And Tamalpais would set his perfect line
Against the blazing noon.
And you and I
Would make a lovers' picnic in a nook
By some deep runnel, that carves out his way
Among the naked roots of giant trees
Darkening up above,—ancient until
The wonder of the centuries of Man
Seems as a child's.
Then while the shredded light
Twinkled about the gloom of those huge limbs
Circling us in—then would we sigh and say,
"How good to be in England, just for May!"

'Wild Roses of California' (San Francisco: Robertson) has the same bright coloring with the rest, and the same background of flowers; but it has, beyond most of these books, a touch of human interest, and indeed of Wordsworthian simplicity, in the following (p. 26):

THE MINER'S LITTLE DAUGHTER.

My father dear works in the mines,
Down in the tunnels dark.
I sing so much he often says
I am his "meadow-lark."

Our little cabin on the hill
Is 'mid the tall straight pines,
That seem to whisper all the day
To me about the mines.

I've twined some vines about the door,
I keep the house with care.
My father calls our cabin home
His "castle in the air."

I never put my clean gown on
Till just before our tea,
Because when father first comes home
He's black as black can be.

And when he's coming up the trail,
As soon as him I see,
I fly to meet him, and he leaves
Some black, of course, on me.

The man for whom my father works
Is very rich, I'm told;
For he owns land and houses fine,
And mines just full of gold.

I'm rich, I've treasures in the mines,—
"As good as gold" is he;
It's father, whom I love so well,
My father who loves me.

It is interesting to find our new Finnish fellow-citizens contributing like their predecessors to American literature, as in the very interesting and promising little volume 'English Lyrics of a Finnish Harp,' by Herman Montague Donner (Boston: Badger). The increasing interchange between English-speaking nations as regards authors and commercial houses threatens, however, to make local coloring in literature a thing of the past. Here, for instance, is a volume of 'Poems' by Mary Olcott (John Lane). It is dedicated "to Nora Duff in England," with a Greek motto. One of the poems has a title in Greek characters, others are translated from French, and, in short, there is not enough of local coloring in the whole book to show where the poems, as a whole, were written. There is much of thought and beauty in it, but the Prelude leaves it more perplexing than all the rest put together:

"I hide within my book till eyes
Which draw my own shall look and read;
Others may look, yet give no heed:
The printed word has no surprise
For alien eyes.

"Whoever reads, save only one,
May read. But one alone shall find
The impress of the hidden mind,
Uttering speech where speech is none
For but the one."

A fortunate woman is the English Lady Lindsay, who gives herself and others each year a new and happy enjoyment. This year's book is entitled 'A Christmas Posy' (London: Kegan Paul). This author is one of a class, never abundant, now diminishing, who can sing at Christmas tide, each year, a fresh supply of simple Christmas lays or Noels of many lands, and especially from the bewitching old Provençal dialect-lays. The following (p. 50) is, however, an imitation, not a translation, and its cadence is singularly suggestive of William Blake:

IN A GARDEN WILD.

There is a garden,
A garden wild,
And in it wanders
A little child.

The angels are fraying
A path for His feet,
And high in the branches
The birds sing sweet.

And who can know
How His heart may yearn,
Or who can see
What His eyes discern?

But Mary is calling:
"Come home, my son;
The shadows are falling,
The day is done."

'This is for You: Love Poems of the Saner Sort,' selected by William Sinclair Lord (Revell), ranges from Tennyson to Phœbe Cary, and has a little tone of mediocrity, while gathering in some pieces undeservedly neglected, like John Moultrie's 'Forget Thee' (p. 58). The title is the poorest part; the contents are valuable, and singularly free from misprints or undesirable readings.

Mr. Frederic Lawrence Knowles has boldly printed a volume of four hundred pages called 'A Treasury of Humorous Poetry' (Boston: Estes), containing but an unusually small proportion of mere buffoonery like the burlesque on Wordsworth (p. 16) and that on Tennyson (p. 19). Allowing for a few such exceptions, this is the best book of the kind we have ever seen, and the selection and the notes do credit to one of the most discriminating of our younger literary men.

## CIVIL WAR FICTION, AND OTHER.

*Gabriel Tolliver.* By Joel Chandler Harris. McClure, Phillips & Co.

*Bayard's Courier.* By B. K. Benson. Macmillan.

*Aladdin O'Brien.* By Gouverneur Morris. The Century Co.

*Wanted, a Chaperon.* By Paul Leicester Ford. Dodd, Mead & Co.

*Condensed Novels.* By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*The Splendid Idle Forties.* By Gertrude Atherton. Macmillan.

*Barbara Ladd.* By Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: L. C. Page & Co.

*No Other Way.* By Sir Walter Besant. Dodd, Mead & Co.

During the last quarter of a century the civil war has been the most popular and profitable source of inspiration for writers of American fiction. Every great battle and almost every skirmish has had its celebrant, and the emotions of participants in the struggle have been discussed, analyzed, torn to tatters by gifted children both of the North and of the South. The quality of this fiction is various, ranging from excellent to worthless. The very best was contributed by half a dozen Southern writers, among them Mr. Harris, in the form of short stories written during the eighties. These writers grew up in the dismal years immediately following the war, and they spoke for their people, spoke of their heroism, their suffering and sorrows, in a most touching and surprisingly artistic fashion. The worst of the "war fiction" has been written in the last five or six years, by persons who fall back on memories that are dim and emotions long outworn; and by other, more reprehensible persons who seem to think that emotion and imagination can be supplied by a course of what they are pleased to call historical research.

Mr. Harris's 'Gabriel Tolliver' is a volume of the reminiscent sort. Regarded as a novel, it is very poor work, rambling, shuffling; indeed, without characterization, form, or style. From a passage in the "prelude" we gather that the prelude was an afterthought, meant to declare that the author knows the book to be careless and tedious and unimpressive, and that he is proud of all that. We do not understand such pride, but we feel that it is distinctly not creditable. As a confession of incapacity for a task undertaken, the task of writing a novel, the following passage is incomparable:

"Let those who can do so continue to import harmony and unity into their fabrications and call it art. Whether it be art or artificiality, the trick is beyond my power. I can only deal with things as they were; on many occasions they were far from what I would have had them to be; but as I was powerless to change them, so am I powerless to twist individuals and events to suit the demands or necessities of what is called art."

Perhaps with such original notions of what art is, it would be quite impossible to do anything even remotely artistic; therefore we should perhaps congratulate Mr. Harris on not having tried for art. Besides this pearl of reflection, the "prelude" includes an African legend, the legend of Dilly Bal, a gentleman who sweeps the cobwebs out of the skies. This legend is beautifully told—we would say "most artistically rendered," if it were not for the fear of hurting Mr. Harris's feelings.

'Bayard's Courier,' a long, long narrative of the civil war, from the Southern side, is, without doubt, a flower of historical research. Its genesis is attested by footnotes and maps and a generous sprinkling of dates. The greater part of the matter of this work we are incompetent to criticise. Properly to declare its worth, one would have to know minutely the local history of the war, the topography of several States, and to have at least a good general view of astronomy. The author's knowledge of the position and occupation of several of the heavenly bodies at a given moment about forty years ago especially gives to his novel that air of belonging to the literature of knowledge that removes

it from the jurisdiction of the reviewer of fiction.

The heroes of the novel are twins, separated in youth, and each, in manhood, called to fight for his country, one attaching the idea of patriotism to the North and the other to the South. These twins, known in the army as Junior Morgan and Sergeant Morgan, are unknown to each other, and are always riding across country, bearing important dispatches. It is in describing these rides that the author shows off his astronomical lore:

"The country was open," he says. "The stars were out—in front of Junior shone Arcturus and at his right rear Capella. Seney could see the Pleiades hanging over Frederick, and southward the Bowman, while in the zenith over all the three was Vega, shining peacefully—in the zenith for Jackson and Miles at Harper's Ferry, in Longstreet's zenith at Hagerstown, and overhead of Franklin at Crampton's Pass—shining peacefully on every enemy; peacefully for McClellan back behind Frederick, for Lincoln sleepless in Washington, and for Davis far away from tidings of the Southern army. Men must strive and the impartial stars must shine."

Capella shining at Junior's "right rear" is a fine touch; the fact gives a sort of *cachet* of exact study, and the phrase has a military ring. Though we may not impugn Mr. Benson's knowledge, we may dissent from his wisdom as expressed in aphorism. Possibly the stars must shine, (though nobody can tell what they are doing on cloudy nights), but it is not always true that man must strive, especially without reference to his chance of success in the striving. Mr. Benson, for instance, should not have striven to write a novel—he has no natural gift for novel-writing and no acquired skill. Of course he might have been all right if he had striven to write a history or geography or astronomy.

There are some good things in the tale of Aladdin O'Brien, odd bits of character and scene taken from life, well observed, and imaginatively described. The chapters concerning Aladdin's early relations with the family of Senator St. John, his residence with the excellent Widow Brackett, and his determination to become a writer (preferably a poet), promise an interesting development of character. But Mr. Morris apparently cannot write long from the inside out; and here, as in his first story, 'Tom Beaulieu,' his characterization goes to pieces, and Aladdin sinks to the conventional hero of fast-following adventures. Mr. Morris appears to have "got up" the civil war, especially the battle of Gettysburg, with exemplary thoroughness, but the moment chosen to unload his information is not opportune. What his readers want is a thorough representation of the heart and soul of Aladdin O'Brien, and the most thrilling adventure offered in place of that is but dust and ashes. Yet, in spite of obvious defects, Mr. Morris's work is very interesting. It has sincerity and aspiration, and unmistakable though uneven literary quality. The language is occasionally too independent of precedent. Is it good American to write, "Mr. Bispham absurded," "self-centration," "Claire was a little party"? Is it likely that an eminent Senator's daughter, even at a tender age, would say, "I oughtn't to *of* come," "I know you *done* your best"?

'Wanted, a Chaperon,' by the late Paul Leicester Ford, is an elaborately decorated work. There are several illustrations drawn by Mr. Christy and others, and colored by process. Both drawing and coloring celebrate the mighty dressmaker of the young lady who needed, rather than wanted, a chaperon. Besides these full-page splendors, there are marginal decorations which enclose the text like a frame, and these decorations include many devices—bottles and ribbons and unnatural flowers and monograms. The story is trivial, and does not distract attention from the revelation of the possibilities of printing.

The last volume to appear with Bret Harte's name on the title-page contains half a dozen burlesques of contemporary authors. They are not inferior to a volume of the same sort of stuff written by him many years ago; therefore they will be acceptable to persons whose sense of humor is gratified by exaggeration and frolicsome distortion of names and epithets. A few of the sketches are very funny—funny enough to make Mr. Kipling or Mr. Hope laugh, but not Mr. Hall Caine.

We cannot but fear that Mrs. Atherton's dream of the splendor (if not the idleness) of California in the forties is too comprehensively *couleur de rose*. Even fifty or sixty years ago the earth was aging and a little weary, and we find it difficult to believe that between the Sierras and the sea there lay a happy valley where life was all passion and costume and scenic effect. Nevertheless, there was enough of a now vanished picturesqueness to excite the fancy of a story-teller, and Mrs. Atherton's fancy is exuberant. Moreover, she has an instinct for melodrama and heroics, so her action and people admirably fit the scene. All the stories are romantic, and a certain monotony of impression may be escaped by reading only one every week or month.

One-half of Mr. Roberts's 'Barbara Ladd' is given to her childhood, and most of that half to her attempt to evade the guardianship of her uncongenial maiden aunt. The sorrows of childhood are always touching, but, set forth at length in print, they come to bore maturity, and even to defeat the chronicler's object by forcing the conclusion that the child under discussion was responsible for the sorrows—was, indeed, a bad child. Barbara, however, is never a real child, never a real woman, but always a conventional heroine of the impulsive, emotional type. The whole romance is most correctly of a literary convention. The principal characters, who are of Southern extraction, live in a small Connecticut village during the period of the Revolution. Their minds, their manners, their habits, and speech differentiate them from real people of any country or time, most conspicuously from any conceivable New Englanders of the later eighteenth century. They are all figments of the romancer, who industriously strives to undermine American common-sense, to persuade the nation that its ancestors were persons of the highest distinction, and that they preserved in the wilderness and through generations of common and rude conditions the customs of an aristocracy and the speech and manners of a needy playwright's prince. Mr. Roberts's tale is not any worse than the majority of Revolutionary romances. It is indeed somewhat better than most, for it has passages that breathe the freshness and fragrance of the woods and waters, and, except for the pompous, ridiculous dialogue, is written in good, unaffected English.

Sir Walter Besant was familiar (fluently, almost fatally familiar) with the history of his country, and with the strange things that might be done under the protection of her laws. In his last book, 'No Other Way,' he describes the pathetical situation of a young widow of the eighteenth century, who could not pay her honest debts, and who therefore went to prison and married a negro, of gigantic stature and awful aspect, under sentence of death. Legally, the husband assumed the lady's debts, and so she cheated her creditors and would henceforth have been free as a bird, and happy, if the negro had not cheated the hangman and lived to seek his bride. Every conceivable inconvenience resulting from the negro's selfish behavior is set forth, and an ingenious way out at last discovered. One telling of the tale would be really interesting, but it is all told several times by different people in slightly changed phrases. Perhaps the author did not revise his work, and should not be held responsible for such repetition, though he numbered among those worthy gentleman too frequently intoxicated with their own verbosity. The novel on the whole does not discredit his reputation, which, except when associated with Mr. Rice, was never a reputation to be injured by a book that expresses a genial temper and an otherwise harmless mediocrity.

## CHILDREN'S BOOKS—II.

Happy the boy or girl who shall receive as Christmas gift 'The Book of Romance,' of Andrew Lang's editing, always provided such recipient can keep the book from predestined parental monopoly. The Tales of the Round Table, the Stories of Roland, of Robin Hood, of Diarmid, and other racial fairy-tales are given in the best way, keeping close to original sources. Mrs. Lang has written all but one of them, and H. J. Ford has most understandingly illustrated them with full-page drawings, in colors, and in black and white; the whole a beautiful volume from the house of Longmans, Green & Co. Pleasant, also, for both young and old is Paul du Chaillu's account of his journey to King Mombo's African kingdom, and of his adventures with his friendly band of native huntsmen, among forest creatures, gorillas, elephants, and lesser jungle folk. The illustrations, by Victor Perard, help to bring the ways of African man and beast vividly to view. Charles Scribner's Sons are the publishers. From the Macmillan Company comes another good story for youth, 'Pickett's Gap,' by Homer Greene, with illustrations of a most agreeable sort by J. Rosenmeyer. The story deals with the staking out of a railroad by two rival companies, and the part played in connection with it by a boy over whose grandfather's acres the railroad is to go. D. Appleton & Co. publish 'Jacks of All Trades,' by Katharine Newbold Birdsall, with attractively drawn illustrations in colors (*i. e.*, black and white with occasional red spots) by Walter Russell, and with many expressive little outline sketches by E. S. Truman scattered through the text. The story is about a family of children who turned to account their various abilities for practical work, in order to help the family finances. The note of the small child is a little forced

here and there, and the love interest of the book is too large for its age. But on the whole the story is pleasing and sound, will hold the youthful interest, and, perhaps, suggest sources of usefulness.

'The Other Boy,' by Evelyn Sharp, with illustrations by Henry Sandham (Macmillan), tells how a delicate, clever lad came to live in a family of such boisterously bumptious children that we rub our eyes, asking: "Can this be England?" Having accustomed ourselves, however, to their squabbles, to their calling Miss Nibbins, their favorite governess, "Nibs," and to their father's having much their own style of manners, we perceive that their hearts are meant to be and mainly are in the right places, and we decide that the story will undoubtedly interest young readers, while it will prove harmless if accompanied by a judicious amount of corrective commentary. 'Miss Lochinvar,' by Marion Ames Taggart, illustrated by W. L. Jacobs and Bayard F. Jones (Appletons), is a story for girls, and makes good if rather protracted reading, though with a trend toward the fault of causing all the graces and virtues to centre in one girl. An attractive girl she undeniably is, bringing out of the West heavy batteries of charm and unselfishness to the conversion and regeneration of an unruly family of New York cousins. She makes the baby behave well at table, she brings together the father and the incommunicative son; reconstructs the mammon-loving daughter, wins the tennis match, rescues the ill-treated street dog, and is, indeed, in continual evidence as a saving angel of grace. The story is not exaggerated as such stories go, and it is fitted to attract and interest girls; but we look askance at books where one young person is wiser and better than all other persons of all ages. The chorus of her praises is too deafening.

From A. C. McClurg & Co. comes 'Little Mistress Good Hope,' by Mary Imlay Taylor, with a tasteful frontispiece in colors, and prettily designed illustrations in black and white, touched with greenish blue, all by Jessie Willcox Smith. This is a book of pixy stories, the little creatures being helpful to good children and properly malicious and spiteful toward abbots and tax-gatherers. In the interest of perfect taste and appropriateness, it might have been well to omit the scene of the abbot's frivolous conduct under the influence of a pixy swallowed alive. Incidental pictures of England in her old and merrie times accompany the more serious business of fairy tricks.

R. H. Russell publishes in a handsome volume Richard Le Gallienne's 'Mr. Sun and Mrs. Moon,' a set of so-called children's verses with large full-page illustrations, made in a quaint, interesting fashion. A few of the verses will catch the ear of childhood, a few the understanding. Others are of childhood as contemplated by a grown-up imagination, charmingly tender here, but freakish there, and not above reproach in the matter of rhythm.

'Miss Muffet's Christmas Party,' by Samuel McChord Crothers, with illustrations by Olive M. Long (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), may worthily stand on the bookshelf that holds 'Alice in Wonderland.' Here is nonsense with distinction, full of nourishment for the children who know their classics in fairy lore, moral tale, and fable. We should say that it would be a favorite proportionately to the young reader's previous bringing up in the way he should go. As to parents, uncles and aunts, a rare flavor of delicate wit shall be their happy portion over and above the children's delight in this choice little book, with its illustrations near of kin to the story in attractiveness.

'The Outlook Story-Book for Little People,' edited by Laura Winnington and published by the Outlook Company, is cheerfully bound, handsomely printed, and illustrated with drawings and photographs of a high order of merit. It is much to say of fifty-seven contributions in prose and rhyme that the greater number are really suitable for "Little People." If here and there a story may be too complex in idea or expression, it is almost invidious to say it when so many are what they should be—short, natural, or naturally impossible, ranging from fairyland to the homes of squirrels and tree-toads. The book is one to be welcomed and desired.

'The Making of a Girl,' by Eva Lovett (J. F. Taylor & Co.), a series of informal chats between an aunt and a Mollie, contains good counsel for girls in their teens as to motives and standards. The attitude is one of sympathy and good sense, and the advice given is both high-minded and practical. It may seem to the reader that a few of the maxims are open to misinterpretation. For instance, in a chapter on Reticence, the dictum, "Never tell the *whole* of the story you are telling, nor speak out your *entire* thought on any matter," might prove misleading to the youthful intelligence, which is apt to fall upon the rule and miss the principle. The book may be classed with the season's helpful literature.

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*Cross Country with Horse and Hounds.* By Frank Sherman Peer. Scribners. 1902.

The author submits an apology, if one be required, in presenting his book as the only one ever published in America on the subject. Strictly speaking, he may be right; but in 1852 there appeared from the pen of that thorough sportsman, the late Henry William Herbert ("Frank Forrester"), a charming little volume entitled 'The Quorndon Hounds.' In the days when shotguns and fine dogs were rarely found in the possession of any but those who went afield because of the sportsman's instinct, and to whom the mere making of big bags was a secondary consideration, Frank Forrester was an authority on all kinds of hunting and shooting. Meantime, the erection of barbed-wire fences has become so general that only here and there can an ideal country now be found. It is true, however, that in near proximity to some very excellent packs which habitually follow the drag, there are counties in Maryland which were regularly hunted in ante-bellum days, and which are now overrun with foxes. The author takes the reader over the course traversed by one unfamiliar with the hunting field. First, a glossary of hunting words and phrases is followed by dissertations on the conformation, breeding, schooling, and purchase of hunters. The author naïvely remarks that he now rejects many theories which a few years ago were considered true gospel, and suspects that in as many years hence he may repudiate some things which he now asserts with much assurance. This frank admission may make it pardonable to take issue with the author now without waiting for the lapse of time and the mellowing influence of years to bring about a modification of his views.

In several instances he attacks generally accepted views; he may be right, but his reasoning is not conclusive. In fixing upon a standard of conformation, the author opposes the demand for "sloping shoulders," and does not seem to appreciate the reasons for requiring that a saddle-horse or hunter shall not have an upright shoulder. Technical reasons based upon scientific principles may be readily found for this. Elevated withers, not too high and thin, are usually accompanied by sloping shoulders and a rather deep chest; the parts are not absolutely dependent upon each other, and therefore exceptions may be found to this rule. Horses with such conformation are better adapted to saddle purposes than the horse with upright shoulders. If the shoulder-blade is long, broad, and well-sloped, the saddle will rest properly in its place; while if it be short and upright the saddle will have a tendency to work forward on the withers. Horses with upright shoulders are usually rough under the saddle. The author's difficulty in placing himself in the ranks of those who advocate the "slanting shoulder" seems to be that he has rather ill-defined ideas as to what constitutes a sloping shoulder. He presents an illustration of upright shoulders in Barrett, sired by Bonnie Scotland, the premier stallion of the Belle Meade stud for many years. Judged with the French measuring machine, or by the eye alone, the illustration does not sustain the charge of upright shoulders, nor is the statement borne out by the many descendants of Bonnie Scotland, recently dispersed at the closing-out sale of the Belle Meade horses. The objection to drawn illustrations is that one may distort them and thus become convinced through an erroneous hypothesis. The selection of a hunter or any other class of saddle-horse for one's self is a difficult matter; to select one for a friend is doubly so. Having to all appearances a perfect conformation, a horse may not fit a rider, and there may be some disagreeable feature in his movements which will make him otherwise undesirable.

The author has evidently found much enjoyment in the breeding of horses, but here again he has established some theories from individual experience which are not borne out by the accumulated experience of others. The praise lavished on the balance seat, and the sweeping condemnation of gripping the horse with the legs, puts the author in the light of being bent more on change than improvement. Balance is the most important element of a good seat, but the perfect seat is that derived from a combination of balance, friction, or grip and the use of stirrups. Balance will do as long as everything goes smoothly, but a swerve or plunge must find the legs properly placed to close the thighs and knees quickly, else the rider may get an unnecessary fall. The author makes a strange mistake in writing of "the forked or military seat" as if the terms are synonymous. Again, he says: "The military seat with long stirrup leathers has no place in the hunting-field where there is

jumping to be done." Long stirrup leathers have no place in the hunting-field because they deprive the rider of the chance of properly gripping his horse. The military seat as specified in the cavalry-drill regulations of the regular army and other service text-books does not admit of long stirrup leathers; in fact, it contains all the essential elements of the correct seat as described by the author and shown in his illustration facing page 92. The illustrations will appear to horsemen generally as incorrectly titled, for Nos. 1 and 2 show the seat best adapted for gripping, whereas Nos. 3 and 4 illustrate the "tongs-across-a-wall" seat, in which it is impossible to grip the horse because, with the leg extended, the thigh muscles are rounded instead of being flat or hollowed. If these figures correctly show the ideas of the author as to the balance and grip seat, then by all means let him adhere to his language, but the illustrations are sadly at variance with all accepted nomenclature. In illustrating how a horse should be allowed to gather himself when approaching a fence, the figures explain (opposite page 118) what the author desires to show, but by modern photography and in other ways it has been clearly demonstrated that the horse never takes the extended position presented here.

But while arguing with our author we are missing the companionship of the horse and losing the scent of the fox, which are given separate chapters, followed by the meet, riding to covert, and the hunt dinner. Altogether, the book gives one's nostrils a whiff of Genesee Valley air when the autumn leaves are turning and the crops are laid away. In a country where the going is stiff but the hearts are courageous, we can no longer delay to split hairs concerning technical details, but be off to the covert side where the hounds are drawing and from whence the fox will soon be viewed away with the pack in full cry. Typographically the volume is all that can be desired. The illustrations are artistic, and the colored frontispiece especially pleasing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, Mme. Edmond. The Romance of My Childhood and My Youth. D. Appleton & Co.
Bowen, W. E. Edward Bowen: A Memoir. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Carlyle, Thomas. Sartor Resartus: Heroes: Past and Present. Scribners. $1.25.
De Wet, Christian R. Three Years' War. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Short Tales from Storyland. London: Ernest Nister; New York: Dutton. $1.50.
Fenn, G. M. Stan Lynn: A Boy's Adventure in China. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Gilman, D. C.; Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopædia. Vol. IV. Canadian Balsam—Colenso. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Holmes, C. J. Constable, and his Influence on Landscape Painting. London: Archibald Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $35.
Ingoldsby. Legends of Mirth and Marvels. Illustrated by Herbert Cole. John Lane.
Jenks, Tudor. Gypsy, the Talking Dog. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus Co. $1.
Lang, Andrew. History of Scotland. Vol. II. Edinburgh: Blackwood; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Memoirs of Paul Kruger, Four Times President of the Republic. Told by Himself. The Century Co. $3.50.
Newcomb, Prof. S. Astronomy for Everybody: A Popular Exposition of the Wonders of the Heavens. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Otto, A. F., and Holbrook, T. S. Mythological Japan; or, The Symbolisms of Mythology in Relation to Japanese Art. Philadelphia: Drexel Biddle. $5.
Poole, Reginald L. Anecdota Oxoniensia: Mediæval and Modern Series, Part ix. John Bale's Index of British and Other Writers. Henry Frowde.
Rhoades, Lewis A. Wiedemann's Biblische Geschichten. Henry Holt & Co.
Shepard, F. J. Budd's Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Shute, Henry A. The Real Diary of a Real Boy. Boston: The Everett Press.
Tennyson, Alfred. Poetical Works. Thomas Nelson & Sons.
Wheeler, Candace. How to Make Rugs. Doubleday, Page & Co.


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Are there not many who will gladly, at once, contribute, as God has prospered them, to the building fund of **Bethesda**—the House of Mercy—the Leper Home in Surinam, Dutch Guiana? The Rev. Henry T. Weiss, the superintendent and missionary director, and Mrs. Weiss, are at present in this country in order to appeal to Protestant Christians of every name to assist them in gathering a building fund of **$100,000,** so that all lepers—there are 3,000 in Surinam—may be tenderly nursed and cared for at **Bethesda.** President Roosevelt has lately—day before Thanksgiving—received these devoted missionaries at the White House, and cordially welcomed them on their errand of mercy to the United States. He was most hearty in his greetings, and said, in part: "Mr. Weiss, I am glad to see you here. Tell your people that I am highly interested in your work among the lepers, and that I personally greatly value your efforts. Tell the lepers in Surinam that I think of them, and that my sympathies go out to them." Mr. Weiss replied to these kind words of the President: "My lepers have commissioned me to give their respectful greetings to Father Roosevelt," and Mrs. Weiss added: "And to his whole family." "Thank you! thank you! thank you!" exclaimed President Roosevelt, who showed that he was delighted with the greetings. Contributions for the leper building fund will be most heartily acknowledged, and soul-stirring booklet sent, **"With the Lepers in Surinam,"** written by the wife of the British Consul at Paramaribo. "He gives twice who gives quickly." Address

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 18, 1902.

## The Week.

Events and opinions touching the Venezuelan question are overlying each other so rapidly that the lower stratum of fact is already passing out of sight. The Administration at Washington is blamed in some quarters for entering into any agreement with England and Germany which should recognize their right to coerce an American republic. But the principle upon which our Government has acted is a perfectly sound one, and its present position is unavoidable, unless we are to assume responsibility for the debts and also for the manners and behavior of the Spanish-American countries. No sane person would think of doing so. In order to assume such responsibility, we should have to take possession of the countries themselves and regulate their debts and their manners at the fountain-head. We are not prepared for that at present. Therefore, logically, we must say to other governments, when they have claims or complaints against the countries south of us, "Collect your claims, obtain your satisfaction in your own way, subject to the law of nations which you invoke, but do not make any permanent lodgment on the soil of the offending state." Before anybody blames the Administration, let him say what he would himself have done if he had had charge of public affairs.

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President Schurman had better be careful how he criticises the masterly inactivity of Congress in regard to the Philippines, unless he wishes to hear himself denounced as a "little American," and a traitor. On Thursday night he had the audacity to say that the financial distress in the islands was due solely to "the palpable poltroonery and cowardice of the members of the American Congress." Instead of joining in the cry that the quicker the Filipinos learn English the better for them, he declared "that to insist upon one language in the Philippine Islands is a crime against nature and in defiance of history." Really, this sort of talk would condemn him to a term of at least ten years in a Federal Penitentiary if the Imperialists could sit on his case. Worst of all, President Schurman failed to agree with President Roosevelt that the flag may stay in the Philippines as long as it will in Alaska. Should it stay there after our work is done, the Filipinos, he asserted, would have to be either subjects or citizens of the United States. As if this were not heresy enough, the Chief Signal Officer of the army, Gen. A. W. Greely, made himself a candidate for the retired list by declaring that he never had believed in the war with Spain. The most disgusting part of all this is the evidence it affords that the anti-Imperialists refuse to be bound by repeated official proclamations that they are all dead.

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Mr. Samuel Gompers and a number of gentlemen who are in general sympathy with him on labor questions, have prepared and signed a protest against the recommendations of Prof. J. W. Jenks to the Secretary of War touching Chinese labor in the Philippines. They say that the recommendations, if carried out, would result in a system of coolie labor little better than slavery, and that they would also expose the people of the United States, as well as the Filipinos, to the danger of a degradation of labor and a lowering of the standard of living. They contend further that the avowed object of these recommendations, which is to promote the exploitation of the islands by American and European capitalists, is not a sufficient offset to the evils which Chinese contract labor brings in its train. Professor Jenks is a pretty good authority on economic questions, and he has studied this particular subject on the ground. At the same time it must be said that the economic question is not the foremost one to be considered in this case. The first consideration here should be the happiness of the people to whom the country belongs, the Filipinos—upon which there is, no doubt, much to be said pro and con. The second is the kind of moral teaching which the United States gives to its own people, and to the world, when it lays down rules for immigration, for contract labor, and kindred matters. And here we have to confess that Professor Jenks's plan, with its prohibitions and restrictions on the free movement of Chinese laborers after their admission to the Philippines, is repulsive to American ideas of freedom and individuality, and ought to be promptly rejected by Congress.

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In his recent communication to the *Evening Post*, the Pension Commissioner, Mr. Ware, asked the aid of that newspaper in opposing the bestowal of pensions upon men convicted of infamous crimes. He also called its attention "to the propriety of making a fight upon the joint resolution of July 1, 1902, which was a bill to pension the deserters of both armies." Mr. Ware's opposition is the more praiseworthy because this joint resolution became a law entirely by the signature of Mr. Ware's chief, Theodore Roosevelt. The "hero of San Juan Hill," in stump speeches, messages, etc., has read us so many sermons on the vicious influence of the craven and the weakling that we can explain his action only on the ground that he did not read the bill when it was presented to him. It consists of only a few lines, and provides that, in the administration of the pension laws, any one who was honorably discharged from his *last* contract of service "shall be held and considered to have been honorably discharged from all similar contracts of service." He may have deserted a dozen times from Confederates or Federals, and been the most conscienceless "bounty-jumper" in the army, but if he stayed six months in the service the last time he enlisted, he is to be pensioned along with the man who served from Sumter to Appomattox! That Mr. Roosevelt could have approved this law knowingly is impossible of belief, and he should join in the demand for its repeal.

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At the National Reciprocity Convention at Detroit last week, Gov. Cummins of Iowa spoke like a man having solid ground under his feet and a firm backing among his constituents. "Tariff schedules," he said, "like other laws, are to be made, unmade, and remade according to public needs, and we are not to be warned off by the statement that we are on holy ground and that the sacred vestments of the priests are not to be touched by profane hands." He denied that it was necessary to change the whole tariff because a part of it needed to be changed. That notion was the refuge of two classes of do-nothings—"those who want to perpetuate something which they know would be condemned under impartial investigation, and the timid souls who would rather not vote at all than vote right or wrong." An opportunity is close at hand for the Republican party to divide into the two classes named by Gov. Cummins. The treaty of reciprocity with Newfoundland has been signed and transmitted to the Senate for ratification. It is the act of the present Republican Administration. It is also a repetition or revival of the Blaine-Bond treaty negotiated by a former Republican Secretary of State. It admits to our ports, free of duty, salted fish, fish oil, sealskins, and the ores and metals of Newfoundland, in return for which our fishermen have certain privileges in the ports of Newfoundland, and the admission free of duty of a long list of American manufactures, with reduced duties on cereals and provisions. To this treaty it is said that the New England Senators are firmly opposed, because it puts on the free list salt codfish, which is a product of New England industry. Their attitude gives point to Gov. Cummins's speech, and we shall soon see whether

the whole Republican party is to divide on the lines which he drew so graphically at Detroit.

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The lecture on Trusts delivered by Judge Grosscup of the United States Circuit Court, at the University of Nebraska, is noteworthy in two particulars. It is the opinion of a judge who has had a considerable amount of Trust litigation to deal with on the bench, and it is that the Sherman Anti-Trust Act is non-enforceable and ought to be repealed. Repeal of that act, he says, lies at the foundation of any effectual anti-Trust law. The reason why he thinks so is that it proceeds upon a false theory that the Trusts should be uprooted instead of regulated. So far are we from uprooting them that one hundred new Trusts have been created since the Sherman act went on the statute-book. This is certainly something like a demonstration of the futility of that act. Judge Grosscup would substitute in place of it one which would "provide against artificial prices, brought about either by a cornering of the supply or by conspiracy, and also against discrimination in prices as to either buyers or places. There should be provision for open books, for stated examinations by some department of the Government, and for periodical statements to the public, as in the case of the national banks and many of the railway companies. The new legislation should forbid the issue of primary stock in excess of the cash paid in, or the real value of property contributed, to make up the company's assets. Some department of the Government should be charged—as between the company and the public—with the duty to see that this limitation was enforced." This is a summary in brief of the Littlefield bill, and it cannot fail to strengthen that measure in the minds of Congressmen; but whether it will have the soothing influence which the Judge anticipates on the relations of labor and capital is more doubtful.

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The meeting of the Civic Federation came to an end on December 10, and Chairman Hanna took occasion in the closing speech to praise the bituminous coal miners for standing by their contract and continuing work last summer, when they were asked to join the anthracite miners in a sympathetic strike. Mr. Hanna considered this a crucial test of the good faith of organized labor, and he congratulated the country on that notable event, but it is notorious that the success of the anthracite strike depended upon the bituminous miners keeping at work and contributing a certain percentage of their earnings to the strikers. This was made clear by President Mitchell's speech at the bituminous miners' convention at Indianapolis, July 17, which he concluded with a series of resolutions on the financial side of the question. These embraced an appropriation of $50,000 at once from the treasury of the United Mine Workers, an assessment of one dollar per week on all members of local unions, and an appeal to all trade-unions and the general public for financial assistance, which resolutions were wisely adopted. What would have been the consequences of a sympathetic strike in the bituminous mines at that time? Not only would the anthracite miners have been without bread, but the bituminous miners would soon have been in the same plight, and the other trade-unions, nine-tenths of which were dependent on coal for their respective industries, would have been disabled in like manner. Mr. Hanna, as a bituminous coal operator, would have been crippled also, and prevented from lending aid to the anthracite workers even if he had been disposed to do so. We do not underestimate Mr. Mitchell's service in preventing a large body of excited men from taking a step disastrous to themselves and to the public, but we think that we are now far enough removed from that event to clear our minds of cant.

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We learn from Indianapolis that the members of Local Assembly 300, Knights of Labor, which is the labor organization of window-glass workers, has a rule limiting the total amount of glass which can be made in a month, and that the President of this Assembly, Mr. Burns, has either rescinded or relaxed it. The members have refused to obey Mr. Burns's order, and a new candidate for the presidency of the Assembly has taken the field against him, with every prospect of success. The reason for limiting the production of glass is to keep the price of the article up to the possible limit of the duty on imported glass under all circumstances. The duty is about 100 per cent. ad valorem; that is, the American consumer of window glass must pay two prices for every pane he buys. But this is not the whole story. From the *Knights of Labor Journal*, November issue, we learn not only that this fraud on the consumers has been accomplished, but that an outrage of equal magnitude has been perpetrated upon all the glass-blowers of the country who are not members of Local Assembly No. 300. These are only 2,400 in number. They do not allow anybody but themselves to engage in the trade except with their permission, and in no event without paying an initiation fee of several hundred dollars. So tyrannous and exasperating has this monopoly become that a bill is to be introduced in Congress, under the auspices of the Knights of Labor, to put window glass on the free list.

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A copy of the bill is printed in the *Journal*. The argument advanced editorially in favor of it has a familiar sound to our readers. It affirms that no duty on window glass has been needed in this country for purposes of protection these many years. It says that the effect of the exorbitant duty has been to enable the manufacturers to become sluggards, to take things easy, and to lag behind other countries in the technicalities of the art. If they had made proper use of the opportunities which nature has thrown in their way, instead of relying upon the artificial supports of the tariff, they might have distanced competition in foreign trade and commanded the markets of the world. The tariff on window glass is computed by weight, according to sizes. If the glass be not more than ten by fifteen inches square, the duty is 1⅜ cents per pound, and it rises to 4⅜ cents per pound for sizes exceeding forty by sixty inches square. Common window glass of the ordinary sizes, worth $1.50 to $2 per box in a free market, costs the American consumer $3 to $4 per box, and the restrictions on the output in this country are such that an enlarged demand coming upon the market cannot be supplied. Consequently, there is an importation of 300,000 to 400,000 boxes per year which might be made at home if the shackles of the Trust were thrown off. And yet we are told that the tariff has very little connection with Trusts, and that any meddling with the duties will bring destruction upon the "small producer." Is there any smaller producer of glass than the compound window-glass Trust?

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It was doubtless an agreeable duty which the National Civil Service Reform League performed at Philadelphia in giving to President Roosevelt the praise which is his due for the general excellence of his appointments to office, and for his enforcement and strengthening of the civil-service laws. The discomfiture of the spoilsmen at his hands, in the matter of the permanent census office, was a great stroke for reform, of which the full merit will be visible when the new order of things goes into effect on January 1. The resolutions adopted by the League on Friday call for further steps in advance, one of them being the long-delayed reform of our consular system. President Roosevelt's message endorsed the plan of bringing consular appointments and promotions under the merit system, and asked Congress to pass a law compelling it. The League favors such legislation, but also, adopting a suggestion of Mr. Schurz's, calls upon the President to put the new system in force by Executive order, if Congress refuses to act. That he has the Constitutional power to do so cannot be questioned. "The President shall appoint"; and he may, if he pleases, say that he shall appoint only those consuls who prove themselves best fitted by competitive examination. It is well enough to urge Congress to move first; but if

this particular reform fails, the responsibility will rest ultimately upon the President. He has the power to inaugurate it on his own motion. We hope to see him do it.

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Postmaster-General Payne and Surveyor Clarkson are evidently having a lively time of it making sure that the Southern delegates do not get away from President Roosevelt. Both of these experienced political managers are reported to have been on the verge of desperation the other day, and to have averted a calamitous result only by prompt and vigorous means. It came about in connection with a North Carolina postmastership contest. Negro Republicans, in Washington to see about the appointment, were looking sullen over a report that the advice of Senator Simmons, a Democrat, had been asked by the President. Manager Payne saw that this would never do, so he engineered an "administrative intimation" that Senator Simmons's interference was regarded as an impertinence. This comforted the negroes, but drove Senator Simmons into fury. He prepared a typewritten speech, in which he was to "disclose" his relations with the Administration. But Manager Payne was equal to the occasion. He sent for Senator Pritchard and hurried him off to the Senate to stop the speech. Pritchard arrived and found his colleague, typewritten sheets in hand, ready for the onslaught, but was successful in making him die with all his music in him. Meanwhile, Surveyor Clarkson made a "flying trip" to Washington and "talked matters over" with the President. For the moment, everybody is breathing more easily; but it was a narrow escape.

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All friends of good city government will rejoice that the retirement of Col. Partridge furnishes the Mayor an opportunity to have the Police Department thoroughly overhauled. The one explicit mandate of the voters at the last municipal election was that such a reform be had, by root-and-branch methods, if necessary. Now that the Department has been freed from a demonstrated failure, the field is clear for the selection of a new head who shall have the needed physical and mental vigor, the power to enforce rigid discipline, and the capacity to make himself a terror to evil-doers on and off the force. A Commissioner of Police of that type may yet retrieve the whole situation, and make the outlook for the continuance of a reform city government after next year entirely different. We confidently count upon Mayor Low's zeal in finding such a man. He simply must be found, and the work must be done. Everybody will be ready to let bygones be bygones, and heartily uphold the hands of the Administration if it only puts an edge on reform, and tireless energy into the rescue of the city from Tammany and all its ways.

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A very estimable woman, high in the councils of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, takes President Roosevelt to task for harboring in the White House Mr. George F. Watts's great picture, "Love and Life." The picture, it may be remembered, was given to the nation by Mr. Watts. At the time there was some anxiety as to the proper disposal of the gift. The picture is one of Watts's finest conceptions, and superior to most of his work in execution. The composition need hardly be recalled to our readers—Life, a frail woman's form steadied along a mountainous pathway by the sturdier figure of Love. Both are nude, and so best express the artist's high thought, which is that love sustains when otherwise the path of life were too difficult to be trod. This is what a normal person of no extraordinary discernment would see in Mr. Watts's beautiful allegory. We presume that this is what President Roosevelt, the temporary custodian of this work of art, sees in it. Of course, it is possible to see it in another light. To the well-intentioned woman who has assumed the charge of the President's artistic morals, it is: "A nude woman going up a cliff in a high wind." There is an appalling truthfulness in this description, and if "Love and Life" were no more than that, we might adopt the plan of that exceptionally chaste century, the seventeenth, which employed painters to clothe the glorious nudities of the Renaissance.

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It is a very barren victory that the German Government has won in passing the tariff bill; in fact, many friends of the present order see in the bill itself, and in the manner in which it was forced through the Reichstag, the beginning of industrial distress and of political disorder. The Government has asked for "a weapon" against commercial rivals—a tariff schedule so high that all who trade with Germany must sue for concessions—and now it has a weapon with a vengeance. The tariff schedules, as amended out of all semblance to their original conditions by the Agrarians, are so excessive that the *Vossische Zeitung* questions seriously if they can ever be put into effect. Of course, the case of the Government was surrendered when the Chancellor, contrary to his own protestations, accepted a prohibitive duty on barley for malting purposes. He does well to refuse the hollow offer of a prince's title for his services in passing such a bill. He must realize that, at the cost of surrender, any bill can be passed. It is a high price the Government is paying for the Kaiser's canal and naval projects, and the Chancellor has no more reason to expect fidelity in his Agrarian allies for the future than he has found moderation in the past.

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More unfortunate than the victory of the German squirearchy or the grotesque tariff bill itself, is the manner in which that measure has been passed. It will raise the price of food for every workman in the German mills, it will strike at the export trade which has made Germany a prosperous manufacturing nation, it will have a tendency to bring distress upon all those not engaged in agriculture. In view of these facts, the refusal to hear the minority—the representatives of the classes most likely to be injured by the bill—was wholly indefensible. The majority had, to be sure, the pretext of suppressing deliberate obstruction; but the pretext was a flimsy one. Violent obstruction by the Social Democrats was used only against the extraordinary proposal to pass the tariff bill *en bloc*, without debate of its separate sections. It was a measure of self-defence, and, in essence, less disorderly than the gag rule of the Agrarian-National-Liberal majority. The surrender of the Government to the Agrarians and its oppression of the Socialist and Radical minority seem an excessive price to pay for a very bad tariff. The ulterior effects of the whole incident can only be to increase class prejudice in Germany, and ultimately to strengthen the anti-dynastic parties.

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What would have been one of the wonders of the world a century ago was completed on December 10, when the great dam of the Nile at Assuan was formally opened. Not only is it one of the greatest engineering feats of modern times, but it bids fair to be one of the most beneficent public works undertaken by any modern Government. Completed a year before the contract time, the actual construction of this great reservoir has taken but little more than four years. It makes navigation to Wady Halfa possible throughout the year by means of a canal around the cataract. But its main object is to prevent loss of the crops and a consequent famine by storing sufficient water to supply the irrigation canals, even when the Nile flood fails to bring down its rich silt to the tillers of the soil. More than that, the reservoir will make two crops a year possible, one in winter and one in summer, and this system of double crops is counted on to make Egypt in time one of the richest countries of the world, in proportion to its area and population. No work that England has done for the natives in any of its foreign possessions surpasses its achievements in Egypt. The excellence of its administration in the Nile country is, indeed, the one justification of its failure to keep its solemn pledge to evacuate the country.

*THE COERCION OF VENEZUELA.*

Anomalous and instructive features of the attempt of Germany and Great Britain to collect by force a few thousand dollars from Venezuela, crowd the daily dispatches. We have, in the first place, a revival of that sorry fiction of international law, the "pacific blockade." Neither England nor Germany has declared war against Venezuela. Their joint forces have simply committed acts of war while calling it peace. A blockade is of itself an act of war, and will surely result in war if the country against which it is directed is strong enough to resent it. Certainly, the capture and sinking of the public vessels of Venezuela is the deed of a belligerent, however stoutly he may protest his peaceful and even benevolent motives. The fact that there was an inevitably *bouffe* aspect about the seizure of the Venezuelan warships does not alter its essential nature. It is probably true that never before was an entire squadron captured by men in small boats; but it was a warlike act, despite its absurd appearance, and President Castro is quite right in asserting that England and Germany have made war upon him without declaration or notification.

The obvious truth is, that this whole notion of "pacific blockade" depends upon a denial of that fundamental postulate of international law, that all nations are legally equal and have the same rights. Military demonstrations and blockades are devices to overawe and coerce the weak. Ashamed to say that they have gone to war with so feeble a nation as Venezuela, the allied Powers engage in war, but call it peace. There have been, of course, many instances in which fleets of strong countries have blockaded the ports and coasts of the weak. Greece and Portugal in the Old World, Brazil and Mexico in the New, have been so blockaded. But the practice was specifically condemned by the Institut de Droit International in 1874, and is now generally admitted to be only an attempt to make an act of war smell sweeter by giving it another name. Woolsey puts the case tersely. When it is sought, he says, to add to the doctrine of an effective blockade and of a paper or cabinet blockade the doctrine of a pacific blockade, "we have this singular state of things offered to us: the nation injured and the neutrals declaring that there is war, the nation using the violence, that there is not. Surely a state of peace can never involve such contradictions."

That the Venezuelan authorities were fully justified in declaring that war had been levied against them is, therefore, unquestionable. International law as well as common sense has no patience with the pretence that hostilities can be labelled peaceful. But President Castro was himself guilty of a grave breach of the law of nations in seizing the persons of all British and German subjects upon whom he could lay his hands. This was to act as Napoleon did, but without Napoleon's ability to back up his decrees by force. On the strict theory of war, all subjects of the enemy would be regarded as liable to be treated as prisoners of war; but the practice and consent of civilized nations—that is, international law—admit of no such rigors. The severest treatment now allowed is to notify foreigners that they must leave the country within a given time. Accordingly, our Minister in Caracas, in whose hands German and British interests had been temporarily placed, was but doing his duty, and acting wholly within his rights, in going to President Castro to demand the instant release of the German and British civilians who had been arrested. Had not the demand been complied with, Venezuela would have had to be regarded as outside the pale of civilized nations.

The next step on the part of the allies was warlike enough. No one can read the account of the cannonading of the forts at Puerto Cabello—especially the correspondence and narration of the facts preliminary to it—without getting a very bad impression. In a situation which was, in any aspect of it, exceedingly delicate, the naval officers concerned acted like a pair of hot-heads dealing with Ashantees or Abyssinians. The action which they so impetuously resented was plainly the work of an irresponsible mob, and the proper official apology was actually on its way to them when they opened fire. It was an unfortunate business, in whatever way it be looked at, and illustrates again the perpetual hazard to which a Government exposes itself when it begins to dally with war. A hare-brained officer may at any moment throw his lighted cigar into the magazine. Then, of course, comes the cry which the German press is already raising—that the national "honor" is involved, and that it is not possible either to disavow the rash act of a subordinate or to retreat from a false position. So true is it still, as it was in Burke's time, that a mistaken sense of "dignity" may drive a nation forward to "wound itself by the use of its own weapons."

The whole affair, it is clear, has not come off according to the expectation of the Foreign Offices in London and Berlin. Venezuela has not collapsed at a show of force. It may even be that President Castro hails this foreign attack as the best means of uniting the factions which have been so long desolating the land with civil war. He has got what Seward wanted Lincoln to try for early in 1861—a foreign war as the sure guarantee against domestic strife. We may see the Venezuelans of both parties fly to arms against the foreign invader, as Guelf and Ghibelline left off their murderous quarrels when a common enemy was at the gate. It is even possible that the high-strung and reckless Venezuelans will carry out their threat of abandoning their ports, tearing up their railways, seizing the mountain-passes that guard the capital, and compelling the Anglo-German forces to dispatch a military expedition. However this may be, we have already seen a demonstration of one of the fallacies by which great armaments are often defended. It is that if you make yourself formidable, you will never really have to go to war, since a weaker nation will tremble at your lightest threat. But the attempted coercion of Venezuela has already shown, what the Boers had before written with their blood, that there is such a thing as an impetuous patriotism which recks not of odds.

So far as this country is concerned, the rôle of an interested but calm observer is clearly the one for us to maintain. If German and British officers on the spot lose their heads, all the more reason for us to keep ours, and to keep them clear of cobwebs. In the mere matter of trade advantage, we can afford to contemplate with entire equanimity the boycott on English and German goods now in full blast in Venezuela. This is likely to spread to adjoining South American republics, and to be a handicap on the commerce of our principal competitors in those parts for a long time to come. It is one of the ugly consequences of the bellicose attempts to uphold German "interests," which has already been pointed out with much force by the newspaper organ of the German Socialists, the *Vorwärts*. A military expedition to collect a debt and to extend trade is about the most wasteful and fruitless expedient known to man. One shell may undo the work of fifty commercial travellers.

In the larger political and international aspect of the Venezuelan affair, it cannot be denied that there is reason for some anxiety at Washington. Our peculiar relation to warlike occurrences in this hemisphere makes it incumbent upon the Administration to proceed with great caution. We have no reason to doubt that the Administration has made the sole application of the Monroe Doctrine which the Venezuelan premises call for. This is, that no permanent occupation of American territory be contemplated. It is understood that our Government has already given and received stipulations to that effect. The assurances of the German and English Foreign Offices on that subject have been semi-officially published. We think it would serve a useful purpose in allaying any possible excitement in Congress and throughout the country, if Secretary Hay were to make an official statement, clearing up all doubts that remain in any mind. Let the point be made plain. All that we are pledged to withstand is territorial acquisitions in this hemisphere

by European Powers. Such we have notified them that they must not make. On that ground alone does the United States take its stand. We may think what we please of the justice or injustice of the claims made on Venezuela. The Monroe Doctrine is silent on that subject. We may feel as deeply as we are compelled to about the lack of tact and consideration which the allied squadrons have displayed. The Monroe Doctrine cannot be invoked against bad manners or brutality. As long as we have guarantees that no permanent occupation of American territory is intended, we can afford to keep perfectly cool about what is going on in Venezuelan waters. Whatever we may privately think about the magnanimity and heroism of it, we are not called upon to change our public attitude of discreet and neutral watchfulness. By adhering firmly to the course already marked out, the Administration should be able to count upon the support of Congress and the country.

### *"GOOD" TRUSTS AND "BAD."*

Mr. Carnegie comes home full of approval for the President's plan of dealing with the Trusts on a moral basis. He is delighted at the thought of Mr. Roosevelt taking the "bad" Trusts on his grandmotherly lap for a public chastisement, while giving the "good" ones lollypops. In this, Mr. Carnegie is at one with Mr. James J. Hill of the Northern Securities Company. That gentleman is quoted in the Chicago *Record-Herald* as gravely endorsing President Roosevelt's "remedy for what are called Trusts." That remedy is "all right," affirmed the President of the Great Northern Railway Company, without a wink—or at least without one visible to the reporter—"assuming that you want to encourage what is good and prevent what is bad."

President Roosevelt's proposals in this line are eminently characteristic. His natural bent is towards moralizing. The late Speaker Reed, with his best air of preternatural innocence, used to speak of Mr. Roosevelt as "our greatest living thinker." He might well have called him our greatest moralist. No one could show more concern about other people's morals than the President does. He has more than his share of Anglo-Saxon "earnestness"—which Walter Bagehot defined as the impulse to go out and take your fellows by the throat in order to compel them to think and act just as you do. Corporations may have no souls, but Trusts have a moral nature, Mr. Roosevelt is certain; and it is his burning desire to "draw the line at conduct" in dealing with them. Conduct may be only three-fourths of life, but it is the whole of Trusts, as the President sees them.

We regret to observe, however, a ribald spirit manifesting itself in the Western press on the subject of Mr. Roosevelt's moral discriminations in the matter of Trusts. The irreverent newspaper cartoonist pictures the President taking the moral pulse of the various monopolies from which the people suffer, and awarding a halo to each one that can assume, for the nonce, a saintly expression. It is pointed out, too, that the moral quality of Trusts will necessarily vary with their politics. The Chairman of the Republican National Committee, for example, could not fail to certify to the virtues of Trusts that had made the proper contributions. Who is to be the examiner in Trust morals? What is to be the test of goodness? Shall we ask whether the Trusts pay good wages, are regular in church attendance, and are kind to their families?

Such questions sound ludicrous, but they are not more ludicrous than is the whole attempt to settle a question of law, of public policy, by irrelevant distinctions of good and bad. If the Trusts are founded upon a dangerous principle, if they operate by methods repugnant to our traditions of equity and of law, then they are all bad. If, on the contrary, their foundation is legal and their methods equitable, they are all good, in the only sense that the legislator can take cognizance of the goodness of a public institution, and should be let alone. To try to mark off the "good" Trusts from the "bad," when once you have conceded that their principle is wrong, is like talking of good and bad tyranny, good and bad oppression, good and bad slavery. We cannot legislate upon what is passing in the mind of a man, nor can we know what is passing in the mind of a Trust. All that we can ask is, "Are you violating the statute law? Do your operations contravene the prohibition of monopoly in the Common Law? Is there need of new enactments to head off your cunning in getting around old laws?" Only such questions have point, in the premises. By the answers to them alone can legislation be guided. The politician may run off on some such personal issue as will lead him to say of a given Trust, in the words of a song of the day, "It certainly was good to me"; but the statesman can look only to legal principles and legislative remedies of universal application.

For a contrast between moral fumbling with Trusts and a clear-cut description of evils to be cut out by law, one has only to turn from the President's ineffective lecture on good and bad Trusts to Attorney-General Knox's speech at Pittsburgh on October 14. In trenchant language he described the abuses committed by Trusts in violation of "the rights or recorded will of the people." These are: "over-capitalization, lack of publicity, discrimination in prices to destroy competition, insufficient personal responsibility of officers and directors, tendency to monopoly, and lack of appreciation of their relations to the people." There you have definite specifications. Mr. Knox did not stick in the bark of doubts whether, after all, some Trusts guilty of such abuses might not be "good," though some were "bad," but went as lawyer and statesman swiftly to the point of declaring that all combinations involving such, or any such, illegalities and frauds upon the public, were of a sort which the Government should "endeavor to destroy." That sounded as if it meant business. Mr. Roosevelt's delicate splitting of moral hairs 'twixt north and northwest side is, in comparison, painfully hesitant and irrelevant.

There is talk of amending the Sherman Anti-Trust Law at this session of Congress. If the thing were to be done in accordance with President Roosevelt's notion of being good to good Trusts, the first section of the amended law would read about as follows:

> "Every contract entered into for bad purposes, combination of bad men in the form of harmful Trust or otherwise, or reprehensible conspiracy in improper restraint of wholesome trade or useful commerce between the several States or foreign nations, is hereby declared to be illegal if its conduct be bad. Every person, unless he is good, who shall make any such bad contract or engage in any such improper combination or undesirable conspiracy shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor unless it appears that his motives were excellent, etc."

That is what we come to when we "draw the line at conduct" in drafting laws.

### *CHANGES IN CITY LAND VALUES.*

There can be no doubt that the present is a period of unparalleled speculation in New York real estate. The prices now being paid in Manhattan are wholly unexampled. Lively speculation was a feature when Tweed was laying his boulevards and indulging in lavish improvements on the neglected West Side, but that was chiefly in unimproved property, and was not unlike the familiar booms in mushroom Western towns. There was much stir, too, when the actual development of this great section and of Harlem began, some twenty years ago; but the building then was mainly of low-priced dwelling houses and of cheap flats. It was a speculation in thousands, while the present is a speculation in millions. To-day we have a $60,000,000 realty corporation with Steel Trust alliances.

The explanation is to be found in the general use of structural steel in building; in the growing wealth of the nation; in the increasing importance of New York city as its financial, industrial, and residential capital; and in the great public improvements—rapid transit, the new East River bridges, the proposed East and North River tunnels, and the Pennsylvania terminal—now under way or projected. The American sys-

tem of steel construction has resulted in building eighteen, twenty, and twenty-five stories high, and, as a consequence, the earning power of the land has doubled and trebled in twenty years. And this new method in building has been coincident with vast accumulations of wealth, and with its tendency to establish itself in New York. Thus nearly all the recent great combinations of capital have moved their headquarters to this city, and become large users of office space. With them has come a good-sized army of millionaires, which, in its demand for residential property in the most popular districts, has raised land values to a height never attained before. It is significant that nearly all the Steel Trust "magnates" are either building expensive houses in the best locations or are recent purchasers of them. Values in the Fifth Avenue district have increased anywhere from 100 to 400 per cent.—that is, lots which four years ago could have been purchased for $25,000, have been readily sold at $100,000. Fifth Avenue property, indeed, in the last four years, has practically ceased to be real estate. It is rather expensive bric-à-brac, restricted in quantity and greatly desired by a class of purchasers whose yearning for it is based not upon its earning power, but upon the personal satisfaction which its possession assures. The influence of the new tunnels and bridges in enhancing values, while not so picturesque, is still effective. Those parts of Washington Heights which will be made accessible by the subway have doubled in value since the beginning of that public work. The best of this property is now in the hands of powerful syndicates, which anticipate large profits when the building season arrives.

The existing real-estate speculation in New York has a tangible basis; it is, to a great extent, the result of an actual public demand. The expansion of the city which accompanies it is an evidence that it is no gaudy bubble, soon to be pricked. The growth of New York city is one of the most remarkable social and economic phenomena of the time. The boast of the Roman Emperor that he found the city brick and left it marble, is in a fair way to be outdone by the present generation of builders, who found Manhattan Island wood and stone and have left it steel. Not only have the long-established business districts been transformed, but a flourishing office section has been created in Wall Street east of Pearl, and the malodorous rookeries about Battery Park have been replaced by the present piles of marble and granite. Upon Fifth Avenue, from Fourteenth Street to Twenty-third, the old brownstone houses of a former age have been supplanted by eighteen and twenty-story commercial buildings. In a single year the junction of Broadway, Sixth Avenue, and Thirty-fourth Street has been transformed into a great retail centre. Thirty-fourth Street itself, once the residence of many of our most substantial citizens, is rapidly becoming a great business thoroughfare.

The increase in values in this section is strikingly shown by the fact that the Stewart mansion, which is probably the most commanding Fifth Avenue corner in the mercantile section, sold in 1899 for $63 a square foot, while only the other day an inconspicuous inside lot on the north side of Thirty-fourth Street was sold at the rate of $65. The greatest change, however, is to be seen still further north, at the junction of Broadway with Seventh Avenue at Forty-third Street. Less than four years ago, this was one of the least attractive places in town. Recently, however, a corner lot which, in 1895, was bought for $135,000, was sold for $200,000. Upon Longacre Square itself two great Astor hotels are now under construction; in the same general district, six new theatres are being built—and sites for two additional ones have been recently purchased. This section, indeed, is the coming Vanity Fair of New York; at least forty hotels of the apartment type were built there last year, and plans for twenty have been filed since the first of this year. The sudden discovery of the usefulness of the property for this purpose has precipitated a lively scramble among speculators for it; and houses which four years ago were freely offered for $15,000, now find ready purchasers at from $30,000 to $40,000. In connection with Fifth Avenue prices, it is an interesting fact that the fashionable district has been extended as far north as Ninety-first Street. Up to a year ago fashion, in its occupancy of the side streets, stopped at Park Avenue. In the last few months, however, there has been a migration as far east as Lexington; and here, too, prices have gone up 50 and 100 per cent.

The present is thus an *annus mirabilis* in the development of New York city. Yet the increase in property values has not been general; whole areas of the city have not participated in it; in others, such as the old wholesale district, values have actually gone down. It is on account of these sudden fluctuations, and the lack of uniformity in the recent rise in values, to say nothing of the fact that a certain element in present "market valuation" is inflation, that the experiment of the Tax Department in assessing real estate at its actual value is regarded with such apprehension by property interests.

## *A NEW BATTLE OF THE BOOKS.*

The controversy now on foot between the great advocate, Sir Edward Clarke, and the engaging critic, Edmund Gosse, is a very pretty quarrel. The opponents —Sir Edward as devil's advocate of modern literature, Mr. Gosse as its apologist—have each given open grounds of offence, and have crossed blades sharply. In this respect it resembles the learned duels of an older time, and not the mere scuffling methods of modern literary fence. Sir Edward Clarke has been lecturing to workingmen on "The Decay of English Literature." He has said on one occasion: "To-day we have no great novelist. Will any one suggest we have a poet? There has been no book produced in the last ten years which could compete with any one of the books produced from 1850 to 1860." Mr. Gosse took up the challenge at the dinner of the contributors to the supplementary volumes of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Responding to the toast of "Literature" and evidently alluding to Sir Edward Clarke, he maintained that the aphorism "Ne sutor" applied to eminent advocates, warned his hearers against uncharitable judgment, cited in illustration "the insensibility of Montaigne to the merits of all his contemporaries," and sat down amid the cheers of all the modern littérateurs present. So much for the beginning of the strife.

Sir Edward Clarke's *riposte* was shrewd, if delivered somewhat athwart the line of fence. He showed that the alleged "insensibility" of Montaigne to contemporary merit was a sheer post-prandial improvisation of Mr. Gosse's. Montaigne had, in fact, praised Du Bellay and Ronsard at their best as "little inferior to the ancient perfection." This very palpable hit, however, touches Mr. Gosse's illustration, not his main contention; and his question, "Is this a time of intellectual destitution or prosperity?" still awaits its definitive answer. It is more than an academic question, for upon its answer depends the prevailing tone of literary opinion, and in some sense the fame and fortune of writers of to-day. If a large body of discriminating readers are fully convinced that it is an age of literary bankruptcy, they will generally refuse to accept current notes of hand, and will draw upon the reserve of the classics. If, on the contrary, there is a general conviction that times are propitious, the chances of rising genius are greatly improved. No great work, we believe, has been written upon a theory of literary destitution.

Besides the difficulty of distinguishing a real from a false prosperity—genuine merit from genius proclaimed in three inks, and represented by statistics of advance sales—there is the greater difficulty of imagining Mr. A. the delightful novelist, Mr. B. the genial essayist, and Mr. C. the passionate poet in the light of posterity. How shall one affirm with any positiveness that Mr. Gosse, who writes so charmingly on so many subjects, and talks so acceptably at so many dinners, will a generation from now be

as famous as Saint-Beuve or as forgotten as, say, our own very estimable Whipple? Everywhere this difficulty confronts us. We are asked to tell in advance whether Mr. James is to be invited to join Thackeray's company, or whether he is doomed to unwilling and incongruous fellowship with his namesake of the many initials and "the solitary horseman." We are required to decide whether Mr. Howells is fit to drink celestial tea with Jane Austen and Maria Edgeworth, or whether his consorting shall be lower—with Mrs. Oliphant, for example. From such hazardous prophecy Mr. Gosse dissuades us, urging us ever to cherish the hope that we are entertaining angels unawares, while not requiring demonstrative proof of angelic qualifications.

This is very amiable doctrine, but was it not Mr. Gosse himself who gave us the phrase "an age of great funerals"? It is hard to resist the conviction that the last years of the nineteenth century will be remembered rather because they witnessed the last work of Browning, Tennyson, and Stevenson than because they saw the beginnings of the prominent novelists and poets of the present generation. The most fervent admirers of Mr. Kipling or Mr. Hewlett, of Mr. Watson, Mr. Stephen Phillips, or our own Mr. Moody, may fairly doubt that they will ever bulk with Thackeray or Tennyson, or even with Longfellow or Charles Reade. And yet it would be absurd to speak of our age as one of intellectual destitution simply because the vast increase in the number of raw readers ready to turn raw writers somewhat obscures the literary prospect. Among both writers and readers there is more training than there ever was, and among many of the younger men a high, nay, almost an excessive, conscientiousness. What the future critics of our day will probably note, when time has swept away the chaff, is a surprisingly high level of mere execution, accompanying a rather low average of vitality.

The spacious times of literature are, after all, rare. It is something to have lived in the dying glory of the generation that knew Thackeray and Balzac, and saw the beginnings of George Meredith, Tolstoy, Ibsen, Maupassant. The literature of our time is just occasion neither for the gibes of Sir Edward Clarke nor for the unfaltering faith of Mr. Edmund Gosse. The new battle of the books is likely to end, like many a tourney, with no champion declared, but with the spectators duly edified by proclamation of a fair fight, and entertained by the sight of cold steel shown generously if innocuously.

## THE CONSTITUTIONAL ASPECTS OF MR. CHAMBERLAIN'S JOURNEY.

LONDON, November 29, 1902.

The Constitution of England, as we have all learned, has "not been made, but has grown," and this formula, if properly understood, contains in a popular and inaccurate form a great deal of important truth. The exercise by the King of his prerogatives; his relation in matters of law-making to the two Houses of Parliament; the rule, which is thoroughly well understood, though indefinite, that when there is a permanent disagreement between the House of Lords and the House of Commons, the Peers must at some point, not very precisely fixed, give way to the so-called Lower House; the very existence of the Cabinet and the extent and nature of its powers, and a lot more of practices or rules which in the aggregate make up the modern Constitution of England—are not to be found in any statute, but have developed or have grown under the stress of circumstances, and in deference to the real or supposed requirements of a given time or emergency. But though we all repeat, without much consideration of its bearing on the public life of England, the doctrine that the Constitution is a sort of natural growth, and originates rather in custom than in parliamentary enactments, few of us, unless we happen to have given special attention to Constitutional history, draw the necessary inference that, if the Constitution is a thing that grows, we ought to watch any new Constitutional practice with at least as much care as citizens of the United States would, I presume, weigh the character and probable effect of a proposed Constitutional amendment.

This reflection, obvious enough in itself, has been forced upon my attention by Mr. Chamberlain's voyage, which has now begun, to the Cape. The beneficial effects which that journey may, as we hope, produce; the possibility of Mr. Chamberlain's wished-for success in fostering friendship both between Englishmen and Boers and between England and her loyal colonists; the risk that his efforts at conciliation may fail; the confidence placed by the nation in the patriotism and the wisdom of the Colonial Secretary; the boldness of the new course of action which Mr. Chamberlain has struck out for himself—these are the sort of matters which have filled the columns of our newspapers and the speeches of our statesmen. As, in short, is natural and perhaps inevitable in the transactions of public life, everything which is personal and temporary has excited interest. What no one, or scarcely any one, has noticed, is that the course pursued by Mr. Chamberlain, and by the Cabinet of which he is a member, will in reality (especially if the novel experiment in colonial government which he is conducting be crowned with success) introduce, or tend to introduce, what is nearly equivalent to a constitutional change in the relation between the United Kingdom and the self-governing colonies.

To prevent all misunderstanding, let me add that I do not write as an assailant of the course pursued by Mr. Chamberlain and his colleagues. My hope is that his visit to South Africa may be productive of benefit to England and South Africa alike; and my observation of politics has led me also to perceive that actions which appear of great importance may also, without any blame being due to any statesman, produce, after all, little effect of any kind. My aim in this letter is simply to note two circumstances: The one is, that Mr. Chamberlain's action is novel; the other is, that his action, if successful, must produce, or at any rate must tend to produce, some marked effects on English constitutionalism.

Mr. Chamberlain's visit to South Africa is, from a constitutional point of view, a novelty. He does not go out to the Cape as a statesman who, out of office, wishes to study on the spot, with perfect freedom and without any responsibility, some difficult problems of colonial government. Mr. Chamberlain, again, is not a high commissioner, who goes out to govern a colony, and, like Lord Durham in 1838, is intended to examine the situation and possibly take energetic steps to meet the difficulties of a supreme crisis. Mr. Chamberlain goes out to South Africa as a member, and nearly, if not absolutely, the most important member, of the Cabinet. His journey is little less than the attempt of the Government of England to examine, so to speak, with its own eyes, the condition of South Africa, and in full sympathy, as we all believe, with Lord Milner, the High Commissioner, to take or advise such steps as in their judgment the condition of affairs may require. How great is the novelty, and how wide-reaching may be the import of Mr. Chamberlain's visit, will be seen by any one who considers how difficult it would be for the Government to refuse to pursue any policy urged upon their acceptance by the combined authority of Lord Milner and Mr. Chamberlain. For bad or good, we have before us a precedent set for the more or less direct intervention of the English Cabinet in the solution of the problems presented by colonial government; and among Englishmen, either at home or in the colonies, nothing has so much weight as precedent.

Mr. Chamberlain's voyage to South Africa must, especially if it attains its object, produce far-reaching effects. The simple truth is, that his journey is the open and visible sign of the conviction which is obtaining daily a greater hold on the people of England, that the tie which binds England to her colonies must somehow be drawn closer, and that the English Government must take a more active part in matters of colonial interest. Consider first the possible, though one is happy to think by no means certain, difficulties which may result from this new departure. A powerful member of the Government, who may well be within the next ten years a prime minister, appears in a colony and applies himself to the solution of the political problems which this distant land presents. But wherever there is a problem, there will also exist infinite differences of opinion as to the way in which it should be solved; and wherever, under our English system of government, there exist differences of political opinion, there must also exist marked divisions between parties. No man can please every one; no man of Mr. Chamberlain's capacity and force of character will try to please every one. However impartial his inquiries, however sagacious his judgment, he must almost of necessity offend not only individuals, but some strong party in South Africa. This is inevitable, but the direct intervention of the British Government must, turn the matter as you will, bring on the Government at home, and in a certain sense on the people of England, a direct responsibility which they have not hitherto borne

for the policy pursued with regard to South Africa.

Then, again, what are to be the relations between the High Commissioner and the Colonial Secretary? The one has experience, the other has authority. It would be hard to find two men more likely to agree than Lord Milner and Mr. Chamberlain; still, they are both strong men, with firm convictions and strong wills. Is it certain that they will in all important matters see eye to eye? And if this unity of policy between two men who might disagree is attained in the particular instance, what is the chance that any minister who at a future time imitates Mr. Chamberlain will find it possible to agree fully with the policy of a Colonial Governor which he must certainly intend to examine (and examination, be it noted, always involves the possibility of criticism or of censure)? What, to raise another question, is to be the relation between the member of the Cabinet who has gone out to a distant colony in order to form a fair estimate of the state of affairs there, and the colleagues who have stayed at home? Surely, it is all but certain that the policy he on his return advocates must be their policy. But if this be so, the emissary sent out to South Africa, to Canada, or to Australia attains on a particular matter a kind of authority which has hitherto been supposed to belong, if to any one member of the Cabinet, then to the Prime Minister. These questions, or difficulties, which might easily be multiplied, may all be brought under the following observation: A new departure must, from the nature of things, involve some and perhaps many new perils; the policy of *laissez-faire* has its evils, not at the present day likely to be underrated, but you cannot by any possibility combine the advantages of *laissez-faire* with the advantages of active interposition. The easiness of England's relation with her self-governing colonies has to a great extent arisen from the fact that England has for many purposes not governed them at all. It may well be the case that the time for this leave-alone system has come to an end. So be it, but let no man suppose that one can in public, any more than in private life, reap the advantages both of interference and of non-interference.

Let us look now with equal impartiality on the possible, and I hope probable, gains of a bold political adventure. Its first merit is that it acknowledges plain facts which we have all been too apt to ignore. The whole course of the world's history, and, above all, the effect of scientific inventions which have drawn distant countries nearer to one another, makes it impossible for England and her colonies to stand as far apart from each other as they did fifty years ago. Imperialism, whatever may be its defects, is the result of causes so potent and real that it is vain to hope that nations can escape from their influence. Then, again, close personal intercourse between English statesmen and their colonial brethren, if it does not remove all the difficulties with which a colonial policy is beset, and may even increase some of them, must diminish the force of a feeling which may clearly do great harm, that the people of the United Kingdom are indifferent to the distant parts of the British Empire and care little for colonial opinion. And, after all, ignorance is never in reality anything else but a danger; and everything which dispels our statesman's ignorance of colonial life adds strength to the whole empire.

Mr. Chamberlain's journey, and the policy which it embodies, possess a recommendation of which it is not easy to convey the importance to any man not accustomed to reflect on the development of the English Constitution. This recommendation is, that action which may be far-reaching in its results does not involve any formal change in the fabric of our polity. Whoever has for the last ten or fifteen years noted the growth of the belief that England and her colonies ought to draw closer to one another, must have long ago perceived that this end could be achieved by one of two methods. The one method is to remodel the constitution of the empire, as, for example, by admitting to the Parliament at Westminster an appreciable body of members returned by and from the self-governing colonies. Now the one thing that is certain about such schemes is that, while they may easily fail of attaining their end, they are most assuredly full of risk. The other method is to avoid, at any rate for the time, all formal alteration in the constitution of the empire, but to meet the new wants of a new age by new practices in the art of government. The aid asked from and given by the colonies in the way of troops is one example of this policy. Mr. Chamberlain's journey to South Africa is another. This method is not showy, it does not effect at once any tremendous change; but it is, on the whole, safe. If one experiment fails, another experiment can be tried. Mr. Chamberlain's journey represents the sound kind of experimental and gradual innovation which has always, in the long run, been found in England to be the most effective, as it is the safest, mode of amending the Constitution.

AN OBSERVER.

# Correspondence.

## A FAIR FIELD FOR BLACK AMERICANS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last issue you cited from President Roosevelt's letter certain opinions of his touching the negro race. He says: "I cannot consent . . . that the door of hope is to be shut upon any man merely upon the ground of race or color." "If . . . the great bulk of the colored people are not yet fit . . . to hold such positions, it is worth while putting a premium upon the effort among them to achieve the character and standing which will fit them." To this you say, "We know of no answer except the hoary Southern interrogatory," etc.

With the permission of the *Nation* I will suggest answers to both assertions.

Purged of metaphorical ambiguity, the first implies that the difference of race does not connote any considerable mental or moral differences. To this I might reply by asking Mr. Roosevelt if he is willing to throw open American citizenship to the Chinese. But this would be an argument *ad hominem*, and he would know better than to answer it. My reply, therefore, is, that the South has known the negro race for three hundred years, and the world has known it for several thousand, and the universal experience has been that the negro is an undeveloped creature, with the physical powers of a man and the intellectual and moral faculties of a child. If Mr. Roosevelt knows better, the burden of proof is on him. Whether the negro will ever, in the process of the ages, reach a higher plane, is known to his Creator alone; we must deal with him as he is.

To the second assertion I answer by a question: Will the offer of a half-dozen small political offices (and certain other baits which need not be mentioned) help the negro to "achieve character"? If we may judge from the past, have they been achieving character since their emancipation? The criminal statistics of the last census are not accessible to me; but the census of 1890 shows that during the previous decade the proportionate criminality among the negroes increased 33 per cent.; that, in proportion to their numbers, the educated negroes were more criminal than the illiterate; and that, proportionately, their rate of criminality was higher in the Northern than in the Southern States. Do not these facts suggest that in helping them to achieve character we have somehow gone the wrong way about it?

W. H. B.

[We will content ourselves with saying that a single example of perfectibility in a black man, in character or in talent, is a sufficient answer to all oppressive generalizations about the natural inferiority of the negro. At this moment, the most conspicuous Southerner in the eyes of the world is a colored man, an ex-slave, an educator, whose autobiography is being translated into other languages. At the same time, the most familiar gauge of Southern white civilization to all foreigners is the awful growth of lynching since the time when cruelty was the daily privilege, if not pastime, of every member of the "superior" race.—ED. NATION.]

## A REMEDY FOR LYNCHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent admirable comment on an attempt at lynching in Alabama you say, "Nothing except the administration of law and the punishment of lynchers by death or long terms of imprisonment will ever put an end to the practice of lynching." While this may be true, it is susceptible of some qualification. It is one of the truisms of experience that no law is ever enforced except at the behest of public sentiment, and I know of no way in which a sentiment against lynching can be created except by education. Such an education must obviously include the antipodes of the sentiment that breeds this crime. An analysis would undoubtedly show that lynching is born of a lack of the respect for law—which is the outward expression of the sense of justice—and an absence of kindliness. In other words, lynching is the fruit of injustice and cruelty.

Now it happens that there is a kind of education that seeks to eradicate in the human heart these very elements. Of late years school teachers have seen a great light. Many of them are now utilizing as object-lessons in the teaching of justice and kindness our brothers of the air and of the field. Most children have what may be called an instinct for pets, which is ca-

pable of being easily stimulated and trained towards sympathy for all animal life. There is no better way of impressing upon a young mind the rights of man than by beginning with lessons in the rights of animals. And the spark of affection for a dog or a cat can readily be fanned into a flame of love towards mankind.

Humane education, as it is called, furnishes the indirect and perhaps tedious, but certain, solution for this hideous crime. The superintendent of the Detectives' Association of America furnishes the following testimony: "Within twenty-five years' experience as an officer, I know of but very few criminals who were taught to love animals, and, searching for the cause of crime, we find that the lack of humane education is the principal one." Is it possible for a man who in boyhood has been trained in the principles of justice to every living creature, to violate the constitutional right of trial by jury and the natural right to live? It is inconceivable that one in whom has been developed a tender regard for a lame horse or an injured dog should burn a human being at the stake.

Yours truly, S. R. TABER.

LAKE FOREST, ILLINOIS, December 12, 1902.

## AN OHIO DECISION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I enclose herewith a decision by an Ohio Circuit Court (an intermediate court), and also a syllabus by the Supreme Court of Ohio reversing the judgment of the Circuit Court. It strikes me that the decision of the Supreme Court lacks moral perception and that it deserves public comment. I was not in the slightest degree interested in the case except as a citizen.

We have a statute in Ohio which prevents building of street railways along the public streets without the written consents of the owners of 51 per cent. of the property abutting on the street. The Supreme Court expressly states that "such consents are not property rights, but rights in their nature personal to each owner of an abutting lot." And then again, "Such personal rights were bestowed by the General Assembly on owners of abutting lots as a check upon the power of municipal authorities to authorize street railroads to be constructed and operated against the wishes of the owners of lots on such street." The Court then holds that there is no public policy which prevents the purchase of such consents. It is this conclusion that seems to me to be contrary to public morality.

The Legislature assumes, and it is a fact perfectly apparent, that a street railway built along a certain street may be an annoyance and an injury to the people who own property on the street, and it was the purpose to prevent such annoyance and injury and to let the owners of the property be the judges as to whether the construction of the railway would injure them. This legislation is a sort of "referendum" such as the requirements that prevail in some States that, in order to establish a livery stable or a saloon, the consents of the property-owners in the neighborhood shall be first obtained. It bears a close resemblance to the local-option laws that prevail in many States, and the reference of certain matters of taxation, issuing of bonds, street improvements, etc., to the people who are to be affected thereby. Is it not the plain intent in all such cases that the judgment of the people who are to decide the matter shall not be influenced by corrupt motives? Does public policy permit a street-railway company to inflict a damage upon the owners of 49 per cent. of the property upon a street by the purchase of the consents from the other people who own property upon the street?

It might be the honest judgment of the people in a neighborhood that a saloon or a livery stable should not be established on a fine residence square, yet the owners of vacant property upon the opposite side of the street, or within the district to which the question is referred, might be bought to give their consent. Did the Legislature, in enacting such laws, intend that such things might be? Public policy is based upon morality. T. H.

CINCINNATI, December 10, 1902.

## THE DUTY ON BOOKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If Congress begins to lessen the surplus in the Treasury by cutting off sources of revenue, or if a "scientific tariff revision" takes place, the duty on books printed in England might be spared without loss to infant industries. The following is an example of the present working—not an isolated case, as I, and doubtless many others, can testify. As a member of the British Congress of Tuberculosis, the printed transactions of the Congress were recently sent to me. I do not know the market price of the four small volumes, but, as they are given to each member who paid the fee of five dollars, it is not likely to exceed this amount. The customs charges were $2.50, with sixty cents more for "warehouse." An examiner once remarked to me, when putting me through the Custom-house, that it was "no sanitarium." This recent experience makes me think he was right.

Very truly yours, GEORGE DOCK.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., December 10, 1902.

## FOOTBALL ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Springfield *Republican* and the Baltimore *Sun* have published what seemed to be authentic lists of the names of young men who have been killed, and of those who have been maimed for life, on the football fields since September 10. The killed number twelve, the maimed about seventy. I do not know personally of any of the recorded deaths, but I know two instances of injuries that will last for life, only one of which is mentioned in the lists I have seen published. It is quite certain that there are some instances of serious injury which are not generally known beyond the region in which they have occurred. According to reports, four of those who were killed met death on Thanksgiving Day.

Now is it unreasonable to ask college authorities whether they cannot abolish this brutal game, or at least so modify it that it may seem less like prize-fights, and may spare modern civilization the reproach of gladiator shows? One cannot but think that leaders of thought—the men in our colleges—have unconsciously allowed themselves to drift into an approval of a form of brutishness from which they must recover upon sober thought. Let them consider twelve young lives put out, and for what? And let them consider, further, that this record of brutality is exhibited under the auspices of institutions to which we have a right to look for refining and uplifting ideals.—Very respectfully, MEDIUS.

December 5, 1902.

[In an address delivered a year ago before the Southern Educational Association at Columbia, South Carolina, but only just published, Prof. Walter Leconte Stevens of Washington and Lee University cited statistics for the football season then just ended, summing up "at least seven deaths due to football in the United States, and over seventy recorded injuries so severe as to require surgical treatment, with a large number unrecorded." Within sight of Professor Stevens's home there had been "two concussions of the brain requiring hospital treatment." The fatalities, it would seem, have nearly doubled in the twelvemonth. Professor Stevens appends some thoughtful remarks on the responsibility of college authorities and in deprecation of intercollegiate contests. How to attain localization is indicated by the rubrics—"Gymnastics a requisite for a college degree," "Athletics should stimulate gymnastics," "Athletic privileges as rewards for good college work."—ED. NATION.]

## THE MUSEUM OF SAINT GERMAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Please allow me to correct an error in Mr. Stickney's letter on the Museum of St. Germain, which you published in your No. 1951 (p. 398). The old chapel of our Museum, where St. Louis prayed, where Bossuet preached to Louis XIV., where James II. (Stuart) heard mass for a number of years, has *not* been "devoted to a collection of casts of prehistoric Gallic tombs." *Prima facie*, that would be impossible, because the only prehistoric tombs in Gaul of which a cast could be taken are dolmens, and one dolmen would be enough to fill the chapel. Moreover, if I had put anything "prehistoric" in a Gothic chapel, I should have given a rather displeasing idea of my taste. The truth is, that the chapel has been devoted to originals and casts of the Christian antiquities from the eight first centuries A. D., as they have been discovered so frequently in Southern France, and especially to those very interesting sarcophagi carved with figures and scenes relating to the Old and New Testament. A corner of the chapel contains the few early Jewish inscriptions which have been preserved, dating from the seventh to eighth century A. D. That is all, and it has nothing "prehistoric" about it.

May I add that this new collection of early Christian antiquities, put together in one of the most charming works of Christian architecture, well repays a visit, even from those familiar with the larger Christian museums in Rome?—Truly yours,

SALOMON REINACH.

MUSÉE DE ST.-GERMAIN-EN-LAYE,
December 3, 1902.

## A VOCABULARY OF THE ITALIAN WORKS OF DANTE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an appeal for an increase of membership just issued by the Council of the Cambridge Dante Society, it is mentioned, among other requirements, that "there is great need of a new *Vocabolario Dantesco*." Perhaps I may be allowed to state that I have been for several years, and am now, actively engaged in the preparation of a complete Vocabulary of the Italian Works of Dante, which is to be published by the Clarendon Press at Oxford, uniformly with my 'Dictionary of Proper Names and Notable Matters in the Works of Dante,' published four years ago. I declared my intention of undertaking the task at the close of the preface to my 'Dictionary,' and the work itself, which is now well advanced, has been several times mentioned in the London *Athenæum* and other English literary journals, as well as in the Clarendon Press announcements.

I make this statement in order to prevent any English or American Dante student from devoting time and labor, in response to the appeal of the Dante Society, to a laborious piece of work which has already been undertaken by another, and for the publication of which by the Oxford University Press an agreement was signed in 1898.

Paget Toynbee, D. Litt. Oxon.

Dorney Wood, Burnham, Bucks, England, November 29, 1902.

## LETTERS OF CHARLES AND MARY LAMB.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the work of preparing the new edition of the Letters of Charles and Mary Lamb upon which I have been engaged for some years, I have endeavored, wherever possible, to obtain new copies of letters rather than reproduce those which are already in type. English possessors of Lamb MSS. having most cordially assisted me in this project, I take the opportunity of asking those owners of Lamb MSS. in America to be so good as to extend to me the same facilities, for without their coöperation no edition of Lamb's letters can possibly be complete. I shall be obliged if they will kindly address me in care of Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, who will make arrangements for the copying or collation of the MSS.—I am yours faithfully,

E. V. Lucas.

Froghole, Edenbridge, Kent, November 28, 1902.

## EGYPT EXPLORATION FUND COMMITTEE IN BOSTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow a brief amendment to the statement of your correspondent, in your issue of November 27, respecting the formation of what President Evans, in his annual address, calls "a local committee, under whose charge we may hope the affairs of the fund in Boston will prosper."

Did "the independent supporters of the Fund in Boston" constitute, or form, this new committee placed to administer the affairs of the whole American Branch? By vote of the London Committee just one man, a non-subscriber, was asked to form so important a committee. Of the seven members appointed, three were not subscribers to the Fund; one had quite recently joined; three are attached to the Museum here, to which the appointer belongs; two of the seven are now abroad. The reorganization is radical to the extreme, as even the office of Vice-President for the United States, of an honorary nature, is taken from me, by the request of the one man who formed the Committee. No wonder there is commotion all over the American Branch, especially as it had been officially informed that "the London Committee is ever anxious that the American Branch should be administered in accordance with the wishes of American subscribers."

My circular, free to all, explains the situation. William Copley Winslow.

*Founder of the American Branch, E. E. Fund.*

525 Beacon St., Boston, December 12, 1902.

# Notes.

A prize of six thousand dollars will be given to the author of the best book on the coincidence of science and revelation, the divine origin and authority of the Christian Scriptures, the existence of God, submitted to President Harlan of Lake Forest College, Illinois, on or before June 1, 1905, in manuscript, with triplicate type-written copies. "Scientific men, Christian philosophers and historians of all nations" may compete for the prize. The successful treatise will be published in book form, and initiate the "Nathaniel Bross Library," so called from the son of the founder of the fund (1897), William Bross of Chicago. Lake Forest Bross Lectures will also be instituted from the same endowment, and will in turn beget volumes. President Harlan should be addressed for particulars.

Mr. Richard Le Gallienne proposes to issue early next year 'Odes from the Divan of Hafiz, Freely Rendered from Literal Translations,' by himself. The edition will be limited, in small and large paper, and Mr. Le Gallienne will be his own publisher. Subscriptions should be sent to him at The Schuyler, 59 West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

The death of the Rev. Dr. Joseph Parker, pastor of the City Temple, London, will hasten the appearance of his life by Dr. William Adamson, already in preparation by Fleming H. Revell Co.

A new Vale Press volume, in red and black, is announced for publication by John Lane—'Ecclesiastes and the Song of Solomon,' in one volume, octavo. The type used is the King's Font designed by Charles Ricketts. One hundred copies have been printed for America.

A. M. Robertson, San Francisco, announces 'The Divine Question,' by Lionel Josaphare, first of the "Flame Series," devoted to literature, politics, and social topics.

A book wholly made up of light and gossipy talk about the social merits of men and women prominent in their day is not, of course, to be taken seriously. In this period of Dames and Daughters athirst for enlightenment as to the looks and bearing, the doings and sayings in the salon, of their grandmothers and others of the family, a demand may exist for such a volume as Anne Hollingsworth Wharton's 'Social Life in the Early Republic' (Lippincott). Miss Wharton does this kind of work well. Her style is easy and attractive, and pervaded by an air of refinement and good breeding. So far as delicacy of treatment is needed, the author meets every requirement. There is little that is new or original in these pages; but the reader who is taken over familiar ground, has a pleasant guide to accompany him. The book is well printed, and among the many illustrations will be found a few portraits of charming women.

'Memories of Vailima' (Scribners) is made up of selections from the diaries of Mrs. Isobel Strong kept in 1893 and 1894, and of recollections of Mr. Lloyd Osbourne during the whole Vailima period. Illustrations from photographs accompany the narrative, and some unpublished verse is included. It must be confessed that the thread of reminiscence is spun overfine by Stevenson's step-children, but here and there the book does something to explain that curious half-theatrical and wholly patriarchal household at Samoa.

The publishers of "The Makers of British Art" (London: Walter Scott Publishing Company; New York: Scribners) are to be congratulated on at least one reform. In the 'Romney' of this series the illustrations are, at last, more often from the paintings than from engravings after them, while the list of illustrations states the exact facts in each case, even to the engraver's name when an engraving is used. The text, by Sir Herbert Maxwell, makes small critical pretensions, but gives in readable form the main facts in the life of a painter as much overrated to-day as he was, for a time, unduly neglected.

But for the pressure of the holiday season we should like to give more space than we can at present command to 'Delight the Soul of Art,' a series of lectures evidently delivered in some art school (but where is not stated), by Arthur Jerome Eddy (J. B. Lippincott Co.). The book is well written and well printed, and contains another attempt at a definition of art, from which definition, once accepted, all sorts of consequences flow which would be entirely different if the definition were altered. In this respect it is like Tolstoy's 'What is Art?' though the results are not so absurd. With a great deal that Mr. Eddy says all would agree, but a great deal more seems to us fallacious. We had marked several passages for comment, but must content ourselves with this general notice.

In 'East of Paris' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) Miss Betham-Edwards discourses pleasantly of a number of towns and villages lying in that direction and extending as far as Alsace-Lorraine. She writes of what pleases her, and the result is so little of a guide-book that she leaves out the cathedral from her chapters on Rheims, because it "has been so fully described elsewhere." Since there are no illustrations in the text, we can see no reason for the employment of the heavily coated paper on which it is printed. The "colored illustrations" mentioned on the title-page are only four in number, and give out very early, the last two-thirds of the volume having only a couple of process plates from photographs. The quality of the four given, however, is not sufficient to make one greatly regret the absence of others.

'Paris, Past and Present,' by Henry Haynie (Frederick A. Stokes Co.), is more like

a guide-book, and contains a great deal of miscellaneous information, most of which is probably correct enough, though we doubt some of it, but is peculiar in the things it does not contain. The section on the Place du Carrousel, for instance, gives us a little of everything else, but no statement of when or by whom the Arc du Carrousel was erected. The next section begins, "If, however, the arch in the Carrousel is out of place"—which is the first time we have heard so—and goes on to describe the Arc de l'Étoile without mentioning the name of Rude. After that it hardly surprises us that the Pantheon can be written of without reference to Puvis de Chavannes, and the Opera-house with no mention of Carpeaux and the barest mention of Baudry. The heading of the chapter on the Théâtre-Français contains the words "Statue of Voltaire," but we have been able to find no mention of it in the text, which does, however, contain the name of a lady hitherto unknown to fame, Victorine Sardou; the printer is probably the author of her being. The illustrations, from photographs except in the case of objects no longer existing, are excellent.

In the early part of the present year our Paris correspondent gave a very extended account of Mme. Arvède Barine's 'La Grande Mademoiselle, 1627-1652.' This will dispense us from considering intrinsically the authorized English version just handsomely brought out by G. P. Putnam's Sons, with portraits and views, and an index. The translation, by Helen E. Meyer, adheres closely to the French, and has consequently produced correct rather than idiomatic or flowing English. The typography is bold.

Our remarks the other day about the futility of ornamental handlettering as applied to verse in magazines and books receives signal exemplification in the reissue of Arthur Upson's 'Octaves in an Oxford Garden' (Minneapolis: Edmund D. Brooks). We defy any one to read these pages with comfort and understanding. The lettering is by Margaretha A. Heisser, as we painfully decipher the base-line of the title-page, practically all run together. How can the poet think his work glorified by this treatment? Even the simple rule of non-division of monosyllables is violated in octave xxiii., where bid- es lifts its front beside bid- den; and, worse yet, in octave viii. we encounter kn- own!

*Per contra*, Joaquin Miller's overproduction is the cause of the fine type and rather cheap appearance of the revised edition of his Complete Poetical Works (San Francisco: The Whitaker & Ray Co.). In all his prefatory advice to "the young in letters" we find nothing on this head, though a warning against writing too much would outweigh the precept, "Use the briefest little bits of baby words at hand." Reviewing his work, Mr. Miller can commend to his lovers "only the few last poems in the book." The public may prove more indulgent, according to its recollection of this amiable writer's earlier verse, and according to its patience.

It was inevitable that Mr. Marion Crawford's 'Ave Roma Immortalis' (Macmillan) should concede something from its original two-volume sumptuousness and cost for the sake of a wider ownership. The one-volume edition, revised, now issued, is in all essentials the same as its predecessor, to which we gave our suffrage just four years ago, with the caution that it is a work for the elect to whom Roman legend and history are already more or less familiar. The two-dozen full-page photographs are indeed wanting, but the spirited pen-and-ink sketches imbedded in the text remain, together with the map of Rome, the chronological table of Emperors and Popes, and the arms of some of the noble houses which had no popes.

Dickens's 'Child's History of England' reappears in a square 16mo of 500 pages, with numerous pen sketches by Patten Wilson (London: Dent; New York: Dutton). Not all the designs are worth while, the best being those illustrative of manners and customs; but naturally the "strenuous" situations are preferred by the artist.

Mr. Herbert B. Turner of Boston adds to his pretty 16mo reprints 'Commodore Trunnion's Courtship, and the Cruise of H. M. S. *Thunder*,' extracted from Smollett's 'Peregrine Pickle' and 'Roderick Random'; and two volumes of Stevenson's 'Familiar Studies of Men and Books.' The Smollett has a frontispiece portrait, the Stevenson several portraits. The type is large, and the impression clear and legible.

McClure, Phillips & Co. publish a collection of new translations from Tolstoy by Mrs. Garnett—'The Death of Ivan Ilyitch'; this title covering also "Family Happiness," "Polikushka," "Two Hussars," "The Snowstorm," and "Three Deaths," most of these dating from the fifties. Of Mrs. Garnett's competence and experience in translating the great Russian author, we need not speak. The book is generously got up.

Frances Weston Carruth, author of 'Fictional Rambles in and about Boston' (McClure, Phillips & Co.), owed her readers a bibliography if not an index. She should have grouped at the end the titles of the works of fiction which she has ransacked as a pretext for this book. This would have emphasized, to be sure, the demand made upon the reader to interest himself in spots connected with incidents in minor fiction of which he may never have heard. The photographic illustrations are well chosen, excellent, and characteristic of the city.

Lilian Whiting's 'Boston Days' (Little, Brown & Co.) is of another sort. Its four chapters treat of "The City of Beautiful Ideals," "Concord, and its Famous Authors," "The Golden Age of Genius" (meaning the age of Emerson and his fellow-poets, Longfellow, Holmes, Lowell, Whittier, and Parsons, together with Hawthorne, Mrs. Stowe, and Edwin P. Whipple, J. T. Fields, Mrs. Howe, and many another literary light); and "The Dawn of the Twentieth Century," of which we confess our inability to give a summary notion. There are portraits, views of homes, facsimiles of MSS. Dyed-in-the-wool Bostonians may delight to browse in these discursive biographical and semi-historical sketches, of which we could almost guarantee an indefinite continuance by the same hand.

After five years, Prof. Andrew Seth (now styled Seth Pringle-Pattison) offers a second edition of his 'Man's Place in the Cosmos, and Other Essays' (Scribners), to which we shall return no further than to notice two additional papers by title, "The Venture of Theism," a critique of Dr. Campbell Fraser's Gifford Lectures on the "Philosophy of Theism"; and a study, "The Life and Opinions of Friedrich Nietzsche."

Nor can we tarry longer over the new edition of the collectivist plea of Sidney and Beatrice Webb, 'Problems of Modern Industry,' more recently noticed by us (Longmans). The present, popular output is provided with an introduction which consists mostly of a discussion of Trusts, conveying the substance of the author's article in the *International Monthly* for February of the present year.

We can barely, in this crowded season, call attention to an unusually well-conceived series of reprints of historic rarities undertaken by the Burrows Bros. Co. of Cleveland. Three have thus far appeared —Daniel Denton's 'Brief Description of New York,' from the original edition of 1670; Charles Wolley's 'Two Years' Journal in New York,' 1701; and Thomas Budd's 'Good Order Established in Pennsylvania and New Jersey,' 1685. Not only has commendable taste been shown in the manufacture, but each work has been assigned to an expert editor—respectively, Felix Neumann, Prof. E. G. Bourne, and Frederick J. Shepard. The original title-pages are given in facsimile.

Mr. Willis J. Abbot, in 'American Merchant Ships and Sailors' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), gives a popular and fascinating account of the development of each branch of our mercantile marine—coastwise and deep-sea sailing ships, river steamboats, lake steamers, the fishing fleet, etc., etc. While written with sober accuracy, the book yet reads like a romance, so happily is the yarn spun. It deserves wide appreciation, especially at this Christmas season, for its matter and manner, as well as for the attractiveness of the publishers' part. To the youth who seeks amusement, and to his father who seeks information, it will be alike welcome. Although its modest purpose is to interest the general reader in the truth and the romance of seagoing from colonial days to the present time, it only lacks a bibliography to make it of real value to the student of history. It is injudicious, to say the least, to hold up the leader of the Greely expedition as hero and model, and unfair to charge the expedition's ghastly record, which merely proves the folly of setting a landsman to do a seaman's work, against the American sailor, who has misadventures enough of his own to answer for without borrowing from the soldier.

A 'Treatise on the Law of Intercorporate Relations,' by Walter Chadwick Noyes (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.), ought to prove a valuable addition of a novel sort to legal text-books. It deals with the sale and leasing of one corporation to another, merger, consolidations, combinations, conspiracies, monopolies, the Federal Anti-Trust statute, and State Anti-Trust statutes. The author is a judge of the Connecticut Court of Common Pleas. As we understand him, one underlying theory of the book is that a combination of capital may be unlawful without being a conspiracy. In chapter iii. will be found some extracts from judicial decisions bearing on the pending Northern Securities merger case, together with some principles which the author regards as established, but which seem rather in conflict with one another. The book is marked by accuracy and moderation of statement.

The Government Printing-Office has published by order of the Secretary of War 'Reports on the Law of Civil Government in Territory subject to Military Occupation by the Military Forces of the United States,' by Charles E. Magoon (Washington). The author of these reports is law officer of the Division of Insular Affairs. Most of them embody opinions relating to routine business. One or two involve broad Constitutional and politico-legal questions, such as the legal status of the islands, the powers of the military governments in the islands, and the doctrine that the Constitution extends to them *ex proprio vigore*.

Messrs. Curtis & Cameron of Boston send us a new catalogue of their Copley Prints, which include hundreds of the best examples of our modern American painters, besides a selection from foreign art and the old masters. The list is arranged alphabetically by artists, and small half-tone cuts, grouped several on the page, at once are a convenience to the intending purchaser, and make the book a thumbnail record of our contemporary painting. A more scrupulous care in recording the place and ownership of every picture would not cost the publishers great pains in the next edition, and would be a feature greatly appreciated by students and collectors.

The Antarctic regions are the subject of the opening article in the *Annales de Géographie* for November, in which the author, M. Zimmermann, calls attention to the fact that few of the many problems which this region presents have been solved. Nor is it to be expected that the expeditions now engaged in its exploration will add much to our knowledge of the topography of the continent. In an account of Algeria, stress is laid upon the fact that it is a land of contrasts, both in its physical conformation and in its inhabitants. "It has no natural centre. Although there are some places whose importance has never been completely effaced, its capitals have, so to speak, travelled across the land in the course of its history." This great contrariety adds much to the difficulty of its administration as well as of its development. Professor Douxami describes the middle valley of the Rhone, and M. Gallois defends the authenticity of the letter of Toscanelli to Columbus against the arguments of Henry Vignaud.

—The preparation for the sale by auction of the late Henry G. Marquand's collection of works of art has involved the getting-up of an illustrated catalogue to which a great deal of labor and thought has been given. That which will attract the greater number of lovers of fine art will be, perhaps, the set of plates produced by photographic process and accredited to A. W. Elson & Co. of Boston. There may be seventy of these full-page plates, and many of them contain a great number of separate objects: thus, while five plates contain each three or six or ten vases of Chinese porcelain, three are devoted to Japanese treasures, four more to Greek ceramics, including statuettes and groups, and six to rugs and tapestries. Two of the most interesting plates are those which show Hispano-Moresque dishes and round plaques. Three of them give the three pieces of Della Robbia ware well known to all persons who visited Mr. Marquand's house. If next we consider the twenty plates devoted to paintings, we find some rarities and some treasures of a sort not requiring rarity to make them precious. There is an admirable landscape by Theodore Rousseau, and, to contrast with it, a really notable Constable, "Dedham Vale." There is a portrait by Romney, and another by the less known but equally respectable John Russell, the miniaturist. There are two Hoppners, one Reynolds, and an authentic portrait of Charles Lamb by Sir Henry Raeburn. Three water-colors by J. M. W. Turner are grouped upon one plate. The frontispiece is that portrait of Mr. Marquand himself, by John S. Sargent, which is owned by the Metropolitan Museum of Art. Concerning the text (for a *catalogue raisonné* like this may be said to have a text), it appears that, the paintings and the tapestries taken together, the Japanese pottery and lacquer, the Oriental rugs, the Limoges enamel, the antique glass, the Greek ceramics and metal work, the intaglios and gems, the prints, and finally the books, have had each the especial care of a person thought to be master of the subject. Elaborate articles follow the names of the pieces in the department of enamels, and these, with an intelligent prefatory note, are ascribed to Mr. Roger Riordan. This department is, however, a small one, of necessity: there are not many fine surface enamels in the world. The department of Oriental rugs is larger—some fifty items; and here, also, a proportionately thorough examination is evident, the little understood significance of the flower patterns and Persian or Arabic symbolism having been carefully worked out, as far as conditions might allow, by Mr. John Kimberly Mumford. The brief notices given to the three Robbia bas-reliefs may be thought to be the work of Mr. Marquand's son, Prof. Allan Marquand of Princeton, well known as having studied with especial care the work of the great Luca and his successors and disciples. A brief introduction has been furnished by Mr. Russell Sturgis.

—Valuable to purchasers of Japanese art works and bric-à-brac is 'Mythological Japan,' by Alexander F. Otto and Theodore S. Holbrook, published by Drexel Biddle of Philadelphia. Bound in raw Shikii silk, with embossed pages which are folded double at the edge, in Japanese fashion, with the backgrounds and shadow tints appearing on the silk-like paper throughout the book, we have a dainty product from beyond the Pacific. Four of the inserts are mounted on mats of knotless *kiri* wood, and there are sixteen panels and full-page plates in color, with numerous illustrations of mythological subjects, marginals of Oriental symbols, and reproductions of subjects in noted collections. Besides happily reproducing the work of Japanese artists, the object of the compilers has been to interpret the symbolism of the Far East, even to the colors themselves, which have significance by their constant association with certain lines of ideas. Storks, bamboo, and lotus have been very happily treated. The picture, on page 27, of the carp making strenuous attempts—not always crowned with success—to surmount the waterfalls is a noted instance of optimistic symbolism; for as the sluggard is exhorted to go to the ant, so is the ambitious youth pointed to the leaping carp. In the case of the longer legends, the complete story, though in condensed form, is given in text on the same page with the symbol; perhaps the most notable instance being, so far as artistic power and interpretation are concerned, that on page 37 of Kiyohime, "the personification of disappointed love" and a famous character in the classic opera, or *No*. The description of the "Hara Kiri" (hara-kiri), being in the present tense, would almost imply its survival at the present time. It might have been added, though the text nowhere suggests it, that the only difference between hara-kiri and *seppuku* is purely verbal, being the same as that between belly-cut and abdomen-opening, the more elegant Chinese term being used for the plainer vernacular. Some slight acknowledgment of the literary sources in English from which not a little of the text, especially that on the dragon and phœnix, has been derived, would not have been out of order.

—It was a happy thought in Miss Carolyn Wells to make her 'Nonsense Anthology' (Scribners), and few could be better fitted for the task than one whose precept and verse assure her attitude towards this important department of literature—an attitude compounded of reverent adherence and the expert's sense of humor, with this still further specialized into an unerring flair for whatever stamps humor as nonsense. Nonsense (technical nonsense, be it understood) has a claim of long descent. In this collection are early English examples dating back to 1617. The assembly of authors is gentleman-chaperoned (for it is instructive to find but three women's names among those of contributory writers, whatever our suspicions may be as to certain anonymous verses) by such dignity as Ben Jonson, Dr. Johnson, Goldsmith, Milton, and Bishop Corbet, who in the seventeenth century writes verses beginning "Like to the thundering tone of unspoke speeches." Lear, of course, Gilbert, and Lewis Carroll figure prominently, but hosts of others sit up worthily with these kings. We must venture, in spite of the illustrative anecdote, to take exception to a statement in the preface that "it is a fact that among the general reading community the appreciators of Lewis Carroll are surprisingly few." But even this trifling stricture is needless, since, if the capable editor is mistaken on this point, correction's tidal wave will swiftly overtake her. The indexes are satisfying, the make-up trim and commendable; the volume is one that "no family can afford to be without." We are persuaded that the compiler will feel that it has served its purpose if it sends its readers to the great originals; and should it thus be made the humble instrument of acquainting them with nonsense dignified by age, and with their Gelett Burgess, their Oliver Herford, their Owen Seaman, their Peter Newell, it will not have been collected in vain.

—Bishop Lawrence's 'Roger Wolcott' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a brief but effective biography. There was no ecclesiastical bond between the Governor and his biographer, but a friendship of forty years' continuance, the warmth of which is felt throughout the book. Believers in heredity will take fresh courage from a genealogical chapter which traces back the lineage of Gov. Wolcott to Oliver Wolcott, a signer of the Declaration, and his father, Roger Wolcott, Governor of the Connecticut Col-

ony. A pathetic chapter is that which describes the brothers of our time, Roger and Huntington Wolcott, the latter enlisting when but seventeen years old and dying just as the war-drums stopped beating. There was sensible deepening of the younger brother's nature by this tragic loss. At Harvard, Roger was a member of that class which was the first to receive its degrees from President Eliot, and his class-day oration was so good as to fasten itself on the memory of a war-worn veteran, Gen. Sherman. A chapter which describes him as "A Citizen" has for its climax his support of Cleveland in 1884, the more remarkable because he was, like George William Curtis, a strong party man. After the election he insisted on his regular standing in a Republican caucus, and so successfully that in 1885 he was sent as a delegate to the Republican State Convention. But his "treachery" was not forgotten, and in 1892 he was nominated for Lieutenant-Governor by 499 votes against 473 opposing. Nevertheless, he ran so much ahead of his ticket that he was elected, and yoked, not unequally, with a Democratic Governor, the late William E. Russell. It is doubtful if the two offices were ever better filled. The chapter on Wolcott's accession to the Governorship and his conduct in that office refreshes our memory of his courageous action in defiance of the labor agitators and the Spanish war "veterans" making monstrous claims. There are many extracts from his speeches which are conclusive of his ability to invest sound political ideas with a glowing style. In the Spanish war he made the best of a bad business, and did much to alleviate its horrors. His untimely death gives to the association of his name and fame with Gov. Russell's a more poignant note. Six portraits, from childhood up, of a face of striking beauty constitute a very notable addition to the pleasure which the book assures.

—In the second edition of his 'Money and Banking' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) Mr. Horace White has done much more than bring down to date the facts, and up to date the discussion of the facts, relating to that more than ever timely subject. The work has been practically rewritten, though it retains, of course, the characteristic features of the original edition, with the exception of such parts as had special reference to controversies now to be regarded as obsolete. To the general subject of silver and bimetallism much less space is devoted than in the first edition, which appeared in the fall of 1895. The fulness and interest, however, of the illustrations from American history which the sub-title of the book promises are entirely unimpaired. In our review of the first edition we remarked that, "apart from a few short chapters, the exposition of principles has the appearance of being brought in incidentally, as though suggested by the events of the story, rather than as constituting the central object of the work"—a mode of treatment calculated to be extremely attractive to the general reader, but not fully satisfactory to the economic student. The rewriting of the work has been largely occasioned by the author's desire to cast it into a form more adapted to systematic study, and in this he has succeeded without sacrificing the freshness or changing the essential character of his original presentation. The part relating to the subject of banking in its broader aspects has been greatly enlarged, and in its present shape will be found invaluable by those desiring to understand the current discussions on that subject in this country. We note the misprint "millions" for "thousands" in the line preceding the table referring to the Scotch banks (p. 397), and the same slip in the corresponding place as to the Bank of France (p. 406), and as to the German Reichsbank (p. 410). Among the appendices is one devoted to the Indianapolis Monetary Commission's plan for a national bank currency, and another to the Fowler bill; Mr. White gives a cordial endorsement to the former.

## MORE BOOKS ON ART.

*William Hogarth.* By Austin Dobson. With an Introduction on Hogarth's Workmanship, by Sir Walter Armstrong. London: William Heinemann; New York: McClure, Phillips & Co. 1902.

*Turner.* By Sir Walter Armstrong. London: Thomas Agnew & Sons; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

*Constable* and his Influence on Landscape Painting. By C. J. Holmes. Westminster: Archibald Constable & Co., Ltd.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

*Pintoricchio* (Bernardo di Betto of Perugia): His Life, Work and Time. By Corrado Ricci, Director of the Brera, Milan. From the Italian by Florence Simmonds. London: William Heinemann; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1902.

*Luca and Andrea Della Robbia and their Successors.* By Maud Cruttwell. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

*Nineteenth-Century Art.* By D. S. MacColl. With a Chapter on Early Art Objects, by Sir T. D. Gibson-Carmichael, Bart. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan Co. 1902.

*William Morris,* Poet, Craftsman, Socialist. By Elizabeth Luther Cary. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

*Frederick Walker.* By Clementina Black. (The Popular Library of Art.) London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

Books could hardly vary more in physical presence than do these eight, from the ponderous folios on Hogarth, Turner and Constable, and the splendors of colored illustration of the 'Pintoricchio,' to the modest little volume of the "Popular Library of Art"; but they are all entitled to serious consideration for one quality or another, and the order of bulk is as good as any in which to consider them.

The two great books on Hogarth and Turner, though from different publishers, are really companion volumes, and both will match in size and general appearance the splendid publications on Reynolds and Gainsborough which have been brought out in the last year or two by Heinemann in London and Scribners in New York. The literary quality of Hogarth has always tempted writers aside from the consideration of his artistic merit, and Mr. Austin Dobson's text, which is not new, is no exception to the rule. His criticism is founded, generally, on the plates rather than on the original pictures, and concerns itself rather with the story-telling and the psychology of the artist than with his power of pictorial composition or of painting. Recently a reaction has set in, and the world has discovered that Hogarth was really a considerable painter as well as a satirist. Under this reaction the illustration of this volume has been planned, which does justice for the first time to Hogarth's pictures, and Sir William Armstrong has been induced to add an introduction dealing with the painter as a workman. In this we think the reaction has carried him too far, and leads him to minimize the stepping aside from art for moral and literary ends of which Hogarth was undoubtedly guilty. That artist was a sound painter, if not a brilliant one, and had a good deal of pictorial feeling; but it is surely not true that he "has so wedded probability to æsthetic fitness, over the course of long histories, that at no point can we stop and say, 'There comes in the story-teller; there we have a detail that was not wanted in the pictorial scheme.'" Surely his continual recourse to *written* information of the names and actions of his characters, in letters or papers which could not possibly be read at the supposed distance of the spectator, is dictated alone by the wants of the story-teller. The declaration, on the basis of the etching of Simon Lord Lovat, that Hogarth was "potentially a great sculptor," seems to us another case in which Sir Walter has been carried beyond the bounds of sober criticism by the new interest in an art which has been neglected while the artist was over-praised for everything else.

At any rate, Sir Walter Armstrong has always something to say, and of Turner he has so much to say to the purpose that one is led rather to regret the sumptuousness of the volume in which his text appears as likely to distract attention from his criticism. In spite of its splendid illustration, this book is so far from being a mere picture-book that we consider it the best analysis of Turner's genius that has yet appeared, and regret extremely that we are not to have it in a cheaper, smaller, and more readable form. We have heard so much of Turner as a great creator, and have seen so much of his recklessness of local and even of general truth in the effort to render his gorgeous visions, that it seems at first paradoxical to maintain that he was rather an illustrator than a creator, and that Ruskin was right, after all, in thinking him a worshipper of nature, though wrong, precisely on that account, in thinking him the greatest of artists or even of landscape-painters. This, however, is what Armstrong maintains, with great ingenuity, and, as it seems to us, with great justice, explaining that lack of appeal of Turner's works to many artists who are constrained to admit his power and knowledge, but cannot like him. What many must long have felt, more or less dimly, Sir Walter Armstrong has clearly formulated. His argument is somewhat scattered through different parts of his book, and we shall endeavor to condense it and put it into our own words.

In the first place, then, Turner was no decorator. He cared for no art but painting, and cared for that primarily as an illustration of nature, not as a thing by itself. Many painters, at first sight much

more realistic than he, are more truly creators. Take Corot as an instance: he thinks in pictures, and creates a harmony of tones and forms as his first business; he can stick pretty close to the facts of a given scene, and yet his subtle modulations and modifications produce something which is really entirely independent of the facts, and even of nature itself, for its essential quality. Turner had little of this instinct for making a picture of the simplest materials; the materials themselves are what interest him most, and he crowds his canvas with myriads of them; they are never splendid and varied enough to express his excited interest in natural beauty and grandeur, so he enlarges and alters and falsifies them, not to create a work of art, but to make the scene itself more magnificent and spectacular than it really is. He spent half his life pitting himself against this or that artist of the past, and yet he never understood their art, and thought he had surpassed Claude or Poussin when he had put more natural fact into their framework; not seeing that the amount of fact contained was the thing of least importance. He had a prodigious industry, a colossal appetite for observation, and acquired a vastly greater stock of knowledge than any other landscape-painter; but he was less a painter than almost any of them, and had, at least in oils, no respect for his material and little for the limits of his art. His interest in nature gradually swung from the facts of things to the phenomena of light, but it was always the illustration of nature that interested him, and the intensity of this interest drove him continually to attempt the painting of the unpaintable. He admired the landscape of Italy, and he tried to put it all in one frame; he was interested in moonrise at sunset, and he put the moon and sun on the same side of the heavens. He had the pre-Raphaelite adoration, without the pre-Raphaelite humility, before nature; no one scene, no one quarter of the horizon, no one hour of the day satisfied him, but he must jumble all together, producing a kind of wonderful nonsense, glorifying nature by defying all its laws. He is audacious, energetic, powerful, but never self-restrained; he puzzles, shocks, excites, overwhelms, or merely disgusts, but he seldom pleases. Because, with all his "splendid lies," he yet hints at more natural truth than any other painter, he will remain, to the Ruskinian, the greatest of painters; to the lover of art it will always seem that many modest talents are more truly admirable.

Only a trifle less imposing in size and wealth of illustration is the volume devoted to another English landscape painter, who, though his genius is less striking than Turner's, has had a vastly greater influence on the art of the world. Turner's chief advocate, Ruskin, could see little or nothing in Constable's work, as he never learned to see anything in that of Constable's legitimate successors, the so-called Barbizon School. To-day we look upon these latter as the greatest landscape painters of all time, and consider it one of the glories of England that an English painter should have been an appreciable factor in the formation of their style. By means of three preliminary chapters on the art of landscape before Constable and two chapters on Constable's successors, Mr. Holmes has made his book an essay on the development of landscape art, into which is sandwiched a sufficiently detailed life of Constable himself. In such a review it is rather surprising how little the influence of Turner counts for. His scenic grandeur has counted for nothing at all in an art that has steadily grown more intimate, until the painter whom he may most have influenced by his key of light, Claude Monet, could spend his best efforts on a haystack. Constable's own influence Mr. Holmes is not inclined to exaggerate, though he does not minimize it. When the Romantic revolution was beginning in France, and the younger artists were trying to revive the art of painting, it was natural that they should be affected by the only school in Europe in which painting was still alive, the English. Bonington was an Englishman, and Géricault had spent years in England. In 1824 Constable and Lawrence exhibited in the Salon, the one receiving a gold medal and the other the Legion of Honor, while Delacroix was induced by the sight of Constable's pictures to repaint the background of his "Massacre of Scio" in a fresher key of color. It is true that at this time Rousseau was only twelve years old and Corot was not yet an exhibitor, but it was far from the last time that Constable's pictures were seen in France, and his influence was not exerted entirely through Delacroix. It was not dominating, but it was assuredly one that counted, and it was exercised in the direction of those peculiarly modern qualities, simplicity and intimacy of subject and truth of natural color and effect. Delacroix himself called Constable "le père de notre école de paysage," title enough to immortality.

If Turner was no decorator, Pintoricchio was nothing else. The lavish illustration of the present volume, much of it in colors, gives a better opportunity of judging his work than could anything short of an Italian journey devoted to him, and the result is but to confirm our impression of his essential insignificance. Only in an odd portrait or two does he show anything approaching serious artistic qualities. It is not merely that his drawing and painting, as such, are poor, but even the higher decorative qualities are absent, and he rather enriched the walls on which he painted than truly beautified them. He covered them with ornament and gold and bright colors, and produced a splendid and brilliant effect, but the harmonies of line and space that make the greatness of a Raphael are as lacking as the harmonies of light and color that make a Veronese. Signor Ricci lavishes the resources of connoisseurship in attempting to show which parts of the decoration of the Borgia apartment are by the master, and where we see the hands of his assistants; but really the difference of quality is so slight that the matter is of no importance whatever. It is all good enough for its purpose, which is the decorative effect of the whole; and for that effect we know that Pintoricchio was responsible. His one merit is that of an *entrepreneur* of decorations, and no one cares how many hands were employed in the actual work. That of his own, too, is little better than or different from the rest.

It is only when it becomes possible that Pintoricchio employed a greater man than himself that the question of his assistants assumes any real interest. Did or did not Raphael have anything to do with the work in the Siena Library? Vasari and tradition say yes; Signor Ricci says no. The drawings in the Venice Sketch Book prove anything or nothing, according as we decide who did them, but the best authorities seem still to leave some of them to Raphael. The very uncertainty would seem to point to *some* connection between the two painters. That Pintoricchio's methods were known to Raphael and greatly influenced him in the first of his own decorations in the Vatican, the "Disputa," is certain; but this does not prove that Raphael had been actually Pintoricchio's assistant. The question must finally be decided on the basis of a number of scattered drawings, and we must regret that the illustration of the present volume is here lamentably incomplete, and that the drawings are not given. Even Signor Ricci admits that one or two of them are by Raphael, but maintains that Pintoricchio used them as he had before used certain sketches of Orientals by Gentile Bellini. The most important of them, the squared sketch for the first of the compositions, now in the Uffizi, he "accepts as by Pintoricchio himself," and lets it go at that, without mentioning the chief arguments of Claude Phillips and others to prove that it is Raphael's. Were the drawing reproduced, as it is by Phillips, the reader might judge, and we do not see how he could judge otherwise than that Phillips is right. We may concede that the frescoes "do not contain a single touch from Raphael's brush"; but that Raphael, whether as paid assistant or complaisant friend, furnished the sketch for the first and specimen composition, seems to us to admit of little doubt.

Miss Cruttwell's book on the Della Robbias is a modest, conscientious, thorough, and scholarly study, and probably comes as near to disentangling the work of the several members of that prolific family as is possible at present. It is likely, for some time to come, to remain the leading authority for students, while its illustrations make it a possession for the general art-lover. In her high and deserved admiration for Luca's art, Miss Cruttwell cuts down the works attributable to him to their narrowest limits; her conservatism yielding in only one case that we have noted. She and Professor Marquand are a minority of two in attributing to the founder of the school the beautiful "Visitation" of San Giovanni Fuorcivitas, Pistoja, a work in every way worthy of his hand.

It would be difficult to find a book in which the text and the illustrations have a less intimate connection than in 'Nineteenth-Century Art.' Mr. MacColl, having been asked to write an accompaniment for a selection of pictures from the loan collection of the Glasgow International Exhibition of 1901, has given us an essay on the development of painting and sculpture in the nineteenth century, together with separate notices of the most important artists of that period. Both picture and text are good, and the text is the better for its freedom from the petty care of conformity to the pictures. The chapter on "Art Objects" deals more directly with the matter illustrated, but in its turn has nothing to do with nineteenth-century art. Mr. MacColl's discussion of the tendencies of modern painting, particularly of the growth of

that new view of color which is broadly called "impressionism," is admirable on the whole, but he seems to us to confuse still more the already confused use of the word "values." It is getting to be impossible to tell what any one means by "values." Fromentin, who perhaps first used the word in literature, meant the degree of dark or light of any color as distinguished from its hue, and generally referred it to masses of what painters call "local color" without much regard to small variations of light and shade. Later it came to include, in painters' language, all degrees of variation of light and dark from whatever cause, so that a picture was just in "value" if the variations of light and dark were truly noted, whether or not it possessed color, and even if it were done in monochrome. Mr. MacColl now extends it to cover the different *hues* of light and shadow under colored light, and, by making it mean too much, makes it mean nothing. He is taking for an example a snowy landscape under colored light, and says: "Each different angle and facet of the snow presents us with a different hue and a different tone, and the high reflecting power of the snow makes the difference of color more striking than the difference of tone. . . . All this is resumed in modern parlance under the term 'value'." He goes on to speak of conditions under which two lights should be "equal in tone" and differ only in hue, and he seems still to consider that the difference is a difference of "values." A painter would say that the lights differed in color or hue, and *not* in value. It is much to be wished that critics could agree on their vocabulary and restrict "value" to degree of light and dark; "color" to the variation of hue; and "tone" to the just combination of "value" and "color." As it is, "tone" is an even harder-worked word than "value."

We have not space to consider in detail Mr. MacColl's criticisms of individual figures in modern art, many of which show a clear and acute vision. His interest in modern technical problems grapples with and overthrows his insular partialities, and his mild depreciation of some of the greatest of British artists who are not "modern" is occasionally amusing.

If it were only for the illustrations, which give an idea of what he actually did in several of the arts of design, Miss Cary's single volume would give a better picture of William Morris than the two of Mr. Mackail's official biography, but the written picture also gains in clearness what it loses in detail. We see the whole man and the connection between the several and various parts of him, and find, as the thread running through everything, from his poetry to his Socialism, the curious sham-mediævalism which led him to concoct an almost unintelligible vocabulary for his later writings, and to design a Gothic type when he wanted to make printing easy to read as well as beautiful to look at. He always mistook his emotions for reasoning, and his emotions were stirred only by what was old. He "wanted to make John Bull over again into John Calf," as Charles Reade said, and his ultra-conservatism led him into Socialism, because the modern world was so intolerable to him that he was willing to destroy it altogether rather than acquiesce in it as it stood. A few years' experience convinced him that he had really nothing in common with the agitators among whom he found himself, and he drifted back into amiable dilettantism and the futile effort at reviving the art of the past instead of improving that of the present. He made the effort pay, as far as he was personally concerned, but we cannot think he will have any great influence on the future as regards either the conditions of artistic production or the style of art produced, though he undoubtedly contributed greatly to the revival of interest in the minor arts.

People still seem to take an interest in the diluted pre-Raphaelitism of Fred Walker, and this artist, whom Mr. MacColl dismisses with a few lines, is the subject of one of the little volumes of the "Popular Library of Art," a volume far from equal to some of its predecessors in interest of subject or mastery of treatment, though it is a very good book in its way. We must confess that, for us, as for many others, the best of Walker's production is contained in his illustrations and the water colors founded on them, like the "Philip in Church"—things in the vein of Millais's black-and-white work. His more ambitious oil paintings, such as "Vagrants," "The Plough," and "The Harbor of Refuge," are vaguely disquieting and unsatisfactory, and at first one wonders why. Critics who have felt this have usually traced the fault to the pseudo-Greek air of some of the figures, and Miss Black quotes some of them to that effect. Mr. Claude Phillips speaks of one figure as "aggressively Phidian in its calculated classic grace," and of another as "more classical still than the fustian-clad divinity of 'The Old Gate,' and more self-conscious"; while Ruskin speaks of "the ridiculous mower, galvanized Elgin in his attitude." Upon this Miss Black very properly comments: "Let us grant that both figures do resemble Greek statues; let us even suppose that some contemporary of Phidias had left a statue in this very pose of the mower—what then? If Walker's figures are true to that of which they and the Elgin marbles alike are but reflections—to life, that is, and to the natural, unstudied movements of human action—why complain of what the later presentment has in common with the earlier." At first blush this seems unanswerable. Why, indeed, should that very studied beauty which is a merit in classic sculpture become a fault in modern painting? And yet one instinctively feels that Ruskin and Phillips are right.

We think the key to the difficulty is to be found in another part of this volume. Walker's "one recorded saying" about art is given on page 15, and it is that "composition is the art of preserving the accidental look." That is the saying of a man who had little feeling for composition, and it is the lack of composition that spoils Walker's later work. Classic figures demand to be seen in classic compositions and with classic backgrounds. As long as Walker's figures were as "accidental" as his backgrounds and his composition, everything was at least harmonious and enjoyable in its own way. When he began to give us studied and classic poses, the eye resented the absence of great lines of composition and the presence of unassimilated accident in the landscape, and found his work inharmonious and baffling. Perhaps if he had lived, he might have learned to treat the landscape as he did the figure and thus secure a graver harmony. Perhaps, as some of his latest work seems to show, he would have gone back to something like his earlier method. It seems symptomatic of natural weakness that the painter of the French school who most impressed him was Jules Breton.

## ELLWANGER'S PLEASURES OF THE TABLE.

*The Pleasures of the Table:* An Account of Gastronomy from Ancient Days to Present Times. By George H. Ellwanger. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 477.

George H. Ellwanger, M.A., is a man (for his observations on truffles would, by themselves, suffice to persuade us of the error of 'Who's Who in America' in making him his parents' *daughter*), and is, indeed, a well-known author, not destitute of wit, and an adept at handling the pen. Nobody will expect to find here the *esprit* and steely style of Brillat-Savarin—a mere knack, after all, since Balzac could exactly imitate it throughout a whole volume. But this work has the advantage of being agreeable reading, and not that revolting mixture of physiology with appeals to the reader's personal consciousness. Its tasteful covers enclose hardly a single page that is not positively entertaining. The writing has all the lightness and propriety that its subject demands, with a certain appropriate aroma of French, as indefinable as that of a dish of fresh truffles still covered by the napkin, a just-opened bottle of Léoville-Poyferré alongside of it—

> "Et je ne comprends pas quel expert inhabile
> A pu dans les seconds classer le Léoville,"

says a poet worthy of Mr. Ellwanger's attention, Biarnez—mingling its perfume. There are no Gallicisms in the syntax nor in the acceptations of words; the English is irreproachable, is scrupulously, almost fastidiously, correct. There are a great many translated passages of some length, both in prose and in verse; and these are done so deftly (where the versions are not borrowed) that it is a pleasure to compare them with the originals. The style is plastic, shaping itself to the subjects of the different chapters. There is in it, through the greater part of the volume, a dash of Charles Lamb, very suitable to a book about books, so long as it is not so strong as to seem put on. For, mainly, this is a book about books, a sufficiently complete history of gastronomy.

Of original discussion of nice questions of preference in eating there is not very much. Nor can we regret it. If there be any direction in which the author's discrimination is less unerring than the laws of nature, it is just in this matter of eating and drinking. From a writer who would heat a dining-room to 70 degrees or 73 degrees, who pronounces that Mohammedans and Hindus have no cuisine worthy of the name (thereby calling to mind one of the lightest, most appetizing, and best-wearing of the dishes of this sublunary orb, pilaf, not to speak of kabobs, of those *entrées* into which the gourd enters, nor of those wonderful concoctions of mince-meat and esculents that are cooked in hermetically sealed porous earthen vessels; calling to mind, too, so original and satisfactory a repast as one of which a good curry forms the centre); who prefers the veal of "Germany," taken indiscriminately, to that of

French Lorraine, and the *pré salé* of Normandy and Brittany to the wild mountain mutton of Asia Minor; who holds that the sweet breath of the lettuce ought to be contaminated with that of onions, instead of being wafted to the empyrean on the cherub wings of garlic; who praises what is coarsest and indigestiblest in the "American cuisine," and overlooks the many delicacies that abound on humble tables scattered through our remote districts—from such a writer we can content ourselves with receiving but a meagre nosegay of his gastronomic decisions. His erudition, on the other hand, is boundless, or bounded only where print is bounded; and some of his chapters must perforce have resulted from his own researches, since there are no secondary authorities from whom they could have been drawn. He need not fear that any reader can fail to appreciate the range of his acquaintance with the books. In giving passages from Dionysius of Sinope, from Cratinus the Younger, from Philemon, from Hegesippus (whom he calls Hegesander), from Artemidorus Aristophanius (whom he calls Artemidor), and from other such, there was no occasion for assuming an air of having searched their writings through, since the learned and the simple will otherwise be sufficiently impressed with the author's industry, while everybody particularly interested in gastronomy will know perfectly well what the single source of all those fragments is.

The work is one of real value; but if we are asked whether or not it is accurate, we shall be reminded of a question and answer once overheard in a Nahant barge: "Is Asy's wife pious?" "Well, she's *'piscopal*-pious." So of this book, we may say that it has an after-dinner accuracy. Brillat-Savarin is referred to throughout as "Savarin," and in one place it is formally stated that the name was Brillat de Savarin. Now, while we make no pretension to private information, and while we are quite aware that persons who wished to speak flatteringly of him used sometimes to call him M. de Savarin, just as one might call Fouquier-Tinville M. de Tinville, if that could conciliate him ("Hé, bon jour, M. de Corbeau"), yet we believe the name was as it is universally given. Presumably, the male stock had originally borne the name Brillat, to which Savarin had been added as a sort of quartering, as with thousands of such bourgeois designations. Berchoux's sprightly poem is said to have been published in 1801, although Mr. Ellwanger must be familiar with the fact that it went through three editions in 1800. But probably at the moment of writing the sentence he had in mind some statement that it appeared in the first year of the nineteenth century. The most celebrated of all taverns, Aux Trois Frères Provençaux, is, on page 213, called "The Provincial Brothers," as if they were *provinciaux*. The story about the knighting of the sirloin by Charles II. is given without any warning against the ridiculous derivation of a word in use in English, as Wedgwood shows, from the time of Henry VI., and still older in French. Of course, the prank may have been actually played by Charles II., but it is more likely to be fabulous. On page 29, Cælius Apicius, the writer of the cook-book, is spoken of in immediate juxtaposition to the famous Marcus Gabius Apicius, in such a way (both being called simply Apicius) as to convey the idea that they are one person. Further on (p. 41), the relation of the one to the other is correctly explained. Nicomedes is called King of the Babylonians, instead of King of Bithynia. The Greek cocotte Barsine appears as Bariné, as if she were a hetaira of Paris. The early Greeks are said to have been in the habit of taking four regular meals a day; but another statement about them is eminently true; namely, on page 9 we read: "Coffee, of very remote use in Abyssinia, was unknown to the early Greeks and Romans." These are merely a small selection from the illustrations we have noted of the kind of accuracy of the work.

The volume is a very beautiful and tasteful one, printed with Caslon-like type and the blackest ink, upon paper which, though calendared, is not too heavy. There are some three-dozen charming illustrations reproduced from old prints, with delightful vignettes and ornaments. It is so sumptuous that when one finds it entertaining and instructive enough to be well worth having in any dress, one is quite taken by surprise.

## NOVELS, AND NO END.

*Jethro Bacon, and the Weaker Sex.* By F. J. Stimson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Diary of a Saint.* By Arlo Bates. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*John Gayther's Garden*, and the Stories Told Therein. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

*The Housewives of Edenrise.* By Florence Popham. D. Appleton & Co.

*An Old Country-house.* By Richard Le Gallienne. Illustrated by Elizabeth Shippen Green. Harper & Brothers.

*The Biography of a Prairie Girl.* By Eleanor Gates. The Century Co.

Mr. Stimson rightly names his two stories "Studies of New England Strength of Character." Possibly he is weary of New England's cinnamon roses and codfish. At all events, if there be any readers on whom this literary health food has palled, they have here a chance to see what a passionate pilgrim for material may find in Boston and on Cape Cod, of Balzac-like situation and darkly melodramatic episode. Tragedy suits the lonely sand dunes, and there we seem to be at home with her. But Mr. Stimson has further domesticated the grim Muse within the white gates and behind the green blinds of New England, with sordidness and sin as her handmaidens, even as they flourish in tales of the Latin Quarter. In the second story, the city surroundings take away in part the surprised shock imparted by the powers of darkness. Against the background of slums and crime stand out radiantly the characters of the skipper parson and the hero woman. This is a bearable tragedy. Both are of unmistakable power; but the story of Jethro Bacon, from its very nearness to Nature's open air and its intrusion on ground possessing other associations, weighs like lead on the consciousness, which yet perforce acknowledges the harsh, painful truth of the picture.

A further proof that New England is decidedly emerging from her gingham pinafore days in fiction is afforded by Arlo Bates's new story. Behold herein a frankly agnostic heroine, the child of parents whose agnosticism was not negative but militant. The iron-bound theologies that surround Ruth Privet in her country town are by her own admission out of date in cities; but Tuskamuck still held to the old isms and horrors, and many of Ruth's experiences led her into puzzling encounter with them. The motive of the story is the portrayal of the saintliness that may abide in a woman who is at once unselfish (almost to the point of miracle), large-hearted, clever, well bred, full of humor, and free from entangling alliances with all revealed religion. Her year's experiences with herself and her neighbors, good and bad, make an interesting story. With all her sweetness and breadth, she has the illogic of her logical convictions, as when she says of prayer: "I wondered if I should be happier if I could share this belief in the power of men to move the unseen by supplication, but I reflected that this would imply the continual discomfort of believing in invisible beings who would do me harm unless properly placated, and I was glad to be as I am." Here is surely an undistributed middle. The triumph of Ruth's convictions would be greater artistically and theologically were there, as pendant to her portrait, even one character who should possess both religion and charity.

Many of the stories in Mr. Stockton's volume recall the old-time fillip of surprise and conjecture and the sense of a new sense, that he ushered into fiction. The diver who breathes for two hours the sixteenth-century air of a submerged galleon and comes up "as a man who swashbuckles," is an instance. All Frank Stockton's lovers and lamenters will read the book with increased love and lamenting. "The stories are all told. The winter has come," is his own fitly spoken good-by to the garden where the story-tellers met.

The tale of an English village, its matrons, maids, and the siren who rents the vacant house, is told glibly and with some originality in 'The Housewives of Edenrise,' a place whose society is described by the siren as consisting of the "old-fashioned, sitting-hen kind of woman, their bald and highly respectable husbands, enlivened by one milk-and-water curate." The usual incidents of such a community are related with a fair amount of humor, and now and then a pungent epigram. It must be added that some discussion of intimate topics goes on which might with advantage have taken place behind closed doors. The book is too serious to be called flippant, too full of common sense to be called silly, yet not so clever as to inebriate, and hardly so wholesome as to cheer.

A very beautiful volume as to printing, outer dress, and illustrations is Mr. Le Gallienne's, and an altogether charming one as to contents. Lovers of old houses, old gardens, old books, old sundials, and lovers of lovers old and young, may spend a fragrant hour among its pages. The chapter on "Perdita's Simple Cupboard" is a pure delight. Think of her among her books on herbs "turning the leaves—I had almost said petals—of a precious first edition"! The closing chapter, showing how Perdita kept Christmas with old observances of carols, Yule log, and the gigantic pie trundled about the table and then from cottage door to door, gives the volume a seasonable

aspect. But it has nature worship and poetry for all the year round, with enough of human interest to serve as string for the pearls.

'The Biography of a Prairie Girl' is undeniably strong and striking as a picture of life on a Dakota farm. Reading it, one sees the prairie, the corn furrows, the cottonwoods, and enters upon the hazards, glooms, and occasional pleasures of farming in a new country where Indians may steal the horses, and gophers will certainly steal the corn. The little heroine, strapped on a pinto at four and a half and set to herding cattle, grows visibly to girlhood, where we leave her, in pages full of the adventure and risk that make daily life on the plains. An engaging little puss she is, often in difficulties and dangers of her own making, forgetting to do her agricultural duties while she lies dreaming on the grass, passionately loving her pets, be they pony or tamed badger, wandering through the strange ways of a life that makes contradictory demands of youth and age on all who live it; a quaint little figure, prematurely old in out-of-door learning, pathetically ignorant of childhood's pleasures. The story is told in a singular way, with a plethora of adjectives, and a use throughout of paraphrase to the exclusion of all names; as, "The little girl," "The biggest brother," etc. We discern no advantage in this affectation, and could wish that the whole tale were more simply told, with less of what children call "thick part," and more alleviation in the shape of conversation. But the lights and shades of Western farm living could hardly have a more graphic showing than in this story of a child, which yet is not for children.

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*Scottish History and Life.* Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1902.

Buckle, in a celebrated but libellous passage, taxes the Scotch with the backwardness of their civilization. Not only did "the ferocious Highlanders live entirely by plunder," but the burghers of the Lowlands differed little from savages until a comparatively late date. Down to the seventeenth century, "no glass was manufactured in Scotland, neither was any soap made there. Even the higher class of citizens would have deemed windows absurd in their wretched abodes; and as they were alike filthy in their persons as in their houses, the demand for soap was too small to induce any one to attempt its manufacture."

We shall not go so far as to assert that all the allegations of Buckle are disproved by the book before us, but we will say that it furnishes a more attractive picture of Scottish life and culture than is afforded by the second chapter of his second volume. In a word, this very handsome volume is a memorial of the Glasgow Exhibition. Historical collections of great interest and value were there brought together for the sake of illustrating different stages of the national development. But objects thus gathered are quickly dispersed, and can be reassembled only for a great occasion. Hence it was decided to utilize this material "in telling the story of Scottish History, and showing what the people were who made it." The editor, Mr. James Paton, also states "that no effort has been spared to make this volume both a vivid and an accurate picture of Scottish History and Life."

In describing the nature of the contents, we must divide honors evenly between the four hundred and thirty-seven illustrations and the twenty-three chapters which they serve to adorn. The co-operative plan has been followed, and each separate aspect of history or culture is treated by a specialist of recognized authority. Dr. D. H. Fleming and Mr. H. G. Graham are the only contributors who furnish more than a single chapter, and the table of contents presents nearly a score of names. According to another division, history receives eleven chapters, and the same number is devoted to various aspects of the national life; while, in conclusion, Mr. William Young furnishes such memorials of Glasgow as explain the growth of the town at which the exhibition was held.

Regarding the illustrations, it may be said that they bear all the marks of authenticity. Moreover, the choice of subjects is excellent, and good modes of reproduction have been employed. Most of the full-page plates are executed in half-tone, but there are also some fine photogravures—for example, the frontispiece, which represents the Darnley Cenotaph, and a striking portrait of Dundee. In every case the mechanical work is good of its kind. If we were seeking for a standard of comparison, we should suggest that the illustrations of this book agree with the text, and explain it in much the same way that the illustrations chosen by Mrs. J. R. Green and Miss Kate Norgate add to Green's 'History of England.' Objects like the Ruthwell cross, the brooch of Lorne, the oak cradle of Queen Mary, and the wine glasses of the Jacobites are shown in great profusion; almost all the leading politicians and notables are represented either by portrait or autograph; town seals and loving-cups, dirks and broadswords, pages from chronicles and illuminated missals, appear with regularity at the proper places. We do not praise the work too highly when we say that good talent accompanies good scholarship throughout.

Writers and illustrators have both done their subject justice, but, after all, it cannot be affirmed that the Scotland of the Middle Ages or of the Stuart régime was in any special sense a home of the arts. Poverty, turbulence, and isolation were barriers which the incipient genius of the north could not well break through. The general conditions were in some respects similar to those which prevailed among the Alps, though on the whole the Scotch made a better use of their opportunity than did the Swiss. Where so much was borrowed, we need not pause to discriminate between French friends and English foes. It is more candid as well as less harsh to say that, despite the hostility of nature and the fierceness of their chieftains, the Scotch did recognize a difference between refinement and barbarism. Their pursuit of beauty and elegance was not wholly successful, but the Lowlander at least had grasped the idea that decency is better than squalor before the day when James VI. mounted the English throne.

The historical chapters of this volume, besides being well written, are marked off from the generality of such sketches by their closeness of contact with the illustrations. It is, however, to the chapters on social life that most readers will turn when they begin to examine the text closely. Studies like the editor's paper on Scottish towns, Mr. Kerr's account of the national games, and Dr. Murray's description of the universities, are more likely to fill a gap than is the best résumé of political history. The mention of this last subject brings to mind a shortcoming of the Scottish universities upon which Dr. Murray dwells with great earnestness. Notwithstanding their belief in education and the sacrifices that they make on its behalf, the Scotch do not seem even at the present day to entertain much affection for their universities. The students see little of each other and have few interests in common. According to Dr. Murray, "the student life of the ordinary Scottish undergraduate, at least in the large universities, is a dull one; the university does nothing for him as a student but worry him with lectures and examinations, and does nothing for him after he leaves her care except to keep his name upon the books." Such is the condition. Of equal significance is the remedy which Dr. Murray proposes, namely, an adoption of American methods, and the development of a class feeling. Should his suggestion be heeded, Scotland may receive from the United States, besides Mr. Carnegie's money, the benefits which are represented by cane rushes, Greek-letter societies, and amphitheatrical football games! Speaking seriously, our college life possesses attractions which are unknown at Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen. Perhaps we shall do well to recall this fact in moments when we are dismayed by certain ebullitions of undergraduate energy.

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*New Amsterdam and its People.* By J. H. Innes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The various contributors to the voluminous literature concerning the history of the city of New York have treated the subject in very various ways and from widely different points of view. John Fiske, with brilliant generalizations and philosophic inferences, regards it as an integral part of the country's colonial history; Mrs. Lamb entertains us with sprightly and gossiping relations of families and their changes; in the *Goede Vrouw* of Manhattan Mrs. Van Rensselaer paints the inner life and domestic virtues of the Dutch matrons. These sketches are fitly supplemented by her elaborate tables of genealogies, separately published, which have proved of much service for the biographies of families of later date, and useful to conveyancers for tracing title to real property. Besides these more serious works, many clever monographs exist shedding light on special periods or persons in the town's story.

The present author conducts his account in a quite novel way, from the first beginning of separate streets and buildings through their connection with the succession of persons who have occupied them, illustrating these by noted characters, with personal sketches. This method, though fragmentary, brings out detached points of lively interest. The period within which the author chooses to confine his researches—that between the discovery of the islands and the final surrender of its

dominion to the English in 1674—does not preclude scope for much interesting variety of treatment. True, the public events recorded are of narrow range and slight importance. The building of forts, palisades, a church, and public warehouses, the purchase of the island from the Indians, wars with the savages and the intruding Swedes, the creation of the class of patroons, and the establishment of the Boweries, and city charters, comprise the public events marking that space of time. But the great world across the sea seethed with a ferment that reacted upon this insignificant nook of earth. The Thirty Years' War, the cruel religious persecutions, and the upsetting of dynasties involved in their sweep these far-away lands, and threw upon their shores a mingled and adventurous population.

It is an error, then, to suppose, as is generally believed, that the early settlers of Manhattan, though mainly Dutch, were purely so. Almost all foreign civilized nations were represented among the immigrants to this island in the half century following its first settlement. The first private building described is the White Horse Tavern, in the lower part of what is now Broad Street, occupied by a French settler, Philip Gerard, or Geraerdy, as his Dutch neighbors called him. The name of the Delancys, refugees after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, early appears in holders of a great estate along the Bowery, which would have made them, had it not been confiscated at the American Revolution, almost the richest landholders of that date. The Scotch line of the Livingstons was planted here early, and appears about 1670 as wealthy and politically eminent. Another striking personage described in this volume among the later colonists was the Scotchman William Paterson, adventurer and financier, celebrated by Macaulay, and the projector of the Bank of England. He lived some years at New Amsterdam and at Albany, involved himself in noted quarrels, and at last returned to London, leaving his reputation and even his identity an historical puzzle. The Scotch line of Stirling, settled in New Jersey, and the French Jays, in Westchester, N. Y., soon took rank among the chief citizens of the young community.

Through such mingling of alien races, busy in divers pursuits, the town of New Amsterdam, at the time of its final surrender to the English in 1674, had, under the guidance of Dutch polity and thrift, grown to be a truly cosmopolitan community, quite justifying the author's description of it as a people not greatly different in its nature, however narrower in range, from the population which throngs the streets of Manhattan in this year of grace 1902.

Pursuing his plan of tracing the growth of this people through the slow building-up of its separate habitations, the author does not need to expand his treatment of his theme from the time when the few settlers plodded their way through muddy lanes over rough cobblestones to this era of stately parks, sky-piercing hives of industry, and avenues disembowelled by subways. The plain homes of traders, artisans, sailors, and farmers supply a sufficient field of human interest and progress. Localities suggest their creators and occupants. The record of many scores of such growing erections suggests scores of names, linked easily and naturally with their development, and in these little biographies is gathered a mine of incident and adventure. This treatment of the subject baffles the reviewer who seeks a clue or a principle in the multiform growth of a microcosm, but it is perhaps the more entertaining for being discontinuous and fragmentary.

The text is enlivened by some forty well-chosen illustrations, mostly engraved from diagrams and authentic official maps. An apt preface, a full index, and clear type leave nothing to be desired in the make-up of the volume.

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*Recollections of a Player.* By J. H. Stoddart. The Century Co. 1902.

These autobiographical notes of James H. Stoddart are chiefly valuable as a revelation of the man himself, and an illustration of the process by which good actors were made out of raw material in the old days before the stage had been converted by commercial speculators into an emporium for the display of tailors' models and realistic representations of police-court incidents. The author must be one of the oldest players still in harness, but is not to be accounted among those veterans who lag superfluous. On the contrary, he is, happily, in full possession of his bodily and mental faculties, and only recently won, in "The Bonnie Brier Bush," the crowning triumph of his career. For nearly fifty years he has occupied a most honorable position in the American Theatre, playing successfully many prominent parts, of the most diversified character, in old and modern comedy and the romantic drama, and to-day furnishes one of the most conspicuous examples of thorough competency to be found in the ranks of his profession. His story, reduced to its simplest elements, is a record of indefatigable industry, intense conscientiousness, and rare modesty. Interesting as it is on account of its complete naturalness and its manifestations of a sweet, genuine, and generous disposition, it contains nothing that is startling and but little that can be quoted. From the spirit of artistic jealousy it is absolutely free. It is full of the most kindly and ungrudging appreciation of the many distinguished actors with whom at various times the writer has been associated, but offers no word of unfavorable criticism or malicious comment Of his own successes he speaks gratefully but doubtfully, while lavish in the praise of his associates.

Born in Yorkshire, in October, 1827, the son of a provincial actor, he began acting while yet a child, and passed the long years of his novitiate as a member of the stock companies of various theatres in Scotland, Yorkshire, and Liverpool, earning a mere pittance by acting innumerable small characters of every description, and gradually working his way up to the position of leading man in provincial theatres of the first rank. It was in 1854 that he came to this country and secured an engagement with the elder Wallack, with whose brilliant company he was associated for many seasons. Later on he was a prominent member of the memorable body of players collected by A. M. Palmer at the Union Square Theatre, contributing in no small degree to some of the most notable successes achieved in romantic melodrama, and establishing for himself a reputation which extended from New York to California. Nor were his triumphs limited to one line of character. Although an actor of decided mannerisms and a man of utterly undisguisable personality, his intelligence and his training enabled him to exhibit a true versatility in the broadly comic Mark Meddle, the tigerish Père Michel, and the deeply pathetic, unhappy father in "Saints and Sinners." In all these and many other parts the habitual gestures of the man were so dominated by the informing spirit of the trained actor that there was no confusion of identity.

It may be noted here that there are many delusions, common to both actors and critics, concerning the meaning of versatility—at all events in the theatrical sense of the word. For instance, there is a prevalent idea that it relates chiefly, or largely, to externals. Actors skilled in the use of wigs, paint, paddings, and costumes for the transformation of their bodies, are constantly credited with the versatility of a Proteus, although in reality they never offer any other personality than their own. Other actors are reputed versatile because their own individuality is so weak and colorless that it seems to be equally well suited to any character they may undertake. Even so veteran an observer as Mr. Stoddart is not quite clear on this subject. He is inclined to undervalue versatility, and even to regard it as an obstacle to histrionic success. He quotes the case of an actor who played everything, and was always good, yet never made a mark in his profession. This player, doubtless, was lacking in character and mentality, and so never amounted to anything more than a pliant, agreeable, uninteresting nonentity. In bodily aspect all Mr. Stoddart's characters resemble each other closely, but in spirit they are widely different. Herein is manifested the intellectual versatility that counts, and this is a gift with which Mr. Stoddart is highly endowed, although he does not appear to be aware of it.

His modesty, indeed, has prevented him from doing himself full justice in many ways. In his long and active life he must have accumulated rich funds of experience and anecdote, but he does not draw upon either, rarely digressing from the plain record of his life, except to descant upon the abilities of his associates, few of whom were comparable with himself. In this respect the book is a disappointment, but it is very pleasant to find in an old actor a heart so fresh and genial, so unspoiled by success or disappointment, so cordial towards aspiring juniors, so entirely free from envy or suspicion. May he be long preserved to the stage which he adorns.

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*How to Sing.* By Lilli Lehmann. The Macmillan Co. Pp. 281.

Mr. Richard Aldrich's accurate and readable translation of Lilli Lehmann's book on singing appears simultaneously with the original German, and will be cordially welcomed by thousands of students and lovers of music. The German title of the book—'Meine Gesangskunst' (My Art of Song)—indicates one of its principal charms. It is a sort of autobiographic description of the processes by which the author herself learned to sing, and at every point her own experiences illustrate and enforce the rules given by her to singers

in regard to what they should do and what they should avoid. Those who are not students of the vocal art will be interested in her remarks on famous vocalists—Patti, Melba, Sembrich, Niemann, Betz, Wachtel, Silva. There are numerous pictures to illustrate the physiological side of singing; and the minuteness of some of her directions is instanced by the fact that she requires nearly a page of text and a diagram in two colors to show how she sings the word *Fräulein*. The author tells how she studied the rôle of Isolde, and a chapter is devoted to her method of interpreting three of the most popular songs in her repertory—Schumann's "Der Nussbaum," Brahms's "Feldeinsamkeit," and Schubert's "Erlking."

Mme. Lehmann is severe on the voice factories which turn out singers in two years, and contrasts this state of affairs (fostered by ignorant or unscrupulous managers) with the time when an eight-year course was required at the conservatories. She herself was so lucky as to have a mother who could sing, and who was her first teacher. She began humbly, in operetta, and gradually became one of the leading grand-opera singers of her time, differing from most others in not being a narrow specialist, but an expert in Italian florid song as well as in the Wagnerian drama. This versatility makes her ideally qualified to pose as a teacher for singers in general. Beginners who have difficulty with their breath will be consoled on reading that the writer herself was very short of breath by nature, and will be interested in her method of overcoming this defect. Singers of more mature years will eagerly read what she has to say about the secret of keeping the voice young. The hygienic hints alone would make the book indispensable to every singer; they are all based on personal experience. One of her topics is the reason why artists like to sing Wagner. There are also remarks on the duration of concerts, on applause, on the behavior of audiences, and many other things of interest to music-lovers. While holding that "it is not enough to sing well; one must also know how one does it," Mme. Lehmann admits that there are exceptions. Patti could give no explanation of her art, but answered all questions concerning it with an "Ah, je n'en sais rien."

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*Daniel Boone.* By Reuben Gold Thwaites. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1902.

Daniel Boone (1734-1820) was an extreme type of our foremost frontiersmen. Born in eastern Pennsylvania, he moved far West with various halts, chiefly in Kentucky, and, keeping on the outer fringe, was in Spanish service on the Missouri while it was still Spanish, his hunts extending far up that river. As an omnivorous Nimrod, buffaloes were not too large nor bees too small for his chase, and he was of that class who largely return to the hunting stage in social development. A capital shot, he easily believed that both his pleasure and his profit lay in the same line, and that he could best earn his bread as a hunter. Thus his ruling passion was a lifelong pilgrimage to happy hunting-grounds. He became as migratory as Indians or game wheresoever furs could be discovered that were lightest in weight and heaviest in worth, for markets were distant and transport at best was by pack-horse. To Indians, who were dragons guarding the golden fleece he was after, he became an Indian. He out-Indianed them, and was too wily for their wiles. A chief had made him captive and purposed to burn him, yet, in fact, adopted him as his son.

His strange career has been chronicled in a dozen books, which all have a Robinson Crusoe charm, and about his hair-breadth 'scapes clouds of legends or lies have gathered, which a sketch like the present, the outcome of long and earnest search, was needed to clear away. The truth was romantic enough. This latest publication is first to show the exact date of Boone's birth and many another suggestive fact. It shows us also for the first time Boone's best portrait, and many significant autographs in facsimile, such as pages of field-notes of surveys and familiar letters, photographs of his last home, his monument at the capital of Kentucky, when he had been reburied there, with other realistic, not imaginary, scenes. It omits many irrelevant matters with which some preceding narratives had been padded, and defines Boone's place among Western pioneers in the light of manuscripts which can be found only in the charge of its author.

Having both hands full of biographic details, there was reason for the Wisconsin secretary to open his little finger. One letter, however, we miss more than we should some of his pages. It is an appeal to Virginia for help just after a defeat by British-aided Indians, written when Boone's military rank was highest, and brings to view back-countrymen safeguarding the Revolutionary back door. This letter is found in Peck (p. 131), whose painstaking production, derived in part from personal interviews with Boone himself, and the early Draper collections as well, would remain the standard biography but for the improvements it was reserved for Mr. Thwaites to add. Few books have so little need as has this finality to ask pardon for being born.

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## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Doffed Coronet: A True Story. Harpers. $2.25.
Andersen, R. Jack Champney: A Story for Boys. Philadelphia; George W. Jacobs & Co.
Aristotle's Psychology: A Treatise on the Principle of Life. Translated by W. A. Hammond. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
A Voice on the Wind, and Other Poems. Madison Caweln. Louisville: John P. Morton & Co. $1.
Bacon, E. M. The Hudson River, from Ocean to Source. Historical, Legendary, Picturesque. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $4.50.
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# The Nation.

*NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 25, 1902.*

## The Week.

For a year past wireless telegraphy has been tested at varying distances, and it has been as certain as anything could be that Mr. Marconi's ambition to send full messages across the Atlantic would soon be realized. This anticipation, however, in no way detracts from the interest of the actual experiments of Sunday. About a year ago the inventor succeeded in transmitting the letter S from Cornwall to Newfoundland, but the results were so uncertain and the working of the instrument so irregular that many doubted the conclusiveness of the experiment. On Sunday, however, long messages were exchanged between Cape Breton Island and Cornwall, and the service was apparently as accurate as that of the submarine cables. Mr. Marconi deserves the fullest congratulations for perfecting, in its practical application, an idea of telegraphic communication which has baffled electricians from Morse down. It would be premature to speculate upon the practical and commercial advantages of wireless telegraphy. One might readily imagine applications to the art of naval warfare, for instance, which would be more entertaining than probable. That it will for a long time be anything more than an auxiliary to the cables may well be doubted. Electrical light and power have not made an end of gas and steam. Perhaps the most immediate appeal of this remarkable discovery is to the imagination. An earlier age would have seen magic in the dispersion, through leagues of ocean air, of vibrations, meaningless except when they sweep strung wires to which they are attuned. And in our day Mr. Marconi's experiments seem rather like those mysterious relations which subsist between persons at a distance than like the cold demonstrations of science. Only the regularity and reasonableness of his results assure us that we are not dealing with some strangely bedizened telepathy, but with the proved fact of aërial telegraphy.

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The arguments against the Newfoundland reciprocity treaty, now in committee of the Senate, have an ancient and fish-like smell. The so-called representatives of the New England fishermen not unnaturally treat the case as if fishing were the sole and original infant American industry. In this they resemble the makers of dolls' eyes and brass jewelry, who have blocked treaties that were undoubtedly for the good of the country as a whole. Nobody can complain because these gentlemen see only their own side of the case, but everybody should attack the sophistry under which these selfish individual claims become the basis of our national law-making. Laws should be framed from the latitude of Washington, not of Lynn, Gloversville, or Gloucester. The specific attack made in the fishermen's behalf against the treaty is that the bargain is an unequal one. Cheap Newfoundland fish will glut our breakfast tables, while self-respecting American families forget that cheap food makes a cheap man. Besides this moral danger, the treaty is said to be mathematically unjust. The free bait which it promises will save our fishermen $4,000, by estimate; the remitted duties on Newfoundland fish will amount to several hundred thousand dollars, by prophecy. Strike a balance and you find just how much we lose by the bargain. But our total dutiable imports from Newfoundland and Labrador in 1901 were $271,000. Clearly, we are not in a position to "concede" several hundred thousands of duties on this trade to anybody. What the Senate should see is, that this is not a question of a few fishing-smacks more or less, but of a cheap food supply for many people; that the value of the right to get bait free from vexatious rules and possible reprisals must be measured in terms of convenience, not of the actual price of squid and capelin; finally, that it is wiser to consider the market which we may gain, than the purely hypothetical duties which we fear to lose.

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The terms of the Cuban treaty of reciprocity are more liberal than the first report of its contents implied. It grants a reduction of 25 per cent. of the Dingley tariff on Cuban products entering our ports, and it secures for our products exported to Cuba a scale of reductions of 25, 30, and 40 per cent. on specified articles. The summary of the treaty given out at Washington is somewhat confusing in the clause which relates to trade relations of the two contracting parties with other countries, but we judge that it means that the most-favored-nation clause shall not carry to other nations the privileges here enumerated, though it does not estop either of the parties from making treaties of reciprocity with other countries or from changing its tariff in any way. In the event of either country making rates of duty on goods coming from the other different from those of the treaty, the other country is at liberty to abrogate the whole treaty. In other words, it is tentative, not ironclad, and in this respect may disarm the opposition of some Senators who might hesitate to vote for a treaty which could not be amended for a definite number of years. The time fixed for ratification (January 31, 1903) seems very short, especially in view of the possibilities of debate in the Senate, but perhaps this period was named with the concurrence of the Committee on Foreign Relations. At all events, the time can be extended if needful. Everything now depends on the temper of the beet-sugar men. They can kill the treaty for this session if they choose, but they will hardly take the risk of offending public sentiment in that way again. A question more fraught with delay is whether the House will consent to be ignored in the ratification of the treaty. Looking at the precedents in the treaties with Canada and Hawaii, it is hardly possible that the House will allow itself to be snuffed out in this manner.

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Since the bill reducing to 25 per cent. of the Dingley schedules all duties on imports from the Philippine Islands has passed the House almost without debate, the question becomes pertinent—If it is so easy to knock off 50 per cent. from these sacred schedules to-day, why was it so impossible last winter to concede more than a beggarly 25 per cent? The same grudging tendency appeared in the case of Porto Rico. Everybody, from President McKinley down, agreed that the establishment of free trade was an act of simple justice; but free trade was achieved only by gradual and reluctant process. Congress has not learned to do fair things willingly or generous things generously, and it would be interesting to discover why the representatives of an open-hearted people seem unable to proceed directly upon lines of magnanimity. For this reason the Democrats in the House did well to introduce an alternative bill for free trade, putting the Republican party in the position of a repentant usurer, who gradually brings himself from 100 per cent., through various degrees of extortion, to legal interest. Of course, the reduction of the duties will be so much gain in the way of putting us in a better moral attitude towards our Island wards, but the practical advantage to the Philippine Islands is likely, for a time, at least, to be inconsiderable. They have very few products to send us that we cannot get more advantageously elsewhere, and they do not need facilities for commerce so much as internal peace and security. In this respect, the Senate bill for establishing the gold standard in the Philippines is much more to the point.

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President Schurman continues to stand up and be counted in favor of Philippine independence. He explained his presence at Cooper Union, where he addressed a large audience on Sunday evening, by saying that it was owing to

the way in which our motives as to the Philippines are becoming mixed. We went into the islands, he believed, for reasons of humanity. But our reasons for staying there have changed. He was not pressed to explain what the change was, but if he had been he would no doubt have had to say that the desire to exploit the islands for the wealth they are said to contain is the ruling factor in our present policy. Professor Jenks, of President Schurman's own faculty, for instance, is now advocating a system of coolie slavery for the islands. The syndicates which would like to exploit the archipelago are delighted by this, because they see that nothing can be done under existing labor conditions. The same influences were behind the provisions in the Philippines civil-government law of last spring, which made it easy for syndicates to obtain large holdings of land. Immigration from the United States not having taken place as was expected, the influence of the Administration is now being exerted to induce capital to go into the islands. But capital will not be likely to go in as long as men like President Schurman continue to advocate eventual independence and get entire Cooper Union audiences to agree with them that the United States is in the Philippines simply to fit the Filipinos for self-government, President Schurman is doing a most valuable service, and will, we trust, continue to speak out strongly in favor of freedom for the Filipinos.

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Forefathers' Day gave us the usual amount of perfunctory and negligible speaking, mitigated by banquets. Senator Hoar at Philadelphia described a certain dangerous tendency in American popular thought and public speech, and ex-Attorney-General Griggs, in his address before the New England Society of Orange, illustrated that tendency even while the New England Senator was speaking. At the elbow of either orator the Philippine Banquo was standing. Neither could forget the frightful divergence of our Philippine practice from our New England principles. Senator Hoar deplored the "different meaning" which the American flag had come to have to so many. We hear more about it than ever—more boasting, more protestations, more foolish talk of legislation to prevent the mere cloth of which it is composed from being "desecrated." But for its deeper significance and essential symbolism we have ceased to care as we once did. "We no longer," said Senator Hoar, "speak of it as the symbol of liberty, except coldly and formally; but only as the symbol of power, or of a false, cheap, tinsel glory." While he was yet speaking, confirmation of his words was given. Mr. Griggs at Orange was responding to the toast "Our Flag in the Orient," and was saying, "You were thinking of the Philippines. It is over these that our flag now floats, the emblem of *sole and undisputed sovereignty*." There could not well be a sharper contrast between the idea of America as standing for stark force, and of America as synonymous with liberty.

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Nor was the chasm which divides the thought of Mr. Griggs from that of Senator Hoar merely verbal. The speech of the ex-Attorney-General breathed a political philosophy whole diameters away from that of the Massachusetts Senator. "Too much attention," said the Jerseyman, referring to the never-ending Philippine debate, "has been given to the general question of forms of government and constitutions." It was "the spirit of the American people" that was the main thing, and it was "humane, sympathetic, altruistic." This reminds us of the bulwark against "centralized despotism" which Justice Brown of the Supreme Court thought he saw in the "principles of natural justice inherent in the Anglo-Saxon character." As we said at the time, the Anglo-Saxon character has, nevertheless, taken precious good care, and spilled a lot of blood, to get its principles written down in binding statute and Constitution. It has always pointed to documentary charters of freedom and monuments of liberty. And it is rather late in the day, simply because we have to forbid the reading of the Declaration of Independence in the Philippines, and to suspend the operation of our Constitution there, to discover that the age-long fight for written guarantees was simply a contest of fools about meaningless forms of government. It is a curious way of glorifying our forefathers to say that all of them who died at Bunker Hill or Gettysburg were giving "too much thought to the question of a form of government"! As for "the American spirit," Senator Hoar is as able to wax enthusiastic about it as Mr. Griggs. Only, to him, it means the deep heart of a people that beats for justice and liberty.

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Congressman Fowler, Chairman of the Committee on Banking and Currency, introduced last week a new currency bill to take the place of the one reported by his Committee at the last session. The latter has been wisely abandoned, as embracing too many subjects and inviting too many attacks, besides being cumbrous and hard to understand. There was no reason why a measure to grant greater freedom in the issue of circulating notes by national banks should embrace the retirement of the greenbacks, or a provision for branch banks, or a measure for more subsidiary silver coins. However desirable those changes may be in an ideal system, they are not essential to a sound scheme of "assets currency," while they are sure to multiply opposition to the bill as a whole. The new bill is much shorter and simpler, and therefore much easier to pass. It might be made even shorter and simpler than it is. It provides that any national bank may, with the approval of the Comptroller of the Currency, take out for issue and circulation an amount of national-bank notes not exceeding 25 per cent. of its paid-up and unimpaired capital, without depositing United States bonds with the United States Treasury, but upon condition of depositing in the Treasury either gold coin or United States bonds, or both, equal to 5 per cent. of said circulation. This 5 per cent. is to be held as a guarantee fund for the redemption of the notes of failed banks. A tax of one-half per cent. per annum must be paid on all banknotes so issued, and the proceeds of the tax are to be added to the guarantee fund. The 5 per cent. so deposited in the Treasury shall constitute a part of the legal reserve, and the bank must keep a reserve against these notes equal to the legal reserve against deposits. This cannot be considered a burdensome requirement, for although the existing law does not require any cash reserve against circulation, it requires 100 per cent. reserve, or even more, in the form of deposited bonds.

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Other important features of the measure are those providing for the redemption of the notes. Here the example of the old Suffolk Bank system has been followed in part. Banks are required to redeem their notes at their own counters, and also at one of three financial centres, New York, Chicago, and San Francisco. Banks are to be classified as belonging to particular districts numbered 1, 2, and 3, according to their nearness to the redemption cities, and they are not allowed to pay out any notes except those which are redeemable in their respective districts. All other notes received by them in the course of business must be sent home for redemption. This feature embodies a sound principle, but we can see the chance of a good deal of local bickering on the subject of redemption cities. The bill certainly furnishes a good starting-point for currency reform. Although it comes short of a satisfactory scheme for an elastic currency, it is probably all that Congress will consider favorably at the present time—even more. Indeed, we presume that there is no expectation of passing this bill or any other during the present short session, but it is important to have a really practicable measure on the calendar.

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The *Congressional Record* for Friday usually reads like a catalogue, for Friday is private pension day. Each proposed beneficiary (who could not get his

pension through the Bureau, and hence has appealed to Congress) is awarded a little paragraph by himself in fine print. There are about twenty such paragraphs on a page, and in the *Record* of December 12 there were twenty pages of this matter. Ordinarily, the passage of 400 private pension bills is as smooth as well-oiled machinery can make it, but on that date there was a slight interruption. This was caused by Mr. Gaines of Tennessee, who asked why so many special pension bills were now necessary.

"At the last session of Congress," said Mr. Gaines, "I asked the gentleman from New Hampshire [Mr. Sulloway] why there were so many of these special acts, and the gentleman from New Hampshire replied that it was because the parties did not get justice at the Pension Bureau; the real meaning of the remark being that the then Commissioner of Pensions, Mr. H. Clay Evans, was not dealing fairly with the proposed pensioners. We were given to understand that when the new Commissioner was appointed, Congress would be relieved from doing the work of that Bureau. I will ask the gentleman from New Hampshire if the trouble still lies at the door of the Commissioner of Pensions?"

To this rather significant inquiry Mr. Sulloway replied: "I understood the gentleman from Tennessee to ask if there had been any change since the Commissioner of Pensions has been changed. That has nothing to do with these bills whatever. I will say that all these matters were adjudicated before the present Commissioner came in." It is obvious that this answer may be taken by Commissioner Ware as an intimation of what is expected of him; but his recent brief submitted to the Attorney-General respecting a case involving the joint resolution of July 1, 1902, may also be taken by Mr. Sulloway as an intimation that the Commissioner intends to have something to say about the policy of his Bureau. It is a good sign, and we sincerely hope that it will be followed by others even more conclusive.

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There is no more interesting organization in the South to-day than the Texas Farmers' Improvement Society, of which the "Texas Booker Washington," Robert L. Smith, is the head. This coöperative body recently held its seventh annual convention, and the reports made at that meeting should cure a great deal of pessimism in regard to the industrial future of the negro in the South. The society is composed of 3,000 negro farmers, who now own 50,000 acres of land, 8,000 head of cattle, and 7,000 horses and mules. It is waging an aggressive warfare against the crop-mortgage system, is introducing improved methods of farming, takes care of its sick and buries its dead. In his annual address Mr. Smith quoted from Secretary Hay's protest on behalf of the Rumanian Jews, to show his hearers what advantages they possess, and he was able to say: "In Texas we have no race problem, so far as governmental affairs are concerned. Where we are settled and own property, where we have established a reputation as industrious, peaceable, sober, right-thinking citizens, I venture to say that the public conscience would not permit advantage to be taken of us." Commenting on the meeting, the Galveston *Daily News* said:

"One of the most pleasing features of this meeting was the excellent tone and fine common sense displayed in the speeches and addresses. The delegates all seemed to think Texas was the best place this side of Heaven, and that the whites and blacks could and would live together in perfect peace."

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The hands of those who are opposed to shipping subsidies in the United States will be much strengthened by the report of the select committee of the House of Commons adverse to subsidies in Great Britain. The committee says that subsidies restrict free competition and lead to the formation of shipping rings and federations, and hence should not be granted except for services rendered, and that in the latter case the Government should have the right to fix the maximum rates of freight. The phrase "services rendered" is perhaps rather elastic. Whether it shuts off the proposed subvention to the Cunard Company for the new twenty-three-knot ships to be built with money loaned by the Government, is not quite clear; but it is easy to see that there is room for a lively fight before the British constituencies if that particular subvention is granted and all others are denied. The committee does not attach much importance to the report that the Morgan combination is able to command an undue proportion of the Atlantic carrying trade by reason of its influence with American railway management. The hint is thrown out that it may be expedient for Great Britain to adopt the policy of reciprocity in the matter of coasting trade, and prohibit the carrying of goods between British ports by the ships of nations which forbid their coasting trade to British ships. This is the only suggestion in the report that can be regarded as unfavorable to American ship-owners. We exclude from our coasting trade every foreign craft that floats, and when we annexed Porto Rico we applied the same rule to our trade with her. If England should forbid our ships, when making long voyages, to pick up and drop cargo in British ports, it would make the difference of a great many dollars to our ship-owners. Yet we could not justly complain if she adopted that policy.

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A British jury's award of damages to the Taff Vale Railway Company for injuries inflicted by a strike and boycott had been foreshadowed by a previous judicial decision asserting the liability of labor unions; but it is a great advantage to have so substantial a verdict as to show that the ordinary sense of Englishmen finds the use of the boycott, or other violent methods in a strike, to be criminal conspiracy. Hereafter there can be no doubt that the English unions are in the fullest sense responsible for their action. Justice Wills, before whom the case was tried, rebuked the defendants for "their perpetual producing of the card of non-responsibility" in a manner "contrary to common law and common sense." This was the voice and tone of our own Judge Gray in the anthracite hearing. He, too, showed that it was absurd and dishonest to say that there was no connection between a strike and subsequent violence because the individual lawbreakers could not be identified with the striking union. The moral of the Taff Vale award plainly is, that fearless judges and clear-headed juries can make old law meet new emergencies. The English are far better off under this extension of the law of conspiracy than they would be with elaborate anti-strike or anti-boycott legislation. Our own relief from the present irresponsibility of labor unions may well come about in this manner. The mere requirement of incorporation would make the unions answerable financially. Probably no further legislation would be necessary.

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It may well be doubted if the capture of the Humberts will result in any far-reaching political scandal. Their gigantic swindle was not of a kind that permitted confederates, and the chances are that their testimony before the courts will rather expose gulls than knaves in high place. The personal, and we may say the psychological, interest of their arrest far outweighs the political. We are near that thrilling point in a detective story when the plot is to be spun backwards and the mystery explained. We already know how the peasant girl, Mme. Humbert, with or without the aid of her father-in-law, an ex-Minister of Justice, borrowed millions upon the credit of a bogus lawsuit; we know how that rather dull person, Ferdinand Humbert, got a standing in art and letters in Paris, while the whole family of impostors achieved a social position brilliant even for such wealth as theirs. Now we shall be told how Mme. Humbert justified her course to herself, upon what fears and vanities she worked to cover her fraud or advance her notoriety; we are presumably to learn the state of mind of the painters and poets who produced canvases and verses for Ferdinand Humbert to sign; we shall discover what the great folk of Paris thought of their vulgarian hosts, and what the Humberts thought of the great folk of Paris. "The Humbert family had relations in all sorts of circles," says the present Minister of Justice, promising revelations. In this final act of their drama will be found in epitome all the characteristic ambitions of our commercialized social order.

*THE VENEZUELAN CRISIS.*

Mr. Balfour's repudiation of that figment, a "pacific blockade," and his frank declaration that acts of war in Venezuela really constituted war, of which prompt notification would be made, as it has since been made, have resolved an awkward situation. The likelihood of our embroilment has been by so much diminished. Meanwhile, Venezuelan affairs have been debated in the Senate in executive session. Senator Teller is quoted as saying: "The Monroe Doctrine is sufficiently strong for us to use in denying the rights of any European Power to do anything on this continent that we believe is inimical to us and to our peace and safety." That is the definition of the Monroe Doctrine which was made by Daniel Webster in his celebrated speech on the Panama Mission. After pointing out that the general rule of national law is against interference in the transactions of other States, he said that there were exceptions when very grave dangers threatened the existence of one nation from the acts of another towards a third. Then he defined the kind of dangers he had in mind, saying:

> "It is not a slight injury, it is not even a great inconvenience, that makes out a case. There must be danger to our security, or danger, manifest and imminent danger, to our essential rights and our essential interests. . . . Our right to interfere in any such case is but the exercise of the right of reasonable and necessary self-defence."

Thus interpreted, the Doctrine is merely the translation, or adaptation, of a rule as old as ancient Rome and Carthage to the conditions in which we found ourselves in the Presidency of James Monroe. We then said that it would be a menace to our safety if European Powers should transfer their system of monarchical government to the American Continent, or enlarge the boundaries of the same as then existing. That which would have been dangerous to our safety in 1823 might not be so now, but we have interpreted the Doctrine to mean: No new European colonization or conquest on this side of the globe.

Thus far Mr. Teller's definition is in accord with reason and precedent, but if the report of his speech in executive session be correct, he went much beyond Mr. Webster or any other statesman of his period even. He maintained that if a nation is so poor that to enforce certain demands would destroy its independence, we must interfere; also, that "if we know the attack is made under the pretense of getting possession of territory, we must interfere." Any definition of Monroeism which depends upon our "knowing" that the designs of foreign Powers are different from what they avow, leads to a quagmire. It is a quagmire, too, in which the President of the United States may "know" one thing, and any Senator may know the opposite. Moreover, under the Teller definition, it is only necessary for a South American Government to keep itself very poor in order to have the warrant for committing any outrage against the rights of Europeans, since the enforcement of the demands for reparation might destroy its independence. Such definitions of the Doctrine seem better adapted to the needs of a Senator whose reëlection is pending than to the field of general diplomacy, but they serve to show what internal complications we are exposed to when the Venezuelan question is thrust into all pending Senatorial contests.

Upon the heels of this debate came the proposal for arbitration conveyed by Minister Bowen, on behalf of President Castro, to the allies, and their subsequent invitation to President Roosevelt to act as arbitrator of the claims of European governments against Venezuela. This is flattering to our national pride, and ought to be soothing to those who have had their Monroeism ruffled by recent events in South American waters. It is taken in all quarters as proof that the allied Powers have no sinister motive in sending their war-ships to La Guayra, and that they desire nothing but justice as we Americans shall find justice in the case. The reference to our Chief Magistrate disarms everybody on this side of the water, and for that reason alone is most gratifying.

It does not follow, however, that President Roosevelt ought to undertake the duties of arbitrator in the premises. The reasons why he should not are of the strongest. The first is, that there exists a tribunal of nations expressly created and exactly fitted to try such cases. The Hague Conference was a great step in the direction of peace on earth and good will toward men. First, an object of suspicion and even of derision, as having its origin in the breast of a military monarch and autocrat, it failed of its declared purpose of mutual disarmament, but it found the next best thing. If disarmament is ever to become possible, it must be made so by removing the causes of quarrel among nations. To this end the Hague Conference created a tribunal which should be open at all times for deciding what is right and just as between the governments and peoples that might avail themselves of it. This method of settling disputes is still in the experimental stage, but every case that comes before it establishes it more firmly in public opinion as a promoter of human happiness and of the world's progress. Each case so referred commits the participating nations to refer other disputes to it, and puts a kind of reproach upon those which refuse to do so. For this reason, if for no other, we ought to turn the Venezuelan case into that channel. Our influence in the premises is overwhelming, and we ought to use it to strengthen the Hague tribunal in the eyes of mankind.

The Hague tribunal is not exposed to suspicion of any kind. Whatever its decision may be, everybody will believe that it was reached without partiality. We cannot undertake to pass upon the claims against Venezuela without incurring some suspicion of national bias. Moreover, the nature of these claims raises questions of great perplexity—questions that should be determined by lawyers of the highest standing in the different countries which were parties to the Hague Conference, so that the judgment rendered may become a precedent. What kind of private claims may a government take up and press upon another government to the point of war? The practice of nations heretofore has been so various, so divergent, that there is really no law on the subject. Nothing is more needed than a decision which shall be generally accepted. It is hardly possible for one nation to make such a law for others, but it is possible that the Hague tribunal might do so.

Again, pecuniary claims are extremely perplexing. Even the most conscientious arbitrator is liable to be misled in passing upon them. Our own history supplies many cases in point. We had an arbitration with Mexico not many years ago, of which the agreed umpire was Sir Henry Thornton, the British Minister at Washington. Two claims of American citizens against Mexico for large amounts were presented and examined with great care, and much testimony was taken pro and con. Both were allowed by the arbitrator, but before the payments were completed it was found that they were wholly fictitious, having no more basis than Mme. Humbert's claim to the Crawford estate, which was itself non-existent. A little earlier we presented a batch of private claims against China which were allowed and paid, and after our Government had distributed to the claimants all that they were entitled to we had a large overplus. The Chinese Government refused to receive back the excess, because that would have involved the admission that the money had been wrongfully paid in the first instance, and the officials concerned would have lost their places if not their heads. So many are the pitfalls in claims for cash damages that the responsibility for passing judgment on them should be somewhat widely distributed, so that the blame for misjudgment may not fall upon a single head. Surely President Roosevelt would not wish to be held responsible for the decision in favor of the Weil and La Abra claims against Mexico.

Another, and not the least, reason why we should turn the Venezuelan case over to the Hague tribunal, instead of assuming the arbitration ourselves, is that the latter course would commit us to the rôle of arbitrator in future cases. Every similar dispute would be brought to us for determination. We should seldom be without one, and, when the novelty wore

off, nothing would be found so irksome as the settlement of petty quarrels in which we have no interest. Undoubtedly the European Governments would consider our arbitration of the Venezuelan case as a sort of guarantee that the judgment would be carried out, but that should make us pause before assuming the task. It might be very embarrassing if we should decide that Venezuela owed some millions of dollars to those Powers and Venezuela should refuse to pay.

*MARTENS AND ROOSEVELT.*

Prof. Frederick Martens, the famous Russian publicist who presided over the Conference at The Hague, and is well known for his writings on international law, addresses some weighty words to Americans in last week's *Independent*. He points out, with the detachment of a foreigner and the acumen of an expert, the inevitable dangers of "contemporary American Imperialism." Admitting all that can be claimed for our recent conquests, as a proof of "power and vitality," this friendly authority warns us that we cannot possibly hope to attain such "brilliant results" through militarism as we have already achieved in the "peaceful sphere of commerce and trade." He is particularly strong on the viciousness of a colonial policy. Laying down what was, before 1898, a commonplace of American political doctrine, he says:

"Only those conquests form a real and solid basis for the development of the living forces of the conquerors which become incorporated with their very flesh and blood and form an organic part of their possessions. If the conquest is limited to the establishment of absolute power over the annexed territory, without its having been incorporated into the kingdom of the conquerors, the only possible result will be a subjugation that has to be maintained by a crushing physical force."

All this many hasty readers will be inclined to toss off as the jealous or scheming utterance of a Russian who wants his own country to do all the colonizing. But Professor Martens is supported by the very highest American authority. President Roosevelt himself has taken the same position, in almost identical language. Indeed, so closely does the Russian professor follow the ideas of the American thinker that he might be captiously accused of plagiarism. Mr. Roosevelt's views on colonies and a colonial policy were given to the world in 1896; yet so short-lived was the medium of publication which he chose, and so poor is the modern memory becoming, that probably nine-tenths of his party would indignantly deny that he had ever said anything of the kind. We suggest that a few sample sentences be submitted to eminent Imperialists at Washington and elsewhere, with the offer of a prize for a correct guess at the author. For example:

"The establishment of a colony prevents any healthy popular growth."

"At the present, the only hope of a colony that wishes to attain full moral and mental growth is to become an *independent state*."

"Under the best of circumstances a colony is in a false position. But if the colony is in a region where the colonizing race has to do its work by means of other inferior races, the condition is much worse."

"There is *no chance* for any *tropical* colony owned by a Northern race."

Incredible as it seems that such utterances should have been forgotten in six hurried years, there they stand, with many others equally significant, in the defunct magazine, the *Bachelor of Arts* for March, 1896, under the name of Theodore Roosevelt. He was as far then as any other American from entertaining the notion that it was our duty, or that it would be a good thing for the world, to go to chaotic peoples and restore them to order. "Mean and bloody," he wrote, though the history of the South American republics had been, "it is distinctly in the interest of civilization" that they should be left to "develop along their own lines." How far below the horizon then was the conception of "forcible civilization"! Our obligation to suppress "anarchy" in a distant island had not then been invented, nor had we come to perceive the duty of putting our hand to every "mean and bloody" government and making it altogether such as we are. A Filipino, turning back to the doctrines of Mr. Roosevelt's article of 1896, would ask nothing better than their application to his country.

Of course, Mr. Roosevelt was writing immediately after the Venezuelan troubles of 1895-6; and what he had in mind, as would be made clear by words we have omitted, was South American and West Indian colonies. But he laid down his doctrines—as he always does—under the guise of eternal truths. It was colonizing as such that he reprobated, and it was for the independent life of every struggling people that he contended. He would be the last man to say that a great principle which he had strongly asserted for tropical colonies in one degree of longitude did not hold good in another. Accordingly, we are entitled to claim him as in entire agreement with Professor Martens on this whole question of subject races and the true mission of America. When the Russian expresses concern at the rapid growth of our "war budget" in consequence of having colonies, he is only saying what Theodore Roosevelt did six years ago. He, too, perceived the danger of burdening ourselves with dependencies. "We do not wish to bring ourselves to a position where we shall have to emulate the European system of enormous armies." Holding these truths, as Mr. Roosevelt holds all his truths, with passionate conviction, and with the certainty that neither time nor place can affect their validity, it is only fair to presume that he is simply biding his time to put them in force.

*"LABOR" HAVING ITS FLING.*

These are great days for organized labor. Its leaders are as petted and deferred to as are those other spoiled children of our unbounded prosperity—the plunging speculators. Against the latter's recklessness in financial operations, President Roosevelt raised a warning voice. He said in one of his speeches that their rash methods in the stock market brought our very prosperity into peril. The same might be said of the current and extravagant demands of labor leaders. They, like the Wall Street adventurers, are taking advantage of the prosperous times to have their fling; but the reaction, the "next-morning" headache, is as certain to come in the one case as in the other.

For the present, however, no absurdity seems too extreme. The Eight-Hour law now pending in the Senate has been shorn in committee of some of the wilder provisions inserted by the House at the request of labor organizations, but, as it stands, retains some most vicious features. A penalty is fixed, not simply for requiring, but for *permitting*, a man to work more than eight hours in Government employ or on a Government contract. That is, the right of a workman freely to sell his labor is denied. He may be a non-unionist, ambitious to work longer hours for better pay, but the bill makes all such energy a misdemeanor. Could there be a more direct way of cutting the nerve of enterprise, and reducing, so far as a statute can reduce, American workingmen to a dead level of inefficiency and hopelessness? That the Eight-Hour law is understood by its authors to be a clog on activity and a premium on idleness is tacitly confessed in the provision that in "time of war," or "emergency," the act may be "waived." When work must be done, that is to say, the bill to prevent its being done has to get out of the way.

The ridiculous strike now in progress at the City Hall in this city illustrates another excess of folly on the part of organized labor. In this case, we have to do with the anise and cummin of "labor" ethics. It is not a question of union men or hours or wages. The contractor is more than ready to grant all that is asked of him in those particulars. But the strange man stands out against the demand of plasterers that they, not he, appoint a foreman to oversee the job, and that he pay the strikers full wages for all the time lost in refusing to work while disputing with him. Then there is a certain amount of plaster laid and marble set by the defiling hand of non-union labor. That must all be torn out, and a sort of ceremonial purification of the spot made, before a fastidious unionist can consent to enter the room. This is the very mummery of organized labor. It is but one instance of thousands that could be cited of unionism falling into a kind of sacrosanct notion of it-

self, setting reason at defiance, and imperilling the comfort, health, and even lives of many people in order to assert a strained and transcendental claim. That this sort of unionism run mad can ultimately succeed is impossible; and we hope the municipal authorities will not make the serious mistake of trying in any way to induce the contractor for the City Hall repairs to budge from his sturdy attitude. In it he represents not only free labor, but common sense, as against an insane form of serfdom.

That a revolt against such absurdities in the name of labor is bound to come, we have not the slightest doubt. A standard was raised, we are glad to say, by Judge Gray in the strike hearings at Scranton on Thursday, to which honest men should be glad to repair. In manly fashion he spoke his mind about the infinite meanness and sneaking cowardice of the boycott, and poured hot shot into the ranks of the union intimidators. One of their favorite dodges of late has been to call indignantly for "legal evidence" that they or any of their union were guilty of the stoning and dynamiting and shooting that went on in the mining region. How do you know, they have asked, that it was not some outsider? Don't charge it to us unless you can prove it under the strict rules of evidence. But Judge Gray cut through this sophistry with one angry stroke. The boycotter and the midnight assassin, he observed, were just the kind of arrant cowards to take refuge behind the obscurities of legal evidence; and, for his part, he should refuse to rule out testimony because it was not of a technically correct sort. This is refreshing, whether we regard it as downright horse sense or as courage. Everybody is convinced that the stringent boycott and the outrages which created a reign of terror in the coal-fields were the work of the strikers; and for them to attempt to crawl out of responsibility because nothing but circumstantial evidence can be adduced, puts them in a position to which nothing less than Judge Gray's scarifying words could do justice. He deserves a vote of public thanks.

As we say, the extravagances of trades-unionism, which we now see so thick on every hand, are a sort of reflex of our years of prosperity. It is an era when "everything goes," whether in finance or in unionism, and repentance is put off till a more convenient season. It is altogether likely that it will soon be upon us, convenient or inconvenient, and that the preposterous assumptions of organized labor which are tolerated or even lauded to-day, will then be impatiently swept aside.

### *THE FIGHT FOR VIRGINIA.*

A number of patriotic citizens of the State of Virginia, representing both the white and the colored races, are now engaged in a contest for the good name of their State and for its republican form of government. Their effort is to have the new Constitution of the State, which was proclaimed on July 10 of this year, declared illegal because of the manner in which it was drawn, because of its unjust discriminations in the matter of manhood suffrage, and because of its mode of promulgation.

At an election held in May, 1900, the people of Virginia voted in favor of the proposal for a Convention to revise the Constitution which had been submitted to them by the General Assembly. On February 16, 1901, the General Assembly, taking cognizance of the popular vote, provided for the election of delegates, for the meeting of the Convention, and for submitting the revised and amended Constitution to the people of the State of Virginia for ratification or rejection. It was specified that if the Convention completed its work before October 5, 1901, the voters of the State should pass upon it as a whole or by separate articles, at the election of November 5, 1901. Should the Convention fail to complete its work by that date, the next General Assembly was to enact such measures as it deemed proper for submitting the new Constitution to the people. In addition, the Democratic party, "by every method and by all the representative utterances through which political parties give pledges," pledged the submission of the Constitution to the people. The members of the Constitutional Convention duly assembled on June 12, 1901, and began their extraordinary career as a representative body by refusing to take any oath of office. This is held to have been a direct violation of Article iii:, section 5, of the old Virginia Constitution, under which the Convention met, and the failure to take any oath of office is declared to have rendered all their proceedings null and void. None the less, the Convention sat until June 26, 1902, more than a year, and brought to completion a monstrous Constitution, comprising sixty-five pages of printed matter, eight pages of schedules, and twenty-four pages of registration ordinances—the result of its openly avowed intention to deprive American citizens of their suffrage merely because of their color.

Thus conceived, it was natural that an illegal method of ratification and promulgation should have been decided upon. A bare majority of a quorum of this convention refused to submit the new Constitution to the people or to leave the question of its submission to the next General Assembly as was specifically required by the law of February 16, 1901. After voting down propositions to refer it to the old electorate and to the new one provided in the new document, the Convention voted by less than a majority—forty-seven votes—to ordain the Constitution itself, although it contained many subjects never before embraced in any organic law of the State. This document was declared, by the proclamation of Gov. Montague, to be the will of the people of Virginia as expressed by their duly elected representatives, and went into force after an interval of only two weeks.

The Constitution achieves its main purpose of negro disfranchisement by the now familiar Southern way of registering voters. Not only are registering boards, consisting of three citizens, called for in this most extraordinary document, but the Convention actually *appointed* three persons in every magisterial district and in every city ward to serve during 1902 and 1903, thus depriving the Executive of the appointing power. What wonder that the citizens who have taken this matter into court denounce the Convention's acts as revolutionary, and assert that the appointees were only such men "as could be relied upon as partisans of the dominant faction to carry out its plans"? They further declare that "the autocrat of the Russian Empire has no more absolute mastery over the political forces of his empire, and is no more potent to control the membership and organization of every representative body in his realm, or the incumbency of every office in his dominions in perpetuity, than has the dominant faction of said Convention in Virginia, if this ordinance and Constitution are valid."

With the boards of registrars duly selected, the achievement of the outrage in view was easy. It was specified that only such voters should be registered as were "able to read any section of said Constitution submitted to them by said officers of registration, and to give a reasonable explanation of the same." If unable to read, the voter was to be able to understand or explain. This provision has been applied exactly as in the other Southern States. The most preposterous questions, which no constitutional lawyer of eminence could answer offhand, have been asked of negro citizens, men of means, probity, and standing, when they have sought to exercise the right of suffrage conferred upon them by the Congress and the people of the United States. In the city of Manchester, for instance, the number of colored voters has been reduced from 650 to 67; in the County of Kent the decrease is from 800 to 76; in Middlesex County from 1,113 to 237.

It is a credit to the State of Virginia that one of its sons, bearing an historic name, Mr. John S. Wise, has taken the lead in the attempt to restore a truly republican form of government in Virginia and to prevent the further consolidation of the oligarchy which now rules the State. Rightly believing that he and those with him are fighting in the interests of the white men of Virginia as well as of the black, he recently appeared in

a test case before the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, which is directly vested with jurisdiction in cases of interference with the suffrage bestowed by the Federal Constitution. Chief Justice Fuller held, however, on the ground of the political character of the case, that the Circuit Court had no jurisdiction. An appeal has been taken to the Supreme Court. The matter will also be brought before the next House of Representatives, as it should be.

## THE BEAUVAIS POTTERY.

PARIS, November, 1902.

Few people are interested in ceramics, yet it would seem that, if the arts are not essentially useless, we might find sympathy for that one of them which is most practical. For some reason that no wise man knows, a vessel, Greek, Chinese, or Japanese, gives us pleasure by its shape; and an artist, who feels these things more especially, obeys a need and an instinct as he turns the edge of his vase in or out. He designs it with such and such a curve, a straight line, an angle; at such and such a size; with just such a profile and just such a contour. If the work is good, nothing can change. In reduction or enlarged, it is spoiled as much as if it were drawn apart.

The question of color is more complicated. Ceramics are painted with enamels, of which, however, we know as yet only four or five that withstand the highest temperatures. The vessel has already been baked and is pottery when they are applied, one or more of them, in various ways, according to the purpose of the artist. Exactly what the action of the fire will then be, is not always possible to determine. A draught in the oven, an accident in the fuel, and other things have strange effects. Notwithstanding, the Chinese and Japanese managed not only to produce perfect monochromes, but also to glaze and to crack them in many ways; further, to run drops of one color down and into another, to superpose, to streak, and to dapple—all with an apparently sure hand. To regain this surety and to realize the colors with which he imagines his vessel endued, is the practical aim of the modern ceramist.

All this and many other details the best known of these artists, Delaherche, explained to me one evening, as we wandered home by the Seine, after dining at a friend's house. To talk further was useless; and so, with the generosity common to French artists, he suggested I should spend a day with him around his oven in the country (it happened he was baking that very week), and I should know the secrets of his art and life as well as I could. We started, a friend and I, early one morning, painfully cold and damp, for Beauvais. A little snow had fallen, and, as we had half an hour to wait there before taking a branch road further, we paid a visit to the cathedral. It looked all the higher for being white; the old Gothic builders had clearly dreamed in winter. We ran back to the station, and travelled on for half an hour. Getting out at Ons-en-Bray, we took the soaking road through country much like the Berkshire Hills. At the top of a long hill Delaherche met us, a big, tall man, huge round the waist, with a gray beard and black, sad eyes. Half a dozen little buildings and sheds are grouped on his land; four of them, end to end like a train of cars, stop at the chimney of his oven. The fire had been going since seven o'clock in the morning previous, and neither he nor his men had slept that night. It was fed by three slots with wood; through eyeholes you could look inside, into the reddish or white incandescent atmosphere. Twice samples were taken out with a prong, broken and tested, to see if the matter, still porous, was becoming vitrified. At half-past three the samples were satisfactory, the slots of the oven closed with slabs and mortar, and the oven left for a few days to cool. Four thousand kilos of wood had been burned.

Meanwhile we had lunched, talked, wandered about and smoked. Here were shelves of pottery, yet to be enamelled; there rows of unsatisfactory or discarded shapes and colors. One of the buildings contains on its walls all that Delaherche recognizes as his; and here I spent most of my time, much alone. His earlier style is massive and brutal, certain vases being some two feet high, with wild, violent enamelling. You can almost see him restraining himself as you pass to more manageable sizes (vases and goblets chiefly), when the red and green and blue are richer and duller; when the running of the second enamel in drips and drops from the rim is surer and stronger; when the general effect is more elastic, but no less solid. On a few shelves you then find what came out of the last baking in April. In general, the vase stands firm on the ground, while the line, as it rises, tapers slightly to a thin, subtle edge. Many vessels bear ribs, which add to the metallic quality of their color, for while the surface is never glazed, the tone under it vibrates, and coats of enamel, molten irregularly, hold the light without letting it follow round the shape. Of the colors, those which most struck me were a shade of olive green and another of gray blue, both used in monochrome and wonderfully rich and true. Here and there, on some specimens, were runs of gold, which had minutely crystallized and sunk into the primary color; when this is red, the effect is astonishing, and you hold the vessel without knowing what to say.

As evening fell, Delaherche came into the room and took up a piece here and there. One was a common brown jug, with a pattern cut round the body; it was one of his first attempts, and could once be bought, as it rarely was, for fifty centimes. "If I asked the same for what I do now," he added, "I should sell nothing. A lady came in here the other day and asked me for the best thing I had; when she learned it cost only a thousand francs, she was disgusted and left." He began life with little, and soon sunk all he could muster. Now that his reputation is made, he still has modest means, owing chiefly, as a friend of ours told me, to his throwing away all that doesn't quite succeed.

I was again left alone, as he went to get ready to go to town with us. It was clearly a strong, uncompromising man who worked and lived in this way, who lived out and loved his art. He was born in Beauvais, where, between building the cathedral and weaving tapestries, many human souls have found life long enough to work out in stone and dyed wools the patterns of their thought. I imagine they found their reward. Much in the same way their brother-citizen now lives on the hillside near them, carrying out, just as well as he is able, that something human which now becomes a picture, now a statue, and, in his case, a vase, a bowl, a pitcher; shaping and coloring them as he sees them, and spending his life upon so doing; finding pleasure and duty, and using his whole love in these things—like every one who ever has done anything well worth doing and well done.

TRUMBULL STICKNEY.

## PIERRE LOTI AT PONDICHERRY.

PARIS, December 4, 1902.

It has always been one of the ambitions of France to have a colonial empire, though it has often been said that the French are never so satisfied as when they are in France. They are the most self-centred, self-contented people in the world, yet they have founded at great expense colonies which afterwards fell into the hands of rival countries. "Sic vos non vobis" applies admirably to their colonial efforts. Since the unfortunate war of 1870, which deprived France of two provinces and laid open her eastern frontier to invasion, we have witnessed the creation of a colonial party, which has its representatives in the Chambers, its newspapers, its organization, and we may say its heroes, for the word is justly applicable to some of the famous explorers of late years. To be an "explorateur" has become the ambition of the most ardent of our young men; the extension of the French Colonial Empire is their dream; it is the form assumed by the idea of the "revanche." If France has lost ground in Europe, she must find new regions on the earth's surface in which to develop her energies and extend her influence. I saw not long ago a map which showed that the present colonial empire of France is sixteen times larger than the superficies of France proper. Time will disclose if this stupendous effort will be recompensed, if there be any delusion in this appearance of greatness, and if once again the old "Sic vos non vobis" will assert itself at our expense.

I recently made these reflections when reading an article by Pierre Loti under the title, "Dans l'Inde des Grandes Palmes." Loti does not pretend to be a philosopher or a political economist; but he is such an admirable painter of what comes under his eyes that he always deserves to be read, and can be read with profit even by those who do not care solely for the magic of style. I will not dilate upon his descriptions of India, of the marvellous rock of Tanjore, of its great temple, of the processions around it; on his visit to Madura, its temple, and its priests; and will pause at once at Pondicherry. This name recalls to my mind the struggles of old times, the rivalry of France and England, when they both sought domination over India; great names now almost forgotten. "Of all the names of our ancient colonies which charmed my boyish imagination," says M. Loti, "the names of Pondicherry and Goree were those which threw me into the most indescribable dreams of exoticism and distance. When I was about ten years old, a great-aunt of mine, very

old, spoke to me one evening of a friend of hers who had resided in Pondicherry, and read to me a passage from one of her letters, dated at least half-a-century before, in which there was mention of palm-trees, of pagodas." Pondicherry still retains enough importance in French eyes to have a representative in our Parliament. After the war of 1870, when everything was uncertain, and when a Constituent Assembly was chosen with the mission of deciding the form of government, Pondicherry was not forgotten, and a descendant of one of the early governors of the colony took his place among the representatives of the country. I am not personally favorable to the representation of colonies in Parliament, as their deputies are invariably nominees of the Government; but the honor paid, in this instance, to Pondicherry is a touching homage to the past—a sort of tie between old France and modern France.

These were Loti's first impressions on arriving:

"Oh, the melancholy of entering this remote and charming little town, where sleeps, between old walls, a whole French past! Little streets much like our own in our most tranquil provinces; little streets, very straight, with low whitewashed houses, a hundred years old, on a red soil; garden walls from which fall garlands of tropical plants; iron-barred windows, behind which one sees the pale faces of Creole women or *métis*, too pretty, with some of the Indian mystery in their eyes. Rue Royale, Rue Dupleix—one sees the names engraved on stone, in letters of the eighteenth century, such as I remember having seen on old corner houses in my native place; Rue Saint-Louis—Quay de la Ville Blanche—quay with a *y*."

Who ever goes nowadays to Pondicherry? The little town is like a fossil in a geological stratum—it lives only because it has lived; it has no port, no industry, no electricity; it has even no transit; it sees no strangers, no tourists.

"On the sea front," writes Loti, "a garden, where a band plays in the evening and where one sees, while the sun sets, a few babies, rather pale, some brought from France, the others born in exile. There, among the fine tropical trees around the statue of Dupleix, are a number of columns, so tall and slender that one would almost think them ship's masts; they are precious monoliths, cut in granite, in the fine Indian style, witnesses of our past greatness. The Maharajah of the country once offered them to this same Dupleix, to adorn the palace of France, which, alas! has never been built."

Not that there are no palaces in Pondicherry. "Pondicherry, a city of palaces," say the Hindus; but they give this name to the Government houses, fine old buildings with columns like those of Greek temples. These are inhabited by the officers and the functionaries of the colony, who are now nearly the only representatives of the metropolis. There are, however, some old Creole families left, which, after four or five generations, form a sort of variety of the French race.

"Old ladies," says Loti, "with nice and a little superannuated manners; old drawing-rooms with a melancholy charm, with chairs of the eighteenth century, clocks in the Louis XVI. or Empire style, sent here by way of the Cape of Good Hope, when nobody could foresee the Egyptian passage, clocks which have counted the hours of so many languid lives, which have given precision to so many exiles' agonies. . . . It may seem infantine, but the old clocks which I find in the colonies often speak long to my soul."

Speaking of the indigenous city, which lies behind the "white city," Loti tells us that it is very large, animated, full of life, with its bazaars; but even there the Hindus are Frenchified—they care for France, at least, they like to say. He was entertained at a purely Hindu club created in order to favor the reading of French reviews and books; he visited a school where the French language is taught to Hindu boys, "with delicate bronze faces, very well brought up, very courteous, dressed like little rajahs, with velvet gowns embroidered with gold." Loti describes in an almost untranslatable manner, and with an abundance of precise and vivid traits, a banquet given to him in the house of the richest of these Hindu-French.

"The host, on my arrival, ties round my neck, with several strings, a collar of natural jessamine, which scents and inebriates me; he also perfumes me with rose-water, contained in a flask of silver with a long neck. The heat is suffocating. Over the invited guests, who are seated—the great majority have brown heads with turbans shining with gold—there is a swaying of gigantic fans, painted leaves which are balanced by standing and naked servants; and their nakedness seemed stranger, amidst this gaudy crowd, where even the men wear diamonds on their heads and about their waists."

A famous dancer has been sent for, in honor of Loti; she comes from one of the temples of the south, and belongs to the service of Shiva. She is very dear and very celebrated; an Indian star. I despair of translating the elaborate description of her dance, and content myself with this final remark of Loti's, who seems to have been enraptured by this *bayadère* while she danced, and almost shocked by her calm indifference after she had gone through her performance. "What," he asks, "can there be in the soul of a *bayadère* of an old race, of an ancient caste, daughter, grand-daughter, great-grand-daughter of *bayadères*, atavistically prepared during hundreds and thousands of years to be nothing but a creature of illusion and of pleasure?"

Loti spent but a short time in Pondicherry, and was quite surprised to leave it with so much regret. It seemed to him that the little old French city had taken possession of him; he had found in it old memories and associations. Pondicherry has but two hotels, both very modest; he chose the one on the seashore, "an old house, with the air of a lordly manor, dating from the foundation of the place, and hiding its age under whitewash." He had become attached to his room, "windows with green shutters opening on the immensity of the Indian Ocean." As in certain Creole drawing-rooms, he had centenary chairs.

"Everything was dry-rotted; one dared not sit too hard, or to get into bed rudely. . . . Oh, the tranquil melancholy of mid-day, when the tropical sun overpowered the silent little streets, with their old-fashioned names! Neither in my room nor anywhere about was there any indication of modern times; nothing to fix an epoch, either on the solitary terraces or far away on the blue expanse, deserted and infinite. And what calm was in the men who were occupied in preparing their stacks of grain, and made one think of scenes of colonial life! Then, forgetting our fever, our agitation, our rapid steamers, I thought myself returned to France with the slowness which multiplied the distance tenfold, rounding Africa in capricious sailing ships."

We must not expect M. Loti to give us any documentary evidence on the present state of the little colony, on its productions, its exports and imports. He is a poet, not an economist. He does not reckon the expense of maintaining the colony; he does not give us the list of its numerous officials; it is to him a piece of old France, and as such he admires and loves it.

# Correspondence.

## THE HAY-BOND TREATY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The text of the Hay-Bond treaty has at last been made public, and all can recognize that it is on the whole a sensible arrangement. Capt. Sol Jacobs, the leading fishing skipper out of Gloucester, has given the treaty his hearty approval. It will be of immense benefit to the Banking fleet, relieving them of dues which are very heavy, amounting to from $300 to $500 on little schooners of about 100 tons. The opposition to the treaty in the Senate will not come from the fishermen, but only from a small ring of fish dealers in Gloucester. It will form one of the most remarkable incidents in the history of protection in the United States if this small, selfish gang of monopolists shall by any chance defeat the measure, or even produce a strong opposition to its approval in the Senate. Their avowed tactics are to produce delay, and eventually to kill the treaty. What must be the state of public opinion in a country when a dozen small dealers can endanger the passage of a treaty whose object is to give free entry to fish products and to cheapen the food of a great nation?

Reading between the lines, one can see how a sop has been thrown to the protectionist Cerberus. Fresh codfish is not included—a most extraordinary anomaly when we consider the wholly inadequate supply of cod brought into your markets. At the present time its price is from 100 to 200 per cent. dearer than the same fish in Europe. Why the most substantial and palatable of all the salt-water fishes, the beef of the sea, should be excluded "bates Banaher entirely." Slates for buildings, which are most abundant in Newfoundland, are limited by the treaty—the sacred rights of the American workman are preserved; they must be untrimmed, and only a Yankee mason can square the sides or make the nailholes.

We hope the treaty will come into operation, notwithstanding the Gloucester fish ring. Its results will be to add largely to the fish supply of the United States. Newfoundland is one of the greatest salmon-producing countries in the world. Attention is now being paid to the protection of its rivers, and if this is kept up adequately for a few years, the supply of this splendid fish will be immensely increased. At present the supply of the world is quite unequal to the demand. London alone is every year short by 1,000 tons of its proper supply of salmon. The new treaty will have the effect of largely increasing transportation of fish by cold storage, which is now only in its infancy in the colony. Combined with rapid transit, there is no reason why Newfoundland's splendid catch of salmon, lobster, turbot, capelin, and herring should not be sent fresh three times a week to the States. Already two

wealthy companies are making offers to the local Government to inaugurate cold storage on a large scale on the west coast.

All honor must be paid to the Newfoundland Premier, Sir R. Bond, for the dogged perseverance and diplomatic ability he has shown in carrying out this treaty. It is to be hoped that reciprocity with Newfoundland is only the precursor to further treaties of the same enlightened character.

D. W. PROWSE.

ST. JOHN'S, NEWFOUNDLAND, December 16, 1902.

## CRIME AND OUR COLORED POPULATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will "W. H. B." please inform the public where he gets authority for the extraordinary statement in his communication to the *Nation* of December 18, that, "in proportion to their numbers, the educated Negroes were more criminal than the illiterate," according to the census of 1890?

The 1890 census report on Crime, Part I., page 172, and the 1890 report on population, Part II., pp. xxx. ff., show conclusively, as it seems to me, that the 42.90 per cent. of the Negro population who can read and write furnish 38.88 per cent. of all Negro prisoners, while the 57.10 per cent. of the population who are illiterate, in the census use of the term (*i. e.*, cannot write), furnish 61.12 per cent. of the crime. This is not only true of the nation as a whole, but it is also true of every section, North as well as South, except the West, where there are less than 25,000 Negroes—a number manifestly too small for generalization. . In other words, in proportion to their numbers, the illiterate Negroes were in 1890 more criminal than the educated. Moreover, of all the 24,277 Negro prisoners, only 321 had any education above that of the common schools, while over 2,000 were either mechanics or apprenticed to a trade.

Again, when "W. H. B." dwells on the higher proportion of criminals among Northern than among Southern Negroes, does he remember that half the Northern Negroes were bred and born in the South, and are thus products of Southern conditions; and that it is this half which is furnishing the larger part of the black criminals of New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago? W. E. BURGHARDT DU BOIS.

ATLANTA UNIVERSITY, GA., December 20, 1902.

## THE AMERICAN SCHOOL IN ROME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The implications contained in a review of the Papers of the British School at Rome, in your issue of October 16, are due to ignorance, on the part of the reviewer, of the true conditions. His statement that the annual expenditure of the British School is "only about one-sixth of the amount at present required by its American forerunner," is doubtless true; but, in the two years of its existence, the British School has had one pupil, while during the same two years there have been fifty at the American School. The British School has given no lectures nor organized any trips in Italy or Greece. The American School has given at least one lecture every day during the term, and has paid German and Italian specialists to give courses on Rome and Pompeii, and has sent its students to Greece under the charge of a trained scholar. In number of books and magazines bought during the last two years the American School has gone far ahead of its most friendly rival, the British School.

Your reviewer refers to the "American School in Rome, which publishes in the *American Journal of Archæology* papers by its youthful and previously untrained students." It is true that most of our students have at one period or another been youthful, but the reviewer will find that the number of papers printed by our students is extremely small, and unprejudiced criticism will, I believe, not find in them any exceptional signs of youth or lack of training.

Your reviewer also errs in regarding Mr. Ashby as in any sense a real student of the British School. Mr. Ashby is an archæologist of private means who has spent the last eight years in Rome, and gave a course of lectures at the American School last winter. It is only by using the word in a very different sense that he can be called a student of the British School, if the same word student be applied to the members of the American School.

So far as the maps are concerned to which your reviewer draws attention, they are, so far as actual map-making goes, merely copies of the regular Government maps from which certain details and contour lines have been erased, while archæological notes have been added.

Meanwhile, we here appreciate the fine quality of the work done by Mr. Rushforth and Mr. Ashby probably more than your reviewer is able to do; and if he will supply two or three students here with abundant leisure and ample means we will try to rival their production.

Respectfully yours,

RICHARD NORTON, Director.

AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CLASSICAL STUDIES IN ROME, November 4, 1902.

[The former of the two references in our review to the American School in Rome stated an interesting fact of comparison, but intimated no censure, and challenged no defence. The latter reference certainly may be taken to imply criticism (and no educational institution can properly hold itself to be exempt from criticism), but its accuracy is unquestioned, and there is not an appearance of unkindness in it. It is merely in accord with an expression of opinion prevalent in both this and foreign countries upon published work thus prominently called to public attention. We are glad, however, to publish the Director's comment on the fact.

We cannot have "erred in regarding Mr. Ashby as in any sense a real student of the British school," for we happened not to refer to him in that capacity at all; but, in justice to the truth, we must remark that Mr. Ashby is duly recorded, and records himself on the title-page of his monograph, as "student of the British School at Rome." The British School, evidently, like its German and French compeers, attracts just such advanced students. We only wish the American School were as fortunate.

We are quite unable to understand the exception taken to our simple remark that "eight detailed maps of the region on the large scale of 1:25000 accompany [Mr. Ashby's] article." It is certainly true; and we had not supposed that any archæologist would be expected to attempt the impossible task of carrying out anew and by himself the vast scheme of triangulations and other surveys that the Italian Istituto Geografico Militare has, through its maps, put at the disposition of every student.—ED. NATION.]

# Notes.

Volume 4 of the generous 'Variorum and Definitive Edition of the Poetical and Prose Writings of Edward FitzGerald' (Doubleday, Page & Co.) consists wholly of the six dramas after Calderon, published by Pickering in 1853. The chief interest of this reprint lies in the author's interlinear emendations, which are especially abundant in "Three Judgments at a Blow." They deserve examination, for they testify to FitzGerald's taste when applied in self-criticism. In no single instance, we think, will there be a disposition to prefer the original reading to his second thought. With the Omar quatrains, we all know, this was not the case with author or public.

Edgar Mayhew Bacon's 'The Hudson River, from Ocean to Source; Historical, Legendary, Picturesque,' with its 100 illustrations and sectional map (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is evidently put forth as a companion volume to 'The Mohawk Valley,' issued a year ago by the same publishers. Like that work, it bears internal evidence that its chapters were written as separate essays and have been little altered when gathered into a volume. Hence the work has neither unity nor completeness. In scope it is limited to descriptive stories and legends of the shores of the tidal river only, from the Battery to Troy; precisely the waters over which Henry Hudson sailed "from Ocean to Source," as he and the present author have supposed. The great river as a unit, the dramatic contrast between its headwaters in a wilderness still primeval and its discharge by the wharves of the New World's greatest oceanport, its influence on the courses of war, of commerce, of population, are themes neglected or deliberately ignored. This understood, the book is acceptable as a collection of lore concerning many ancient and interesting towns and hillsides, presented in pleasing text and illustrations. Statistics and other information of cyclopædic character are carefully avoided, but the historical references are usually accurate, and the occasional errors in one chapter are often contradicted in another, thus doing little harm. Those who are interested in the subject will wish to own the book, but should take a preliminary course of training with dumb-bells before attempting to handle it, for, though an octavo of less than 600 pages, it weighs four pounds and six ounces.

Mrs. Arthur Bell's knowledge of art has been so reinforced by research into early Christian history and legend that she can insist on the student's being "as thoroughly in touch with the subjects treated as

were the artists themselves." Her book on the 'Evangelists, Apostles, and Other Early Saints' is now followed by 'Lives and Legends of the Great Hermits and Fathers of the Church, with Other Contemporary Saints' (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan), which covers the hagiology of 300 to 700 A. D. Of the numerous illustrations, few are familiar, and but three by recent painters—Burne-Jones, Lord Leighton, and Puvis de Chavannes. A third volume in the series is promised, to deal with mediæval subjects, chiefly English.

The Century Co. makes a pretty book of Ruth McEnery Stuart's amusing magazine short story, 'Napoleon Jackson: The Gentleman of the Plush Rocker,' with illustrations. It is the thousand and first contribution to that stock of negro fiction and studies which the abolition of slavery seems rather to have stimulated than discouraged.

Mrs. Ethel E. Bicknell's 'Praise of the Dog: An Anthology' (London: Grant Richards; New York: Dutton) is a very attractive pocketable volume of tastefully selected prose and verse. The arrangement is chronological, from Cicero to the present day. Pope's "Lo, the Poor Indian," Goldsmith's "Elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog," Cowper's "Dog and Water-Lily," Spencer's "Gêlert," Wordsworth's "Fidelity," Scott's "Death of Keeldar" and "Helvellyn," Byron's epitaph on "Boatswain," Butcher and Lang's version of Homer's episode of the dog of Odysseus, are here, with much else that is either classic or good, despite the omissions for which the compiler needlessly apologizes.

Tardy mention befalls the two delightful new tiny "Bairn-books" (London: Dent; New York: Dutton). One is 'The Book of the Zoo,' the other 'The Book of Shops,' and this latter is a really clever vehicle of practical information for little folk about shops and shopping, with a chapter on the post-office. The series continues to be distinguished by its colored pictures and its clear, large print.

The purpose of Gerald Stanley Lee, in 'The Lost Art of Reading' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), appears to be the expression of ordinary ideas in an extraordinary way. The result is a book of essays which cannot be commended except to persons of abundant leisure, for it is fatiguing to read even three or four pages at a single sitting. Mr. Lee deserves, however, the kind of praise that was given to the preacher who was told, when coming down from the pulpit, "That was a fine text you gave us this morning." Some of his topics, as, for instance, "The Country Boy in Literature" and "On Reading Books through their Backs," are aptly chosen.

The volume on 'Hampstead and Marylebone,' contributed to "The Fascination of London" series by G. E. Mitton (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan), deals with a section of the metropolis which is not particularly rich in historic interest. The compiler has, however, shown much diligence in the collection of his material, and has produced what will be a useful supplement to the guide-book. Hampstead has a special association with the 'Survey of London,' as its general editor, Sir Walter Besant, lived within this district.

An unusually diligent and unselfish career is described in 'Sir Isaac Pitman: His Life and Labors,' by Benn Pitman, a brother of the subject of the memoir. Sir Isaac was known the world over as the inventor of the system of phonography. His efforts for the introduction of phonetic spelling, which he thought more important than the simplification of shorthand, were less successful. One of the most interesting features of this biography is its account of the long process of experimenting by which the inventor of the phonographic system improved on his original scheme. It often happened that the simplest and most convenient method was the last to come. The chapter on Sir Isaac Pitman's physical and mental traits relates that he worked at his desk from 6 A. M. till 9 or 10 P. M. all the year round, and that for fifty years he rarely, if ever, took a holiday. He was a vegetarian, and seldom took a meal away from home. He died in 1897, in his eighty-fourth year. The day before his death he dictated an article for his magazine.

In 'Indian Fables,' by Ramasvami Raju (Dutton), we have a collection of tales forming an interesting parallel to the Greek collection, but unfortunately not shown to be independent of the latter. No place or date is assigned to any one of the fables, and "Reynard," for jackal, is characteristic of the conventionalizing which prevents the book from becoming a useful addition to the science of Æsopology, if one may so name this subdivision of mythology. But children enjoy the stories, and perhaps this is all the collection was made for.

We have received from Henry Frowde the second and concluding volume of Mr. C. L. Shadwell's 'Registrum Orielense,' which carries down the list of members of Oriel College, Oxford, from 1700 to 1900, the former volume having covered the centuries 1500-1700. For the particulars obtained in the college books the account of each member is practically exhaustive. The College has undergone the usual social change, and the obliteration of distinctions has, in the editor's view, been greatly aided by the rise and spread of athletics, which identifies "the whole body with the success or disgrace of its representatives on the cricket field or the river," and so helps "to stimulate college patriotism." In former days, students from abroad were compelled to deposit a larger sum in "caution money" than native residents, and Ireland was placed in this category along with America. The index contains many familiar names. Here is the father of the Froude family, with the historian and his two brothers Hurrell (Richard and Robert) Froude; here the two Mozleys, J. B. and Thomas, of Tractarian renown. Blanco White was an Oriel man; so was Thomas Hughes, and conspicuously Cecil John Rhodes. The Buller family has frequented the College. There is one (a late) instance of Parnell; several Wilberforces occur in the period 1820-1840, and four Pepyses, 1823-1893.

Prettily made at the Clarendon Press, M. Charles Bonnier's 'La Lignée des Poètes Français au XIXe Siècle' announces a new theory of selection. The book is to show the derivation of poet from poet for a century by choosing those quintessential stanzas and lines, often few, in which this filiation is apparent. Practically the book consists of a running comment, poet by poet, interspersed with selections often only of a few lines. Thus, in one way or another, all the French poets from Lamartine to Verhaëren are represented. The Symbolists, in fact, have a majority of the forty pages. An essay on rhyme by the editor completes the booklet. No one who wishes forty pages of scraps of the best French verse of a hundred years past need hesitate because of its ambitious pretensions to buy this little book for pocket service. M. Bonnier's doctrine, like Spenser's allegory, won't bite.

There are many great treatises upon mental diseases, but 'A Text-Book of Insanity,' by Charles Mercier (Macmillan), is a small, clear volume, which should serve as a guide for pupils, and, as well, for medical practitioners who meet insanity casually. It is a book of discrimination, not of conduct. It teaches diagnosis, not treatment. The key to its method is the distinction drawn between forms and varieties of insanity. Form is the aggregation of symptoms presented at one time; variety is the specific course from beginning to end, usually associated with a recognized cause. Designed for use with the author's oral lectures, the book is nevertheless admirably fitted for independent study. But it has no index.

The first annual meeting of the National Association for the Study of Epilepsy was held in Washington in May, 1901, and its Transactions, edited by W. P. Letchworth, LL.D., have just been published at Buffalo. The State's care of these unfortunates is of very recent history in this country, so that this society is really doing pioneer work. That it is full time appears when we find that Connecticut has 542 such cases, and Ohio and Illinois about 4,500 and 6,000, respectively. The outlook for all not due to accident is very gloomy; but, however improbable recovery may be, humanity requires that organized and intelligent attention be given them. To enlighten and stimulate the public is the object of this association, which should especially appeal to those whose kindred are affected, and to the public-spirited. The usefulness of this handsomely printed volume, too, is seriously impaired by its want of an index.

The sixteenth volume of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's *Out West* (Los Angeles and San Francisco) reveals at a glance by its size the prosperous turn in its fortunes. It now bulks 700 pages, replete, as usual, with pictorial illustration, articles on Pacific Coast localities, translations of inedited documents in early Western history (like the Diary of Junípero Serra), notices of the aborigines, poetry, fiction, and politics (in the editor's own "Lion's Den"). There is a striking portrait of the late C. P. Huntington; another, quite Rembrandtesque, of John Muir, who is also shown standing "at home" in the open. *Out West* is the organ of the "Sequoya League," "to make better Indians and better-treated ones," President Jordan, of Stanford University, being president once again, and surely to his honor. Sequoya, we are reminded, was "the American Cadmus," "the only Indian that ever invented a written language." This Cherokee's name has long been associated with the big trees of California.

"Magyar Types" is a collection of ethnographical half-tones, published by Dr. Johann Jankó, under the auspices of the Royal Hungarian Ministerium für Cultus und Unterricht (Budapest). A German text of introduction and descriptions accompa-

nies the Hungarian. In view of the fact that, on the basis of language, ethnologists rank the Magyars, together with the Finns, as of Mongoloid stock, the importance to science of any exhibitions of the physical type of the pure Magyar is at once apparent. The present collection is far more extensive and exact than Ripley's in his 'Races of Europe.' The effort has been made by Dr. Jankó to fix upon districts "whose population is homogeneous historically, linguistically, and ethnographically," and there to collect his types. The photographs he has reproduced are labelled scientifically under the items of name, occupation, age; color of eyes, hair and beard; shape of nose, stature, circumference of head, and cephalic index. The subjects are all peasant farmers, and the most noticeable physical feature is that of pronounced brachycephaly. This is sometimes excessive (93.2 in one case), but is unaccompanied by any other consistently Mongoloid character. The half-tones are only passable, yet they serve their purpose better than a lengthy description could do. It is to be hoped that the series will be continued.

While our country has one well-endowed chair, and Great Britain five professors of Chinese, albeit meagrely endowed, the Netherlands have, in their State University at Leyden, a permanent chair of Chinese, which has been occupied by men of such illustrious names as Siebold, Hoffman, and Gustaaf Schlegel, whose products in the *Archiv*, the Japanese Grammar, and the publication *Toung Pao* are known to all scholars. Dr. Schlegel celebrated on the 27th of October the silver anniversary of his accession to the chair of the Chinese language and literature in Leyden University. Abundant congratulations from his admirers at home and in many lands, and from the learned societies of which he is corresponding member, flowed in upon him. He is appreciated especially for his keen insight and his invincible patience in the mastery, above all, of epigraphic problems. Born at Oegstgeest, near Leyden, he became in 1857 a student of Hoffman, and in 1862 was made an officer in the Chinese School in Batavia. He received his doctorate in 1869 from the University of Jena. He served from 1867-1872 on the commission for revising the civil code of laws for Netherlands India. Returning to Holland, he entered his university in 1875, and in 1877 was made full professor. Over 200 monographs or notable articles in profound Chinese scholarship, some of them solving problems which others had given up, have issued from his pen.

The Association for Promotion of Scientific Research by Women announces that applications should be received before March 1, 1903, for the American Women's Table at the Zoölogical Station at Naples. Application blanks for the use of candidates, items relating to the expense of living at Naples, and full information as to the advantages for research at the station, may be obtained from the Secretary, Cornelia M. Clapp, Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.

—Professor Byerly's paper, "Raise the Standard of the A. B. Degree," Prof. George F. Moore's on "The Field of an Undenominational School of Theology," and Prof. J. H. Wright's on "The Printing of the Doctor's Dissertation," all in the current *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, deserve the attention of the college and university world So does the caustic conclusion of a little note in vindication of an early Harvard oarsman and coach: "There shone conspicuous and undimmed his own high standard of what a college athlete should be and represent; a standard which may well be taken to heart in these days when, under a multiplication of rules and regulations considered necessary to secure athletic honesty, a man may not safely enter into an athletic contest except upon advice of counsel, and performance on the field or river may not be accepted until the case has been argued." As for Harvardiana proper, noticeable are the portraits of five Harvard men now ambassadors to as many of the leading countries of Western Europe; and the flashlight group of the Harvard Club at Japan, taken last June at Tokio. The magazine publishes some curious statistics of its own circulation. Dividing the classes still extant (from one living member upwards) into two parts (1829-1868, in which period only two classes had attained or exceeded 100 members, and 1869-1902, when membership has ranged from 111 to 477), it appears that the former counts 1,092 survivors and 427 subscribers; that is, nearly 40 per cent. show their interest in Alma Mater by supporting the magazine, and supply 16 per cent. of the total academic subscriptions. The division in question marks accurately enough the non-athletic from athletic Harvard.

—The naïveté of Miss Elizabeth L. Banks's self-revelation in 'The Autobiography of a "Newspaper Girl"' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) will shock many old-fashioned readers, but if they will persevere for a few chapters their prejudices against the writer will probably be as completely overcome as were Mrs. Lynn Linton's. In spite of their frank egotism, these memoirs have no affinity with books of the Marie Bashkirtseff and Mary McLane type; they are a straightforward record of battles fought and successes won. If Miss Banks had waited thirty years or so longer, the publication of her autobiography would not have threatened her with any disparaging comment, but in that case the book would have lost half its value, for it would have missed the opportunity of warning and encouraging those young journalists, especially women journalists, whose work has to be done in the same conditions as those here described. The future historian of nineteenth-century journalism will obtain more light from the story of Miss Banks's career than from many more pretentious volumes, especially through the contrasts it presents between the pursuit of this profession in London and New York. The general impression of the author's own ideals and practice is a most favorable one, with one disagreeable exception—the repeated evidences of her fondness for what are euphemistically called "white lies." There is proof enough here that Miss Banks is willing to make great sacrifices for the sake of principle, and it is a pity that her testimony should be marred by the disclosure of an imperfectly cultivated conscience in this respect. It is worth noting that, according to Mr. Stead, the American publishers of this autobiography have insisted on the omission of a chapter in which Miss Banks criticised a certain American lady philanthropist. The comparison of English and American editions of the same books seems likely to become soon as interesting a study as the collation of ancient manuscripts.

—'Observations,' by Mr. Dooley (New York: R. H. Russell), has attracted, naturally, less attention than the author's earlier volumes; but they seem to maintain fairly the level of the latter. The following is his reproduction of his friend Hogan's account of "up-to-date" geology, and the genesis of the Earth and Religion: "First 'twas a mere squdge in which ne'er a livin' thing could be found. This peryod lasted a few millyion years, and thin th' mush caked and become buildin' materyal, and threes grew out iv th' buildin' materyal an' fell down an' become coal. Thin the wather come—but where it come fr'm I don't know, f'r they was no God at the time—an' covered th' earth, and thin th' wather evaporated and left little pints iv land shtickin' up with ready-made men an' women occupyin' thim, an' at that moment the Bible begun." This, for abstract science, is good. The earlier political satire, such as that which described the relations of the late Administration with the White House pet cat "Goold Bonds," was more pungent, and at one time Mr. Dooley seemed likely to become a great political satirist; but he has the "defects of his qualities," and one of these is a lack of fundamental political conviction. His life on Archey Road, and his early training as a ward politician, were not calculated to produce this. To him Imperialist and Anti-Imperialist, Republican and Democrat, Mr. "Rosenfelt" and those who try to get offices from Mr. Rosenfelt (with the disastrous results graphically described in "White House Discipline"), are equally ridiculous. In fact, it is as an "all-round" humorist that Mr. Dooley shines. He belongs to the great class of those who live to make us laugh at ourselves in all our aspects. This attitude involves occasional satire, but of a kindly and what, to those interested in the fray, often seems aimless kind. In other words, when we are disappointed in Mr. Dooley we exclaim, "How have we and those who write for us fallen off since the days of Lowell!" When we enjoy his 'Observations,' we remember that, from the days of Aristophanes down, pure humor has been without *parti pris*.

—The 'Compiled Statutes of the United States, 1901,' is the title of a work in three volumes and over four thousand pages, just issued from the well-known legal press of the West Publishing Company (St. Paul). It embraces the statutes of the United States of a general and permanent nature in force March 4, 1901, and incorporates under the section headings of the Revised Statutes the subsequent laws, together with explanatory and historical notes. The author of the compilation is John A. Mallory, whose work on the Revised Statutes themselves and "subsequent experience" make him, the publishers say, "the best-fitted man in the United States to-day for the task of compiling the general laws." He has also had the assistance of "trained editors upon the staff of the publishers." The scope of the work is explained in a short preface, which we may condense as follows: Any one who wished to look up a point under one of the sections of the Re-

vised Statutes (before the appearance of the present publication) was obliged to search first the Revised Statutes themselves and then the various supplements, which supplements, however, "are nothing more than a condensation of the Statutes at Large," reproducing the statutes "in chronological order, not revised or consolidated." All these supplements had to be examined, "because many provisions contained in them, as well as in the Revised Statutes, have been repealed or superseded or amended (and often reamended) by later provisions." This new compilation, on the other hand, collects all the general laws, arranges them according to subject-matter, under the familiar titles of the Revised Statutes. To sum up the whole story, it contains "everything that should be included in a new revision if one were now to be made." Such a compilation should be a useful book of reference. It labors, of course, like all books of its class, under one disadvantage—it is not a Government publication; it has no legislative sanction, no official authority, and consequently is only "one more book." He who in preparing his brief is lucky enough to have it at his elbow may be saved much labor, but it will not dispense him from the duty of looking through the Revised Statutes, or the supplements to the Revised Statutes, or, we may add, through current legislation subsequent to both Revised and Compiled Statutes. Voluminous indices and tables, nearly six hundred pages in extent, crown the work.

—The 'Jeanne d'Arc' of Mr. T. Douglas Murray (McClure, Phillips & Co.) will be made welcome in many a college library which is prevented by poverty from buying the rare and expensive volumes of Quicherat. The Maid of Orleans already has her numerous biographers, and Mr. Murray's name does not go to swell the list. His function, though apparently more modest, is none the less important, for he turns into plain English and presents in accessible form the most remarkable documents which are connected with her career. Every one knows that, some time after her capture, Joan was tried at Rouen by a special tribunal and found guilty of being "boastful, foolish, treacherous, deceitful, cruel, bloodthirsty, seditious, blasphemous, undutiful, rash, a fatalist, uncharitable, idolatrous, schismatical, apostate, and finally a heretic." This unpleasant list of epithets meant, of course, that she should lose her life, and burned she was, as all the world remembers. But probably all the world does not remember that the *procès-verbal* of her trial was exhumed by Jules Quicherat and published at Paris in 1841, under the title, 'Procès de Condamnation et de Réhabilitation de Jeanne d'Arc.' The death sentence was pronounced in 1431 and execution immediately followed; but twenty-four years later, when the English had been driven out of the country and the French nation was at liberty to feel a sense of gratitude, another court declared that, after all, Joan was no heretic. This second tribunal met under papal sanction in the cathedral of Paris, and, like the first, left definite record of itself. The evidence which led to rehabilitation or official whitewashing survives in the MSS. of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and may now be had, as well as the first batch of evidence, from the pages of Mr. Murray. The Latin text of Quicherat has thus been translated, made into a single volume, printed handsomely, and interspersed with excellent illustrations. Mr. Murray contributes a short introduction, but his labors have been chiefly confined to note-making and the preparation of an English version. One characteristic of the original evidence is the crabbedness and abruptness of its style. Mr. Murray's translation makes the text run somewhat more smoothly than the examiners, Joan and the reporters have left it, but such variation as we have noticed in the course of a short comparison does not constitute a blemish. Altogether it is a very useful piece of work, and well worth the doing. For one thing, it makes available a splendid body of data relating to the Hundred Years' War; for another, it shows exactly how a mediæval trial for magic and heresy was conducted; but chiefly it enables those who are unfamiliar with Latin to realize the depths of a tragedy that outruns the fancied pathos of "King Lear."

## A NEW AMERICAN ENCYCLOPAEDIA.

*The New International Encyclopædia.* Editors: Daniel Coit Gilman, LL.D.; Harry Thurston Peck, Ph.D., L.H.D.; Frank Moore Colby, M.A. Vols. I.—III. A—Canada. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1902.

It is well known to how great an extent American encyclopædias have been based on one edition or other of 'Chambers's Encyclopædia,' which in its turn was based on the 'Conversations-Lexicon' of Brockhaus. The use made of 'Chambers,' and the extent to which it was spoiled—in both senses of the word—varied with the skill and space of the plunderers, but the trail of the booty was everywhere, and reproachful ghosts haunted and haunt many alien pages. In this there was some poetic justice, though little commercial honesty; Chambers had confessedly translated much from Brockhaus, and the American editors—yet without confession—reconveyed the stolen property. But such gains seldom prosper their new holders. In this case the articles taken over were variously maltreated, abbreviated, edited, to suit the American public and to give space for the dealing with peculiarly American rubrics. The result was that the user of such an encyclopædia felt driven at every turn to examine whether he might not find in Chambers the original and unmutilated article, reserving his American reference for American things only.

But the Germanizing of our educational tools goes on steadily, and think what we may of German scholars as men of letters in an ideal sense, there can be no question of their absolute supremacy as journeymen of letters, as patient compilers of exactly sifted and verified fact. While the German philosopher and critic has the reputation of intense subjectivity, of a power of accepting as certain his own personal and momentary impressions, the German hack-writer—using the word in no opprobrious sense—has a power of objectifying and putting into compact form the certified results, no more and no less, of any scientific investigation. His presentation of these results may be bald, clumsy, involved; but to the reader who takes time to read carefully, the matter is all there. Of such men are the writers in Brockhaus and Meyer, and in imitation of them and their methods there is assuredly great reward. Similar is the ability of the German editor. His labors and responsibilities are great. His contributors must be anonymous; otherwise they would feel it necessary to frame theories of their own and make new contributions to knowledge in their articles, and, for such, an encyclopædia should have no place. Being anonymous, the responsibility for their work rests upon the whole book; each part depends upon each and will be judged with it. The editor must see to it that the articles are sufficient, that they are properly divided, correlated and proportioned. When they are inadequate, he cannot shield himself behind the great names of the writers; for that the whole encyclopædia must suffer. It is therefore plain that an encyclopædia arranged on this plan must have at its service a staff of conscientious, laborious, learned collaborators, and an editor or editors of autocratic powers, truly encyclopædic knowledge, endless patience, and sleepless vigilance—especially the last. In Germany, under German conditions, and in view of the German character and peculiar abilities, these things are possible. It may be doubted whether with us, even at a prohibitive price, a Meyer or a Brockhaus could be produced.

The present encyclopædia starts with a preface of promise: it is practically to furnish an English Brockhaus. The prospectus goes still further, and gives an extensive list of contributors and editors of departments. This list undoubtedly shows up well, but the fact remains that, on the unsigned principle, it is impossible to say who individually is responsible for any particular article. Thus, on the one hand, if an article is criticised, the blame must be distributed over many eminent names, and, on the other, if the encyclopædia as a whole is criticised and its publishers blamed, they can point triumphantly in their defence to the same eminent names. What better could we do? they may ask; to which the public can say little, but can have its own opinion of the whole affair. To bring all to a point, absolute anonymity and the responsibility frankly shouldered by the publishers is the sole alternative of signed articles and the responsibility of the signer.

Accepting, however, the articles as anonymous and impersonal in the full German sense, the great weakness of the present work is undoubtedly in the editing, major and minor. There are certainly scholars in the country equal to this great argument. The problem was to find them, to set them properly to work, to see that they did the work, and to reproduce accurately their results. To a great extent they have been found, to a lesser extent their tasks have been properly assigned, very often they have not been kept up to their true standards, and most generally their results have been carelessly reproduced. The last—the proofreading—is glaring throughout the first two volumes; in the third a considerable improvement appears, though errors still continue. As specimens may serve (vol. i., p. 53), "unfriendly" for friendly; (p. 139), "public persecutor" for prosecutor; (p. 232), "Tiruskohi" for Firozkohi; (p. 288) "Compluum" for Complutum; (p. 308) "picturesque" for picaresque; (p. 342) "al-jozair" for al-jazair; (plate of alpha-

bets opposite p. 392) Hebrew letter Tsade for Ayin; (p. 431) the article on Ambrose's Tavern is completely pied by the omission of a line or lines; (vol. ii., p. 41) "Kilbrennan" for Kilbrannan; (p. 311) article Babbage, another case of repetition and omission of a line; (p. 489) "Jarfar" repeatedly for Ja'far; (p. 679) "largest the" for largest and; (p. 705) no capital to "Polish"; (p. 737) "Mzabit" for Mzabite; (p. 70) "Mysterionun" for Mysteriorum; (p. 771) "*signalments*" for *signalements;* (p. 808) "collected" for collated; (p. 812) "Rhenish" for Rhemish; (vol. iii., p. 280) "Lazarde" for Lagarde; (p. 398) "Greeks" for Gauls; (p. 503) "with out religion" for "with our religion"; (p. 536) "Ancram" for Ancrum; (p. 682) "Bard" for Barb; (p. 729) "Ballick" for Balliol. This list could be very easily extended. It is not based on any systematic search, and does not take account of simple misspellings of English words.

To return to the contributors: many of them have done their work excellently. This holds especially of the articles on chemistry and anatomy—indeed, on natural and physical science generally—on mathematics and psychology. The last is of the modern type, and the articles on it contrast often with those on the lives and systems of different philosophers. Thus, that on Berkeley is not in the same class with the corresponding article in the last edition of Chambers, nor is that on Bentham. Generally, it may be said that biography, while very broad, is not very full, very accurate, or very attractive. The number of entries is enormous, and the assertion that this encyclopædia is unique on that side may easily be correct. But, in comparing these biographies with those in Chambers, there is hardly a case where the present book is not the poorer. This stands out the more clearly the more important the biography is. Especially in literature, there is nothing here that can stand beside the carefully written studies which are the distinction of the Edinburgh work. This is the stranger because, in the preface, the editors repudiate what they call "the encyclopædic style," and profess to have urged upon their contributors that lighter and more personal touch which "would characterize their contributions to any literary publication of a high class." We can only entreat them, with an open mind, to compare their productions on Aristophanes, Beaumont and Fletcher, Burns, Byron, Sir Thomas Browne, Boccaccio, almost any figure in literature, with the corresponding article in Chambers. Disproportion is another defect conspicuous in these biographies. It cannot be regarded as happy that Calvin has nearly four pages, with an addition of a page and a half on Calvinism, while Byron has one and a quarter, Burns a little over one, Augustine two, and Athanasius one—exactly the same as Richard Baxter and H. W. Beecher. Again, Sir Walter Besant and Mrs. Besant have practically the same space, each of less than half a column, while Bhartrihari, a Sanskrit poet of not exactly the first rank, has a column and a half. This is evidently due to weakness or carelessness on the part of the editors. Their writers were not held in hand, and each got practically the space which he claimed. The same disproportion appears in other subjects. Thus, Anemometer has nearly two pages—is worth as much as Augustine!—and Blindspot has nearly a page and a half. The theatre has also secured to itself much space. Dion Boucicault has a column, and the latest actor or actress is secure of a generous mention. Music has a better claim, and has been even better treated. Beethoven has four pages, Bach three and a half, and the general articles are full, and for the most part good. Beethoven's personality, it is true, might have been treated more sympathetically, his friendships less flippantly, and his place as the highest exponent of the classical and the prophet of the romantic in music could have been more clearly shown. This is one of the articles where the finer touch is missed. Nor are absurd blunders lacking. Under Andante we learn that *con moto* means "with emotion," misinformation derived straight from Chambers, which had nodded for once. Again a case for editorial vigilance.

Military matters have the fulness which suits this militant age. There is the inevitable complacency over the army of the United States; but the only serious defect is under Armies, where the part played by the Byzantine Empire in developing military science is unrecognized. If this writer will consider how long the Eastern Empire kept Mohammedanism at bay, he will find a very curious problem in the art of war.

The articles dealing with Asia are of an uncertain value. The Aryan East in general, and in especial the Iranian, is good, sometimes even too full for proportion. The Semitic East, on the other hand, is generally weak, inadequate, and inaccurate. Thus, the contrast is very striking between the sections on Assyrian and Babylonian art and architecture, which are good, and the general articles on Assyria and Babylonia, which are very poor. The same holds of Arabic rubrics, which are often most carelessly handled, and of those from the Old Testament, which are highly unequal. Throughout, the masterful hand of an editor is called for. New Testament articles are much better, but short. The great twenty-four-page article on the Bible is highly composite, and equally irregular in merit.

Already it is evident that Art and Architecture have fallen into competent hands. The development of this side of the Encyclopædia may be awaited with genuine interest. In geography the same fulness is being attempted as in biography, and with the same uncertain results. For America, the articles will be useful; for other countries, Meyer or Brockhaus will probably be consulted. A department new to general encyclopædias but of justifiable existence is that of fiction. Unfortunately, characterization has been attempted besides mere localization. Almost of necessity this has resulted in a singular crudity. Nor are omissions and errors lacking. The 'Bride of Lammermoor' is "further described as a legend of Montrose"; the 'Black Dwarf' is "founded on a Scottish legend" in evident oblivion as to the real David Ritchie, and one of the Amines in the 'Arabian Nights' is combined with the sister of another.

Finally, the following farrago of notes may not be out of place. There are many articles in which it would have been better to reproduce Chambers entire rather than mutilated. So Alchemy and Allotrophy, though the latter has been rewritten; Alloy, on the other hand, has been improved. So, too, Bells, which omits all reference to the modern tubular kind; Bentley, which misunderstands his plan for the restoration of the text of the New Testament, and disregards entirely his unique edition of 'Paradise Lost.' Further, on Andorra, Chambers has been misunderstood, and the little republic put "under the joint protection of France and Spain." As a matter of fact, its relations are to France and to the Bishop of Urgel; thus, in the last instance, to France and the Pope. The origin of the article Berber is not so simple, but it would have been at least safer to abide by Chambers, and not to have equated βάρβαρος with "foreign, alien," instead of "stammering, uncivilized"; the latter is also the meaning of the Arabic term cited. Under John Anderson, the institution which he founded by his will is strangely misrepresented. A reproduction of Chambers would have shown its almost unique character, at the end of the eighteenth century, as a college for workingmen. It still exists, but has never called itself a "university." Into Archpriest it would also have been well to incorporate Chambers or an equivalent; the article here gives only one small side. Al-cazar is from an Arabic singular, not a plural; the error may have come from a confusion with the origin of Luxor. On Arran, any one who had been in Brodick Bay during an easterly gale would hardly call it an excellent harbor. It is an open roadstead. The date of Beckford's birth is left uncorrected. We now know it was October 1, 1760, not September 29, 1759. The discredited legend of the origin of 'Vathek' is also given without comment. Yet the bibliography added to the article, if examined, would have yielded these very corrections. The same thing occurs elsewhere. Beitullah (ii., 665) *is* the Kaaba, and does not contain it. On Bonnivard (*sic*) we find the old account of that most unedifying "patriot" which would have vastly amused him; the bibliography is absurd. But still more absurd is that attached to the notice of Bertrand de Born. There we are referred to that veracious chronicle, Hewlett's 'Richard Yea-and-Nay.' Simple inadequacy is what ails the article on Beruni. The greatest master of scientific method among Mohammedans, a man standing alone in his time, is cleared in nine lines and some blunders. Contrast the treatment noticed above of Bhartrihari; the Sanskritist evidently fought harder for space than the Arabist. In the article on Andree there is no knowledge of his fate; similarly, Lord Acton and E. Ashmead-Bartlett are still alive. Dr. G. F. Moore, too, is given as President of Andover Seminary.

There can be no doubt that the blame for all this lies primarily with the editors. Excellent contributors have been found for many subjects, and could be found for all. But all contributors require to be kept up to a certain standard; their work requires to be proportioned, concatenated, polished, which is the sphere of the editor. In these volumes the editors have not filled their sphere. From planning to proofreading their work has been slipshod. Further examples of this are easy to find. In the alphabetical order the Arabic article *al* is sometimes reckoned, sometimes not. Thus we find al-Farabi under A and al-Beruni under B. Again, in volume i., pp. 26, 27, under Aberdeen and University of Aberdeen there is a considerable repetition. Similar-

ly, in volume iii., pp. 536-539, under Elspeth Buchan and Buchanites, and pp. 815, 816, under Richard Cameron and Cameronians. In volume ii., pp. 669 and 693, we have an unexplained difference of spelling between Belerium and Bellerium. The two possible derivations are not recognized, and the articles are left in contradiction. At least one diagram (volume i., p. 340) is equipped with letters to which no explanation is added in the text. In bibliography, again, the lack of editorial care is conspicuous. To some articles an excellent bibliography is appended; in others not a single authority is cited, and the reader is left in a blind alley. It need hardly be said how fatal is such a defect; in a confessedly general encyclopædia such as this, references should be given freely to books, journals, and specialist cyclopædias. The same holds of the illustrations. Apparently if a contributor demanded certain illustrations, he got them; if not, there was no more about it. As a consequence, the number of small cuts in the text should be greatly increased. For these we would willingly sacrifice the numerous reproductions of celebrated pictures, portraits, statues, etc., beautiful as they are; for such things there should be no place here. Under Alps a special map would have been much more to the purpose than the very pretty picture of Chillon and the Dent du Midi. The maps in general are disappointing. How the opinion could be hazarded (preface, page viii.) that "the illustrations of every kind will be found superior to anything hitherto attempted in any encyclopædia" must remain a mystery. Except as beautiful pictures, they cannot compare in number, usefulness, and attractiveness with those in Meyer.

It is with deep regret that this judgment is passed on a work like the present, with its enormous expenditure of labor and wide sphere of possible usefulness. But only four volumes are published (the last as we put this in type), and the door of repentance for the editors is still wide. By free cutting of the stereotype plates and unwearied vigilance as to the text still to come, much may be done and undone, and a good encyclopædia may yet be produced.

## THREE BOOKS ON ARTS RELATED TO ARCHITECTURE.

*A Discussion of Composition;* Especially as Applied to Architecture. By John Vredenburgh Van Pelt, Professor in charge of the College of Architecture, Cornell University. Illustrated by the Author The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. viii, 275.

*Windows:* A Book about Stained and Painted Glass. By Lewis F. Day. Second edition. London: Batsford; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902. Pp. viii, 419.

*Furniture of the Olden Time.* By Frances Clary Morse. The Macmillan Co. 1902. Pp. xvii, 371.

The title of the book first named above is so far inadequate that the treatise in question reaches out to include all the elements of design. The first part, consisting of forty pages, deals with the essential characteristics assumed to be necessary in design—sincerity, carefulness, and the like. The second part, of forty-four pages, deals with the principles of composition and the more usual forms of composition, as in pictures, and this part may be thought to have furnished the title to the work. Part three is concerned with the decorative application of principles already laid down, and also with general principles assumed to be obviously of importance, to be axioms of design. Part four has to do with "Practical Suggestions in Design," and in the thirty pages of which it is composed there is little suggestion of the importance or character of composition in the design, which is treated in relation to structure and material, and sincerity, or the reverse. Parts five and six deal with the plans of buildings, and mingled with this is much discussion of that curious theory, born of the atelier and its "paper work," that a plan as drawn on paper is of some value by itself. In reading this, we have to remember that our author is the head of an architectural school avowedly based upon the teaching of the great Paris institution.

In such a book of practice, with necessarily brief and peremptory statements, and written, as this one is, by a very intelligent man, there will, of course, be many valuable suggestions. Just as there are scraps from Ruskin full of that brilliant good sense which that writer is capable of, and which he gives his readers in alternation with paradox and bad logic, so there are many quotations in the original French from the treatise on Decorative Composition by Henri Mayeux. So G. Baldwin Brown is quoted for the value of prehistoric monuments, and Henri Deglane for the scarcely necessary assurance that you had better carry a sketch-book about with you and draw continually with a soft pencil, using few lines. In like manner, the author's own conclusions are printed side by side with the dicta of his teachers and guides; and the passages so arranged are separately of value, or at least have the possibility of value. One looks in vain for a statement of general principles, however; and, without denying for a moment the immense difficulty of arranging a book of maxims in accordance with any general principles of thought, the question still remains unanswered whether such treatises can have any importance. And yet the book is full of the evidences of knowledge and of a sound feeling for fine art in many of its forms. It is not easy to forgive a positive assertion that the Sainte Geneviève paintings in the Pantheon of Paris are very ugly, nor to admit the force of the quotation from Herbert Spencer, a writer whose greatness need not blind us to the fact that he never looks at fine art from the inside, but treats it as a branch of science. On the other hand, there is an excellent passage (pp. 169 to 177) in which decorative glass, as in modern and ancient windows, is explained; and it may be stated that this is a subject which is very seldom treated with intelligence. It is an odd comment upon the architectural tendency of the twentieth century that, in the discussion of Planning (part vi.), eight pages are given to dwelling-houses and sixteen pages to buildings used for instruction, while only a page and three-quarters at the very end are devoted to "ecclesiastic buildings."

Mr. Day's book on Decorative Windows is fortunate in its title, all things being considered. The phrases "stained glass" and "painted glass" are each of them very inadequate, and erroneous in making a part stand for the whole; and to couple these terms together under the fitting general term is a good thought. The matter of decorative glass is, as remarked above, extremely difficult to treat. No illustrations can adequately explain it except to the most highly trained observer. And of this fact there is proper mention made in a prefatory note, page ix. Again, words are apt to fail in describing the purpose of the design in glass, and, of course, in criticism of the designer's achievement. Now, as the author of the volume before us has seen all those difficulties very clearly, and knows well how glass was made and used in early times, and how the modern processes have grown up—always excepting those American methods of which he knows only the feeble beginnings, as is natural—it follows that the book is sure to have value to any person who is in earnest about the study of the subject. Whether one approaches the matter of rich windows from the point of view of the student of glass and glassware, as a specially interesting industrial art; or as a matter of decorative design, as a mosaic helped out with painting; or whether it is as a part of ecclesiastical architecture that one is thinking of the mediæval glass at least; or whether the painter by profession is interested in the strange facts of the radical difference between colored work in translucent material and that upon opaque surfaces and seen only by reflected light—in any of these cases he will find that Mr. Day has seen the difficulties and the remedies, and has put them before himself and before his readers.

To infer from this that the volume is wholly satisfactory would be to infer too much. Book i., ninety-five pages long, is devoted to craftsmanship; Book ii., containing much more than half the volume, deals with the "course of design"; and Book iii., eighty pages more, deals with various subjects, such as "story windows" (with a sort of list of windows in Europe that are worth seeing), and has a final chapter devoted to the restoration of old glass. There are two indices, one to the text and one to the illustrations; the latter organized alphabetically, as is the former—an innovation indeed, and worthy to be noted. Were such an index a common feature, it would make of the twentieth-century books, with their abundant illustration by photographic process, an iconographic cyclopædia. It is of less importance, to be sure, in the present work than it might be in another, because the examples given are fragments in very many cases, as indeed is natural. You turn from the item "Reims" and find a square of a clerestory window—a piece perhaps three feet high and not quite four feet wide; hence the knowledge of its location, even in a church as important as the great cathedral of the town named, is of less consequence. On the other hand, the references from "Gouda," six in number, lead you to whole windows, and this is the more satisfactory inasmuch as no pictures of those very remarkable Dutch windows of the seventeenth century are easily accessible.

A decorative window is a mosaic of translucent material, with this peculiarity, that the translucency is interrupted by relatively broad opaque lines made by the "leads"

which hold the glass together. This mosaic may be of one color, with only such modifications as inequalities of the thickness or staining of the glass may cause. On the other hand, it may be of many colors and produce a very elaborate, jewel-like pattern. Again, the mosaic may be, and very commonly is, helped out by painting, and this painting is nearly always of opaque substance, strong, dark-brown pigment, which, unless thinned out into the slightest smearing, stops the light completely. This painting, then, is used to turn a patch of colored glass into a smaller patch of definite shape; a square or a diamond has its borders so painted over that a hand or a flower is left, the light being "stopped out" from the rest of the piece of glass, so that the translucent part assumes the form desired. There is, indeed, a painting with translucent enamels, but only one important style of work has ever been based upon this method, and modern practice ignores it in nearly all cases; for, although every artist who undertakes important windows experiments a little with enamels, every such artist finds the result so unsatisfactory that it is kept in use almost exclusively for the flesh—the heads and hands—and these are the least valuable parts of modern work. All this is to be found in the book before us, but it would be too much to say that it is made perfectly easy of understanding to the beginner. Perhaps what has been said here will show the difficulty there is in any such undertaking.

The book on Furniture (named above) is the fourth contribution, published during the last two or three years, to the accumulating mass of fact and comparative criticism concerning the older styles of furniture known to the residents of what is now the United States. There is no attempt to go back to times so "olden" that the forms of the Middle Ages or the Renaissance appear; the oldest piece illustrated is of the seventeenth century, and the greater number of tables, arm-chairs, clocks, and bedsteads is of the eighteenth century, and of styles which continued for a few years into the epoch that followed. We have, then, a book upon "Old Colonial" furniture and nothing else; and the accompanying illustrations are altogether similar to those in the three other books to which allusion has been made; but the illustrations are numerous and good, while yet the book is smaller and much less expensive than either one of the previous works, and therefore may be thought to have its place to fill. It is probable, no doubt, that some of the same pieces already illustrated are presented to us here. There are a few tallboys (called high-boys in the book before us) and arm-chairs which are so well known to all the students of this interesting branch of the collector's hobby that a book can hardly be made up without an attempt to secure one of them. Certain collectors in New England, in New York State, and in the South are known to possess specimens of indubitable authenticity and good preservation, and these are constantly in demand for exhibition or illustration.

The book is divided into twelve chapters, each appropriated to one class of furniture, as chapter v. to desks, chapter vi. to chairs, and so on. More originality is to be found in chapter x. ("Fires and Lights") than elsewhere, for there are here a series of pictures of fireplaces, the andirons that belong to them, the fenders set in front of them, the decorative objects commonly seen upon the mantel shelves, along with the lamp-stands and candelabra, the lanterns and sconces, which gave more available light than that of the fire to those who sat by it. Looking-glasses, too, have a chapter to themselves, and a pleasing and very diverse assortment of these is shown, giving to the student a wide range for motives of design.

## STEPHEN'S BIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES.

*Studies of a Biographer.* By Leslie Stephen. Vols. III. and IV. (Second series.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

These latest volumes from the pen of the man who is likely long to be remembered as the biographer paramount of English letters, are delightfully characteristic. The essays of which they are composed are review articles written for the magazines—rather appreciative and discursive than in any strict sense contributive. In them, therefore, is shown, more clearly than in most of Mr. Stephen's recent writing, that tincture of personality which gave so ripe and mellow a charm to the well-remembered 'Hours in a Library.'

One does not turn to Mr. Stephen's books for the carefully involute, analytic, literary criticism which is coming in fashion. The salient quality of his mind is the ripe humanism of the imaginative biographer. His chief concern in reading a book is communion with its author; and he gets at the nature of the author only in exceptional cases by the set process of analysis and deduction which others use. His method is rather one of genial sympathy, guided by an inductive instinct so trained and habitual as to have become, to all appearance, quite unconscious. This procedure with men not wholly antipathetic to him has yielded some very suggestive appreciations. When these appreciations have been expressed in Mr. Stephen's singularly vigorous and lively manner, vitalized (but never vulgarized) by colloquialisms and vivid personal interpolations, the result is a group of essays of exceptional import and pleasurableness.

As it happens that, in the second of the volumes under review, several topics of the highest interest are treated, we can deal but shortly with the other, merely tempting the reader to its perusal by noting that it contains characteristic comments upon the Browning letters and Godwin's Novels, studies of Donne, Ruskin, Bagehot, Huxley, and Froude, and a happily rambling essay "In Praise of Walking." The nature of the subject in several of these papers gives scope to certain deep-seated predilections and antipathies that were familiar to readers of Mr. Stephen's earlier work, but have been somewhat less conspicuous of late. In the trend of the papers on Bagehot, Ruskin, and Huxley, as well as in those brilliant, mocking asides which are the most striking feature of his style, Mr. Stephen shows a respect for the reserved judgment and a profound distrust of all dogmatic theory, whether in literature, philosophy, or theology, which tend to give his work an air of scepticism as pervasive as Montaigne's. At times, even, we think him in danger of tripping into that *humorous fallacy* which ought to be catalogued as the complement of Ruskin's famous tag—the feeling that whatever can be subtilely derided or openly mocked at is necessarily of dubious validity and worth.

The leading essay in the second of the two volumes now in hand is a notable study of "Shakspere as a Man." Breaking his own desiderated rule, that no one should write about Shakspere without a special license, Mr. Stephen offers us the sanest of essays upon that over-written subject. By a process of cool, consecutive inference not common in such matters, or in these volumes, he constructs a "character" of Shakspere which is, so far as it goes, quite convincing. His summary of the philosophy of living to which the dramatist was constrained by the bent of his character and temperament, is in itself so suggestive, and contains such a note of consonance with much in Mr. Stephen's own views, that it may be fitly quoted here:

"Be a Romeo while you can; love is delightful when you are young; only think twice before you buy your dram of poison. As you grow older, be a soldier, a hero, or a statesman, or, if you can be nothing better, be a playwright, so long as the inspiration comes with spontaneous and overpowering force. But always remember to keep your passions in check, and don't forget that the prize, even if you win it, may turn to ashes in your mouth. Fate is always playing ugly tricks, punishing the reckless, and exposing illusions. The struggle is fascinating while it lasts, because it arouses the energies; but when the energies decay, the position which it has won loses its charm. Literary glory, though one may talk about it in sonnets, is a trifle. Your rivals are many of them very good fellows, and make pleasant society; it is both pleasant and prudent to be on good terms with them, and nothing is so contemptible as the rivalry of authors. But, after all, success only means a position among jealous dependants of great men, who themselves are very apt to get into the Tower and even to the scaffold. When youthful passions have grown feeble, and the delight of being applauded by the mob has rather palled upon one, the best thing will be to break one's magical wand and sit down with, we hope, 'good Mistress Hall' for a satisfactory Miranda, at Stratford-upon-Avon. Though we can no longer write ballads to our mistress's eyebrow, we can heartily appreciate gentle, pure, and obedient womanhood, and may hope that some specimens may be found, while we still enjoy a chat and a convivial meeting with an old theatrical friend."

This is surely an excellent likeness of the man; yet it fails a little to suggest the genius. There are some of us who cannot help believing that the greatest of tragic writers was more passionate about the larger and fateful issues of life than would appear in such a picture of his mind.

To Emerson Mr. Stephen, though a professed "Lockist," gives a surprisingly sympathetic essay. Certainly, all Emersonians will be interested, as Mr. Stephen hopes, "to know how their prophet affects one of the profane vulgar." Mr. Stephen can realize the thing that Emerson stood for to the America of his time. His queer, effective combination of Yankee shrewdness and Neo-Platonic mysticism is excellently portrayed. And it is a suggestive remark, that where Wordsworth was a man whom nature worship lifted at times into a "blessed mood" in which the burthen of the mystery was lightened and he could see into the life of things, Emerson was one in whom that "blessed mood" had become normal. Although the study as a whole partakes of the nature of a *tour de*

*force* of sympathy, its conclusion has the accent of long conviction.

"Emerson's mysticism . . . ," says Mr. Stephen, "reveals at any rate the man himself, the pure, simple-minded, high-feeling man, made of the finest clay of human nature; the one man who to Carlyle uttered a genuine human voice, and soothed the profound glooms of dyspeptic misanthropy; . . . nobody could be more fitted to communicate the 'electric shock' to his disciples, because of his keen perception of the noble elements of life, in superiority to all the vulgar motives and modes of thought, which were not the less attractive because he could not see his way to any harmonious or consistent system of thought."

From Emerson to Stevenson is a far cry, which Mr. Stephen takes with the ease of the practised hunter of men. In his dealings with Tusitala the "Lockist" is soundly in evidence. To the true genius of Stevenson, the supremacy of "mind-stuff" in him, the cling of his style, the valor of his spirit, Mr. Stephen is accessible and just. In his final estimate he expresses certain truly English considerations which have rarely been better expressed. Stevenson, he thinks, was "the rapid, vivid sprite, the natural Bohemian." And, as he observes very justly, "The Bohemian, . . . the the man who looks from the outside upon the ordinary humdrum citizen, may be a very fascinating personage, but he really lacks something." What it is that such an one lacks is not hard to see. It is, precisely, a ripe humanism—the result of kindly and reflective intercourse with one's fellows, seeking in them, even though they be fools and bores, the fellowship which inheres in "the general heart of man"—the trait, that is, which, partly by predisposition of mind, partly by his long labor among the human records of the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' is the conspicuous power of Mr. Stephen himself.

Illuminating, but less personally significant essays upon Southey's Letters, "New Lights on Milton," and Anthony Trollope, need not detain us. The final paper in the series is an undercutting comment upon M. Joseph Texte's recently translated 'Rousseau and the Cosmopolitan Spirit in Literature.' Neither M. Texte nor Mr. Stephen is much concerned with that comprehensive view which considers all Christendom as a single federation working out in an age-long travail a world literature. Rather, the point at issue involves that literary cosmopolitanism which, about the middle of the eighteenth century, appeared in the intellectual commerce of England and France. Without going to the lengths of that stout old Tory gentleman who held that "foreigners were fools," Mr. Stephen is inclined to discredit M. Texte's elaborate theory of the growing interinfluence of the North and the South: he is disposed to take refuge behind his bulwark of narrow seas, and assert the integrity of national literatures. He would not deny to them many cosmopolitan affiliations—such, for example, as the response which the sentimentalism of Richardson met with in the hearts of three generations of Frenchmen—but he would consider this the result rather of the apt expression of an international mood than of any blending or decay of racial types. It is, of course, quite impossible now, in mid-movement, to predict infallibly the direction and end of our literary progress. Mr. Stephen wisely leaves open the question of the effect of democracy upon letters. He recognizes that democratic literature "may represent wider sympathies and more genuine enthusiasms"; yet he also has a fear that will not down lest democracy may, in the end, come to mean a society in which the individual is lost in the mass, occupied with a petty round of interests, and "incapable of appreciating refinement or high intellectual powers." If such is to be the case, he thinks "there can be no doubt that literature also will become commonplace and vulgar, and so far alike throughout the world." The history of past republics scarcely tends to give ground for this belief, yet the difference between the past and the probable future of democracy is so vast that debate upon this point is beside the mark. Whatever the end, no one is likely to dispute that in its present literary manifestations "the cosmopolitan spirit" is a source more often of weakness than of strength. It is this state of affairs that gives importance to Mr. Stephen's sturdy reassertion of the impenetrability of the inner spirit of a national literature.

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*Sundials and Roses of Yesterday.* By Alice Morse Earle. The Macmillan Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. 461.

Mrs. Earle gives reproductions of a selection numbering well over two hundred of her photographs of sundials, with a smaller number of those of roses, which, by the way, do not take so well. She has joined to the pictures first-hand information about the originals, has touched upon the subject of dialling, and glanced at sundry other topics *à propos de bottes*. The attractive element of the volume is the antiquarian-emblematic-poetical perfume that lingers about the dials. A charm there certainly is about almost any sundial. Still, something like a collector's mania must be added to the ordinary interest in sundials before a person can read Mrs. Earle's volume right straight through without flagging. She seems herself to feel that this is so, and endeavors to lend variety to the subject by chapters about roses, about Rosicrucians, about rural saints and prophets, with desultory passages not a few. But it is not the question whether a book has some dull pages or not, but how enjoyable it is at its best. As somebody says of a poet, it is not how many of his arrows go astray that counts, but whether any of them has struck the Dordonian oak, and sent a resounding shiver through all its limbs and branches. On the contrary principle, how many of the most delightful books—including all the old ones—would have to be condemned! It is always the reader's privilege to skip.

'Sundials and Roses of Yesterday' is much of it very interesting reading to anybody, and all of it to somebody. The authoress could not have furnished us with a livelier variety and still have described as many individual dials as she has done, without which the devotees of dials would have been dissatisfied. To our thinking she has been unduly afraid of being heavy and dry. As long, for example, as she deemed a chapter on dialling called for, why would it not have been better to procure its preparation from some adept in descriptive geometry? If Miss Charlotte Angus Scott or Mrs. Christine Ladd Franklin could have been persuaded to lend this help, the elegance of their exposition of a problem—after all, not so rebarbative as it may be supposed before being fairly scanned—would have added a new grace to the book. To be sure, as it is, two rules are given for constructing a horizontal dial, of which the first is neat, were the rationale of it only made plain. But there are no directions for any other form of dial than that least interesting, least beautiful—and we should add least useful one, were the ratio of zero to zero more intelligible. The second rule given in the book is intended to bring the art of dialling to the level of the comprehension of Southern plantation negroes, and is a deplorable failure. It not only requires the poor fellow to know what latitude is, but also to lay off an angle equal to that latitude. Neither requirement was necessary; and after all he won't get a good dial. Mrs. Earle tells of simple dials that give the time without danger of more than four minutes' error, as experience shows. But does she remember that the penumbra always causes the reading of the time to be about a minute too near to noon, an effect that diffraction considerably increases, while refraction always acts in the same direction and may add two minutes more to the error; that the equation of time sometimes exceeds sixteen minutes, and that the difference between local and standard time may be half an hour? Let all these act in the same way, as they sometimes will, and they foot up to more than four minutes; but, of course, the readings can be corrected.

Nowadays, when there are railway trains to catch and dentists to pay for any unpunctuality on our part in keeping our appointments with them, and the fashion originally set by time and tide of waiting for no man has been generally followed, the sundial has been degraded to an educational device. It is true that if, instead of observing a shadow, one observes an image formed by a lens, and observes it with a microscope, and, in place of the sun, uses a number of stars, high and low, correcting for level, azimuth, and collimation, then indeed our dial becomes a modern astronomical transit, and is the most precise possible instrument for correcting a clock or chronometer, though not exactly handy for direct use in catching a train. For that purpose, a good watch that has recently been compared at noon at any telegraph office is preferable.

Very tolerable clocks had for centuries been in common use when Galileo first watched the swinging lamp in Pisa Cathedral. Yet it was not until the nineteenth century that mean time (in contradistinction to every variety of sun time) came to be universally employed; and no mechanical clock or watch could keep pace with the inequalities of the sun in any satisfactory manner. Consequently, when we see an old wall dial, though its age be but two centuries, we may be reasonably sure that it had, in its day, an honest utility. It is an individual to be respected. But what, pray, is a horizontal dial in the garden of a modern gentleman of business but a despicable lump of affectation? Does he permit any member of his household, if he can help it, to esteem time of so little worth as to be measured out in hours?

The author's extreme dread of being dry

or heavy is illustrated in the chapter on Rosicrucians, concerning whom, she informs us, she has read very much, and concerning whom so little that is really solid has ever been written—enough, however, to make it the business of any chapter on the subject to present the proof that this brotherhood owed its origin to a lie concocted about A. D. 1600 by Johann Valentinus Andreä, alias Basilius Valentinus, alias Florentinus de Valentia, etc., and Johann Thölde of Frankenhausen. With all her learning on the subject, Mrs. Earle should have known that something like this was the case; but the glamour of mystery has been sweeter to her than the plain truth. From something said in the preface, we were led to hope that this chapter would be ushered in by a reproduction of the rare and fine bookplate of the "liebliche Bruderschaft des himmlichen Rosenkreutz" of Andreä and Thölde, with its view of heaven and hell. But we found only a decorative rose.

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*Two on their Travels.* By Ethel Colquhoun. With eight colored plates, sixteen full-page and numerous text illustrations by the Authoress. A. S. Barnes & Co. 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi., 242.

The motive of this bride in describing her wedding journey is "to add a tiny bit of mirth and enjoyment from my own superabundant store to that of less favored folk." With such an aim, and in the full tide of that new happiness which invests even familiar scenes with an unwonted charm, she would have been successful if she had not left her native shores; but when it is "the golden window of the East" which she opens to her "shut-in" readers, their enjoyment is assured. She has other qualifications for her task, however, than that of an unselfish motive. Possessing both literary and artistic skill in an unusual degree, her bright, vivacious word-pictures are accompanied by numerous sketches, some of which in color are exceedingly attractive. Naturally she leaves the discussion of the serious topics which a journey in the East inevitably suggests, to her husband, the well-known traveller and author, Archibald Colquhoun, and dwells upon the trivial, every-day sights which, after all, constitute the chief enjoyment of a visit to foreign lands. Digressions, grave and gay, are numerous, but even when they take the form of severe criticism, as of American manners, an underlying mirthfulness is always evident. Altogether, 'Two on their Travels' has that indefinable charm which the companionship of an entertaining woman who has seen much of the world always gives.

After a somewhat startlingly familiar introduction of herself and "Andrew" to her readers, her narrative takes them from Singapore to Java, "the garden of the East," and from thence to Borneo, the Philippines, "the land of sunsets," and Japan, "the playground." She is mostly occupied with amusing descriptions of scenery, costumes, her fellow-travellers, life in inns and on the sea, and several adventurous experiences. Now and then there is a remark of a more serious nature, as that the Dutch in Borneo, "a country rich in oil, coal, diamonds, gold, timber, gutta, and many other valuables," seemed a great failure. "There is a sleepy, decadent, stagnant, rotting air everywhere." In the Philippines she is surprised at the size of the towns "and the number of good houses they contained. One provincial town has as many as four large churches, two colleges for boys and girls (all well built of stone), a theatre, made of wood but elaborately decorated inside to simulate marble, and a fine public building." The religion of the Filipinos is "little more to them than superstition and pageantry. At one place we saw one of the saints from the church, which, in honor of the Americans, had been rudely dressed to represent the statue of Liberty in New York harbor. Spikes of gilded paper were round its head, and one absurd wooden arm was raised, holding a *bâton*." A more encouraging sight was a village school with its rows of little girls with small brown faces and twinkling dark eyes, with clean and freshly starched clothes, and the American soldier teacher, who "called on one damsel after another to translate alternately in Spanish and English the stereotyped remarks about uncles, nephews, gardens, wives, pens and ink." Mrs. Colquhoun's general impression is apparently summed up in the statement that "the United States is leavening the whole lump with the spirit of utilitarianism and progress."

Two American girls were her companions during this part of her journey, and as they were the first

"to pass through the islands after the American occupation, and as many of the young officers at distant stations had seen no women-kind for eighteen months or more, they fell easy victims to the charms of the sisters, who left a track of bleeding hearts behind them. Usually, on returning from a visit to the shore, they were followed by detachments of orderlies bearing curios of all kinds, of which the young fellows stripped their quarters to present to the belles. On one occasion Sadie returned almost empty-handed, and, in reply to my question as to 'loot,' said scornfully: 'These men are not the *giving* sort; they're only the *promising* sort. Still,' she added pensively, 'I left my address.' "

Her enjoyment is at its height in the "quaint, beautiful, picturesque country" of Japan; and the descriptions of its life, and particularly of the women, their dress and occupations, are among the most interesting in the book. In an account of a pottery manufactory Mrs. Colquhoun contrasts the fine and dainty old Satsuma with the work now turned out in cartloads for the "European and (especially) American markets." In a "terrible modern show-room . . . monstrosities are ranged in rows, and gold is piled on gold, blue shrieks against blue, and yellow quarrels with magenta, till one shuts one's eyes and hurries for relief into the next room, followed by smiling Japanese, who say, 'Yes! it is all velly bad, but sell velly much!' "

The homeward journey was by the Siberian Railway, and if Mrs. Colquhoun is to be trusted, eastern Siberia is not prosperous. The harbor of Vladivostok, "which used to be dotted thickly with vessels, was almost devoid of them and trade was being driven to Talienwan." In the interior were some isolated towns, and "here and there a few log huts, twenty or thirty people, and a few cattle, and then for miles silence and emptiness. . . . The people live the lives of brute beasts, have no education, no amusement, save perhaps to listen to a crazy accordion or musical box, and but one change of clothes in the year. Their chief distraction is the consumption of *vodka*." Even Irkutsk, "as night approaches, . . . takes a forbidding air, for all windows and doors are shut and barred, the shops with great iron clamps like those of a prison. Few people are seen about, for the streets are still unsafe in this convict city, and only here and there a shaft of light from an upper window tells one that the place is really alive." Conditions improve as the Urals are approached. "Many brown wooden towns—better built than any we had seen before, with little flower-gardens and plots of vegetables—are scattered over this country," and the two days' journey in European Russia to Moscow was through one enormous cornfield. Mrs. Colquhoun takes her readers back with her to London, and closes her genial chronicle with a kindly wish to her friends, "known and unknown," that they may have "voyages as fortunate as ours, and hearts as light to enjoy."

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*China and the Chinese.* By Herbert Allen Giles. Macmillan Co. 1902.

The Columbia University was fortunate in securing the foremost living English scholar in Chinese to inaugurate the foundation, by Gen. Horace W. Carpentier, of the Dean Lung chair of Chinese. Without pretence of advancing Chinese scholarship, but rather to arouse interest in a subject of increasing importance, the English professor of Chinese at Cambridge sends forth this volume at the request of the authorities of Columbia University.

The study of the oldest and most populous empire on earth suffers from the same disadvantage as does the earlier history of New York as treated by Diedrich Knickerbocker. The ludicrous side of China and her civilization was the one which first attracted the attention of foreigners, and to a great extent it does so still. The study of similarities and identities with the facts of ancient European life and with the modern Occident not only shows more and more the common humanity of the peoples East and West, but demonstrates that, from similar circumstances and forces, similar results will issue. On this principle Dr. Giles has proceeded throughout. Happily, he is thoroughly familiar with Chinese literature as well as with external conditions. Indeed, he handles every one of his chosen subjects with such consummate ease that we imagine some of his readers will suspect the depth of his scholarship; yet many a writer might envy his absolute mastery of his themes. This book makes easy reading, even for a boy or girl.

As for the ludicrous situations, they often occur in China because Chinese customs are violated by ignorant foreigners. For example, the invariable cup of tea served to a visitor on arrival is not intended for ordinary drinking purposes, for which wine is usually provided. To drink this tea is to give the signal for departure. Hence Chinese servants, unless previously warned of the funny ways of the alien, will at once give a shout to the bearers to be ready with the sedan chair. Indeed, when the time is up and the host has engagements elsewhere, he may, without breach of good manners, be the first to drink, thus delicately dropping a hint to his guest that time is valuable even in China. Some other things it would pay the expectant visitor to China to read in the delightful chapter on Chinese manners and customs. With

masterly ease and scholarly thoroughness, are discussed in the six chapters, the Chinese language, the national body of literature, democratic China, and Taoism, which last, take it all in all, is, in critical acumen, historic, and especially chronological accuracy, proof of critical acquaintance and power of interpretation, and freedom from prejudice, one of the best discussions of the subject that we know of. The fourth lecture is a suggestive and illuminating comparison between China and ancient Greece. The author gives us a good index, and closes his very readable work with a plea for a serious and systematic examination of the modes of thought and manners and customs of the Chinese people, in place of the silly stuff of which we have a plethora in the works even of visitors to the country itself.

On one point, those who love the beautiful ideograms of China will grieve. Despite good print, paper, and binding, it seems positively disgraceful that, in place of the author's pen strokes (and Dr. Giles is very far from being a calligraphist in Chinese), there should not be in the wealthy city of New York a font of Chinese type with intelligent workmen to use it. When shall our boastful country have a tithe of the resources of Leipzig or Leyden in this respect?

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*Masterpieces of Greek Literature.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Such is the title of a book of selections from well-known translations of eighteen Greek writers, from Homer to Lucian. It is under the "supervising editorship" of Prof. J. H. Wright of Harvard, whose name appears alone on the back and title-page of the volume. Professor Wright contributes an "Introduction" of eight pages, which is, we need hardly say, scholarly and suggestive, and very unlike the usual perfunctory "foreword." With it Professor Wright's responsibility ends. The selections were made, and the biographical and other notes were written, by Miss Clara Seymour, "with the counsel of her father," the eminent Greek professor at Yale University. The work, which is an evidence of Bryn Mawr scholarship, appears, therefore, under the ægis of both Harvard and Yale.

This is not the place in which to raise the question of the possibility of a satisfactory translation of a Greek masterpiece. For the student of history and philosophy, such a translation as Jowett's Plato or Jebb's Thucydides serves all the purposes of the original. For the student of literature it does not. A translation, then, can reproduce statements of fact, and, in the hands of a master of English prose, can rise to the level of the classic—an English classic. The cases in which this has occurred can be counted on the fingers of one hand. For the translation of Greek poetry is needed a scholar who has the instinct of a poet; but when the rare combination arises, when the scholar has the poetic imagination, like Matthew Arnold, or the poet is scholarly, as in the case of Mr. Swinburne, his feeling for the perfection of the original amounts to paralysis. It is in Swinburne's paraphrases, if anywhere, that the ashes of Sappho burn again. But even Swinburne despaired of an adequate translation of the Odes. "Immortal Venus, throned above," begins Merivale's version of the first ode, "To Aphrodite," reproduced by Miss Seymour. "My feeble pulse forgot to play" is a line from Phillips's rendering of the ode of which Longinus said that it was a "congress of the passions." The Sapphic metre is not even attempted, and the language and the emotions it inspires are equally frigid. Yet, since Swinburne carefully wove his paraphrases into his own verse so that they cannot be used for quotation, Miss Seymour has offered the general reader the best at her disposal. We can only assure him that these versions express Sappho about as nearly as Pope expresses Homer. The case of Homer is notorious. The benefit of a verse translation of Homer rests with the translator. Miss Seymour reproduces portions of Bryant's Iliad and of Worsley's Odyssey. Some fail less conspicuously than others, is all that one can say of Bryant and Worsley. Miss Seymour includes the whole of Mrs. Browning's "Prometheus Bound" and Plumptre's "Antigone," with nearly the whole of the "Alcestis" in Browning's transcript. These versions are at least alive, and are nearly always scholarly.

The selections have been well made, and the biographical and other notes are clearly written and sufficient for the general reader, to whom we heartily recommend the volume.

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*Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum.* By Isabel Lovell. Illustrated. The Macmillan Co.

"This book," said a girlish critic to whom it was submitted, "is written in words of one syllable." The title might suggest to the general reader a learned treatise on dusty archæology; but if he takes it up reluctantly he will not willingly lay it down; and if he has ever tried for himself to investigate, under a pitiless Italian sky, the intricate ruins of the Forum, he will breathe a sigh of relief when this new guide takes him gently in hand. The style of the book is clear and readable, but so elementary as to make one feel that it was written for children. It has withal something of that rhetorical manner which people needlessly employ for such readers. Sometimes (as on page 141) the description bursts into the form of rather declamatory dialogue, with such appeals as "Look once more, I pray thee. Doth no one come?" The first chapter explains the uses of the Forum, with helpful bits of history woven in; and the reader who has left the classics behind with his school days will gladly have his memory so easily and pleasantly refreshed. The last chapter describes the Forum's streets, and the gorgeous processions which once passed through them, while the intervening chapters are chiefly devoted to the temples formerly erected there.

Our author has a little unconscious trick of sometimes relating miracles, and the old legends of the interference of gods in earthly affairs, as if they were purely historic. Truly poetry and history are so interwoven in that region that it is difficult to disentangle them, yet the seeming statement of tradition as fact might well puzzle a child reader. But the book is, at any rate, the history of Rome in a nutshell, giving vivid pictures of the heroic days, tinted with the entrancing colors of the old mythology. The illustrations give a good idea of the present ruins, but the plates showing "restorations" of buildings may, perhaps, be a little confusing to young readers who do not understand that these restorations are imaginary only—a fact which even the preface does not state in so many words. One would like to know, also, whether the very imposing list of "authorities" which opens the book represents writers consulted in the original or only at second-hand.

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*The Soul of a People.* By H. Fielding Hall. Macmillan. 1902.

Neither the popularity of the subject nor the scholarship of the author can account for the welcome accorded to this book, which in four years is already in its fourth edition. It is rather the remoteness of the subject, Burmese religion, which attracts; but the chief factor is the author's spirit. He does not know much about Buddhism as a system, but he is familiar with Burmese Buddhism as a working religion, and, seeing its influence upon a light-hearted population, he is fascinated by it and joys in it, till, out of the fulness of his joy and wonder, he tells us about it, simply, affectionately, and so effectively. This is the charm of the book; its naïve ignorance and idealization are almost childish, but the unaffected earnestness of the writer makes good the ignorance, for it calls attention to facts of Buddhism that are often neglected. Thus the net result is rather a gain, even to the scholar who marvels to hear any man say of Buddhism that "it stands alone here amongst all religions, pure from the tinsel of miracle," while the learned are still discussing whether the miracles of Buddhism were loaned to Christianity. Again, our author says that a Buddhist monk enters a monastery "to prepare his soul for heaven," whereas Buddhism denies both soul and heaven; and that to the Buddhist "the great God lives far behind his laws," whereas Buddhism knows no law save *Karma*, and has no God at all. And if Mr. Hall chooses to call Buddhism an optimism, not a pessimism, he does so by changing the meaning of these terms. To him, the Buddhist lives "in a real world, and knows it is good," but Buddha himself knew that it was evil.

When Mr. Hall goes further afield and cites (on page 190) from the "laws of Manu" verses which are not found in Manu, we are not surprised, but only wonder why this apocrypha is deemed necessary to the discussion. Yet this false citation is typical of the historical inaccuracy that obtains throughout the book. The reason is not far to seek. Mr. Hall's Buddhism is not Buddhism; it is the gentle Burmese caricature of Buddhism. Even our author admits this, saying finally of the Burmese villager that "he has made for himself out of Buddhism a belief that is opposed to all Buddhism in this matter" (of life after death). So at last we have the secret: the "Soul of a People" is the soul of Burma, and this is of great interest. But it is an error on the part of the author to exploit as Buddhism throughout the book what at the end even he confesses is not Buddhism at all. Take away pessimism and the hope of eternal extinction, and what Buddhism have we left? A belief in soul, heaven, meeting with

loved ones hereafter, a great and good God —it is no wonder that such a belief touches a sympathetic chord. This is "Buddhism" in Burma. But this is the belief that Buddha thought he had demolished forever.

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*The Story of Verona.* By Alethea Wiel. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. Pp. viii., 314.

It is good to be reminded once in a while how superlatively interesting is such a city as Verona—a "city which," as Mr. Street says in his 'Brick and Marble in the Middle Ages,' "perhaps more than any other in northern Italy charms the cultivated traveller by the beauty, interest, and grandeur of its buildings." When one considers that Mr. Street was utterly blind to all beauty in architecture that did not date from a certain limited epoch, and that his estimate ignores a full half of what delights the "cultivated traveller" of to-day; when one recalls, moreover, that Verona was the seat of an important school of painting, and that its history is, like that of Siena, Perugia, and many another of the minor cities of Italy, brimful of picturesque and thrilling incident—one is only too thankful for the handy volume that marshals these riches conveniently for review. It forms one of the "Mediæval Town Series," and, without being either the best or the worst of that series, it is still a very creditable performance. Without any pretence of original research, and for the most part relying upon books that are accessible to everybody—especially for all that relates to art—Mrs. Wiel has given a résumé of the story of Verona, an account of its treasures of architecture and painting, that constitute an agreeable supplement to the ordinary vade-mecum. Those who are fortunate enough to linger a few days in the fair city on the Adige may find their advantage in the use of her careful and conscientious compilation. The volume is very prettily illustrated from drawings by Nelly Erichsen and Helen M. James, as well as by halftone reproductions of pictures of the Veronese school, and its value is considerably enhanced by a good index.

At the same time, it should be acknowledged that Mrs. Wiel's work has the defects incident to its qualities, as well as some others less respectably connected. Conscientious people are rather given to "sitting on the fence," and our author is one of those not above this weakness. She is continually admitting that there are two opinions as to this or that bit of history, archæology, art or tradition, without ever trying to establish which one is the right. This, however, is less the defect of a quality than the shady side of a shining virtue: we sometimes wish it remained with her on the occasions when she "knows her own mind." The woman in her perhaps aiding, she can be quite certain about one of her own sex. No doubt Samaritana da Polenta, wife of Antonio della Scala, had her share of human frailty: she was of the family whence came Francesca da Rimini; but, perhaps too much influenced by that consideration, we hesitate to condemn her altogether, although we have Mrs. Wiel's word for it that her taste in jewelry was "ridiculous—not to say vulgar," and that, though she was alone among the wives of Veronese rulers to encourage literature and the arts, "she was in reality too vain and frivolous to care for learning for its own sake."

This case of downrightness is, however, almost unique. Of another sort is a statement that amused us more than was perhaps intended. The writer is so impressed with that picturesque stone known as "tufo" that she puts it into the index, and in one place says of it: "This 'tufo' must be cut from the quarries in summer, when it hardens into such *solidarity* [the italics are ours] as to make it well-nigh everlasting." Still, in general, we have not to reproach her with either excessive severity or undue liberties with her vocabulary. Her careful compilation is fairly correct, is, moreover, readable, and the author's want of decision about disputed points is, we repeat, commendable in a work that makes no pretence to original research. Its chief failing is amateurishness, and its second, the liberal crop of misprints that disfigures its pages. The latter may be mended in a succeeding edition, the former must be left to the discipline of future work. The tendency to the repetition of pet turns of expression, to the occasional brief bursts of fine writing, to a gentle inanity of commentary, and to the use of certain inelegancies of speech, will disappear under the correcting influence of practice.

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*Archæological History of Ohio:* The Mound Builders and Later Indians. By Gerard Fowkes. Published by the Ohio State Archæological and Historical Society. Columbus, 1902. 8vo, pp. xvi, 760.

In Ohio are found the most remarkable of the works attributed to those ancient Americans called the Mound Builders, and here, too, is the field of much that is important and interesting in our later aboriginal history. Probably more nonsense has been written about the Mound Builders than about any other people that ever existed, the "Ten Lost Tribes of Israel" not excepted. Fables of "a lost civilization," "geometrical instruments," "a compact civil organization," "myriads of people," "magnificent cities," "an extensive empire," have been rolled from writer to writer, increasing like a snowball as they progressed, until there are many intelligent persons who believe that there dwelt in the Ohio Valley an intellectual and civilized race vastly superior to and totally different from our Red Indians. Hence it is gratifying in the highest degree to have presented in the graphic and attractive manner of the present work the facts as they exist, and the conclusion to which they inevitably lead: "Nothing yet discovered proves for any of the Mound Builders a higher intellectual capacity than is, or was, possessed by more than one well-known tribe of American Indians."

To the demonstration of this thesis Mr. Fowkes gives two-thirds of his book, analyzing, ridiculing, and demolishing the reckless statements of many a romancing predecessor, and establishing beyond cavil such points as these: To erect the works required neither great skill, large numbers, nor long time. The artifects found in the mounds do not in any particular surpass those picked up on the surface and known to be the work of the recent Indians. In no particular were the Mound Builders in advance of many known tribes. The "mathematical figures," except those at Newark, are of the rudest character. The perfect circle at Newark could have been made by any one possessed of the knowledge that a string continues of the same length in whatsoever direction from a centre it be extended. The square at Newark, alone, requires a geometrical operation, but not one of a highly complicated order (and, indeed, a square can be laid out by a formula even simpler than that used by Mr. Fowkes). It is distinctly refreshing to find a book so accurate and sane in treatment of this mania-producing subject. Here is, however, no history of the Mound Builders, for this author is no more able than his predecessors to tell us who or when they were, nor why they constructed such extraordinary works. The Indian history of the State where was, as now seems probable, the early home of the Siouans, and perhaps also of the Iroquoians, is ignored; and we pass from the Mound Builders to a brief account of the recent Indians and a long account of their stone implements, including a good description of the famous Flint Ridge, the chief armory of the Indian.

Excellent as this book is, the author's zeal in demolishing venerable fables leads him by mere momentum to overrun his objective, and to belabor quite indiscriminately all his predecessors in the field, both the sensible and the foolish. To those early and industrious workers, Squier and Davis, Mr. Fowkes does try, not always with success, to be just; but in exploiting his rather neat vein of sarcasm he treats Messrs. Shaler and Putnam with no more respect than if they were the "silly" Larkin or Hosea of the mighty imagination. When Mr. Fowkes reads his own book critically he will discover that he is not infallible himself. Yet, all in all, his is a valuable book, and, if properly circulated, will do much to substitute in the popular mind fact for romance concerning our Mound Builders and later Indians. It is a great pity that such excellent matter is not presented in better print and binding. We do not know who prepared the Bibliography found in an appendix. His work would be more valuable had he known that a citation of a book is improved if title, date, and name of author are correctly given.

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*La Propriété Rurale en France.* Par Flour de Saint-Genis. Paris: Armand Colin. 1902.

Few subjects are more fascinating to the student of history than that here treated. Rightly considered, the political history of France is sad enough. It consists mainly of struggles to establish despotic power, and of struggles to maintain and extend it. There is too much of glory in it for human happiness. But the minute homesteads whose boundaries cover France with infinitesimal reticulations, constitute a record of struggles of another kind prolonged for almost twenty centuries: struggles to subdue the earth, to win bread, to maintain the family, to secure a refuge against adversity. One of these little heritages is an epitome of man's life; one cannot think without emotion of the many generations that have come and gone upon it, that have bathed it with the sweat of their brows and enriched it with infinite toil, that have loved it with consuming devotion and parted from it with bitter tears. To

trace its history, to ascertain the forces that affect it, to predict its future, are pursuits which attract the best of French talent and call forth the most engaging qualities of that amiable people.

The work before us, although crowned by the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences, is in some respects disappointing. It is altogether too diffuse, and filled with well-meant but tiresome platitudes. The author seems to have formed no plan before beginning his work, and to have been overwhelmed by the abundance of his materials. Hence it is no slight task to select what is valuable from the confused mass; but whoever has patience will be rewarded. The author has analyzed with care a great number of statistical returns bearing upon the size of properties, the number of proprietors, the causes and effects of subdivision, the influences which favor the acquisition of land, and those which are adverse. We cannot even enumerate his conclusions, and must content ourselves with referring to some of the most important of them.

Two things are especially impressive: the intense desire of the French to possess land and to maintain the family, and the frightful obstacles which their oppressive Government interposes. The common people of France have always been deprived of the invaluable political training which local government gives, and they are altogether incapable of resisting their centralized administration. There are local councils, it is true, but they have few powers, and their action is regulated from Paris. It is only natural that the ambition to be connected with this all-powerful central Government should displace that generous passion which we call public spirit. It is indeed surprising that where the Government assumes control of so great a part of human activity, there should be so much of private benevolence as is displayed. It is not surprising that where the exactions of Government are so severe, most Frenchmen concentrate their energies on providing what they can for their families.

The processes by which the more than fourteen million rural properties in France are constantly uniting and dividing resemble the processes of nutrition and waste in a living organism. The system of entail provided by the Code compels incessant partition; there are 10,500,000 properties of less than two hectares, and 2,175,000 over two and under six. The number of proprietors is far smaller; in 1898 there were about 250,000 transmissions of rural property through death. The number of small properties does not increase, because the Government confiscates much of their value by taxation, and the owners are forced to sell them. The expense of partition under the Code is estimated by this author at from one-fifth to two-fifths of the value of the properties. When there are minor heirs, judicial partition or sale is compulsory. From 8 to 10 per cent. of the *héritages* are estimated at less than 500 francs, and the expenses of administration exceed this sum. The cost of ordinary sales is almost prohibitive. There are other deplorable features in the situation, but we need not specify them. The declining birth-rate and the drift of population to the cities are the inevitable results of the fiscal policy here described. As to those who suffer from it, we heartily agree with the author when he exclaims:

"N'est-elle pas admirable, cette race de travailleurs qui, en dépit des obstacles, des déceptions, persiste, grandit, se perpétue, semblable à ces ruches dont on coupe périodiquement le meilleur du miel et qui ne se lassent pas de produire pour autrui."

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*Elementary Studies in Insect Life.* By Samuel J. Hunter, A. M., Associate Professor of Comparative Zoölogy and Entomology, University of Kansas. Topeka, Kansas: Crane & Co. 1902.

In this book the author has abandoned traditional lines, and, instead of telling first about the characters that distinguish the Insecta, he plunges at once into the life cycle, devoting to it one of the longest chapters in the book, so far as number of pages is concerned; but ten of these pages consist of a series of figures illustrating the complete life cycle of one insect. The special senses are lightly touched, protective devices receive a somewhat fuller consideration, while solitary and social life (chiefly among the bees, wasps, and other Hymenoptera) are given two chapters. Instinct and reason are very briefly treated; but the author credits bees and wasps, at least, with reasoning powers. The mutual relations of plants and insects are somewhat fully considered, and our friends and foes among the class are grouped according to the character of the affected crops. Methods and apparatus for collecting and studying, and structure and classification of insects, are condensed into less than eighty pages, of which seventeen give in tabular form the distinctive characters of the larger groups of insects. An appendix of thirty-one pages treats very briefly of injurious insects and modes of dealing with them. Altogether, the book is interesting and informing, covering just the ground expressed by the author in the title. It will be useful for those who want a general knowledge of the peculiarities of insect life and development, and the author has an easy style that makes reading pleasant.

The pictures are mostly half-tones, and a large number of them are distinctly poor. Some that are made from drawings (103, 115, 119) are inaccurate in outline or detail, and others are obscure and much inferior to published pictures of the same species. Why the unsymmetrical, vaguely outlined representation of the buffalo moth beetle on p. 149 was preferred to the beautifully accurate figure that could have been obtained from the United States Department of Agriculture, passes understanding. The type is clear and the print fair, but not good enough for the numerous half-tones that are scattered through the text.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aguilar, Grace. The Vale of Cedars, and Other Tales. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Almanach de Gotha. 140th year. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Bakewell, Mary E. Bakewell's True Fairy Stories. American Book Co. 35 cents.
Clegg, J. International Directory of Booksellers, and Bibliophile's Manual. Rochdale, Eng.: James Clegg; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 6s.
De Garmo, Charles. Interest and Education: The Doctrine of Interest and its Concrete Application. Macmillan.
Ellis, E. S. Jim and Joe, Two Brave Boys. Philadelphia; Henry T. Coates & Co.
Greenslet, Ferris. The Quest of the Holy Grail: An Interpretation and a Paraphrase of the Holy Legends. Boston: Curtis & Cameron.
Hamm, Margherita A. Famous Families of New York. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $15.
Hill, F. S. Twenty-six Historic Ships. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Keeler, Charles. A Wanderer's Songs of the Sea. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson.
L'Allmande, Pierre. Sandwiches and How to Make Them. Published by the Author.
Maitland, J. A. F. The Age of Bach and Handel. (The Oxford History of Music.) Henry Frowde.
Mangasarian, M. M. Christian Science: A Comedy in Four Acts. Chicago: Published by the Author.
Pictures of Romance and Wonder by Sir Edward Burne-Jones. R. H. Russell. $5.
Robertson, Peter. The Seedy Gentleman. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. $1.50.
Scott, Leader. Correggio. (Bell's Miniature Series of Painters.) London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Stoddard, W. O. Boys of Bunker Academy. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
The Social Comedy. Life Publishing Co.
Walmsley, W. H. The A B C of Photomicrography: A Practical Handbook for Beginners. Tennant & Ward. $1.25.
Welldon, J. E. C. The Consecration of the State: An Essay. Macmillan. 80 cents.
Wells, Philip P. Literature of American History. Supplement for 1900 and 1901. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.00.


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